Effects of Task Variables on Learners' Oral and Written Development and Engagement in EFL Classrooms in Japan

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Table of Contents

3. Methodological Framework

5. Effects of Teacher Questions and Task Types on the Development of Question Forms

6. Issues and Future Directions in Task Research and Pedagogy

Abbreviations

Task-Based Language Teaching: TBLT

Second Language Acquisition: SLA

English as a Foreign Language: EFL

English as a Second Language: ESL

Communicative Language Teaching: CLT

Content-Based Language Instruction: CBI

Content and Language Integrated Learning: CLIL

Complexity, Accuracy and Fluency: CAF

Language-Related Episodes: LREs

List of Figures

Figures

List of Tables

Tables

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CHAPTER ONE

Investigation of Tasks in the Classroom

1.1 Introduction

The object of this study is in the pursuit of pedagogical tasks which are 'meaningful' to the learners in EFL classrooms: in other words, to what extent and how a 'task' is successfully utilized in the classroom in Japan for language development. Ultimately, this means the extent to which the Japanese teenage learners really experience it as such (Van den Branden, Van Gorp, & Verhelst, 2007) and fully accommodate themselves to the meaningfulness of the task provided for L2 development in the classroom. To answer these questions, this study examined some of the variables around tasks in classroom research which might affect the realization of 'meaningful tasks' for Japanese learners at a low level of English proficiency. In particular, these students have been left behind in task research, which has been mainly conducted in the English as a second language (ESL) context in which learners have a necessity and affluent opportunities for oral use of English. Consequently, a question arises as to whether or not the findings in ESL settings are applicable to Japanese L2 learners who have different learning backgrounds, since language teaching in EFL classrooms tends to prioritize developing forms rather than meaning for communication from the beginning of L2 learning.

In addition, the questions originate far back in my experience working at an administrative institution of the former Ministry of Education, in which top-down policies were made mainly on the initiative of bureaucrats. A revolutionary policy at that time, which aimed to make English classrooms more communicative and to cultivate good speaking skills among Japanese students in order to meet the demand of the business world in the 21th century, led me to fundamental questions: how communicative language skills could be acquired by students who learn English as a foreign language (EFL); what the pedagogical goals of the skills were; and how successfully teachers could develop these skills. To answer these questions, I started my career as a language teacher and conducted an investigation into the issue from the context of the actual situation in our classrooms to determine the validity of the approach and the ways to make it profitable for L2 learners in Japan.

Meanwhile, the theory of second language acquisition (SLA) explains that language learning takes place when the learner *intakes* the language in meaningful communication which captures their interest and permits them to convey their message (Mackey, 2012; Samuda & Bygate, 2008; Van den Branden et al., 2007). 'Meaningful' language use, in a narrow sense, is considered to happen when we put sentences and parts of sentences (e.g., verbs, prepositions) to use for communicative purposes. On the other hand, 'superficial' conversation can be seen when we combine words into structures merely in accordance with grammatical rules (Widdowson, 1978). In this regard, it is questionable whether 'meaningful' language use by the teacher and students can be accommodated classroom situations.

To use language for communicative purposes for L2 learning in the classroom, studies in SLA have developed the principles of task-based language teaching (TBLT) over the years, putting great emphasis on a language activity as a task. Research into 'tasks', which have been utilized mainly in laboratories, has become established as a major focus of language teaching research since the mid 1980s (Ellis, 2004; 2012; Samda & Bygate, 2008). A 'task' can be a perfect device for motivating learners to engage in language use which concurrently involves some cognitive activities (e.g., predicting, solving, enjoying, searching) which are considered to be similar to the daily activities we experience.

However, there is a concern that the benefits provided by tasks research have primarily been investigated in English as ESL contexts in which learners are exposed to using the language on a daily basis, and these benefits have not yet been fully demonstrated in the Japanese context. Despite its efficacy, there remains a general lack of research into the 'task' in Japanese classrooms, let alone of understanding of the nature of a task, most commonly confused with an exercise or a drill. Accordingly, there is a need to clarify 1) what a task means and 2) how it is beneficial in one's cognitive process of L2 learning. The rationale of the task will be initially explained in the following section (1.2).

Another concern is that a number of research studies have been carried out in isolation from intact classes. Most studies in the SLA discipline have mainly collected data from laboratories and have focused on the effect of some kind of treatment (e.g., *corrective feedback*, *implicit input)*, along with the use of tasks, on L2 development. Whether or not the empirical evidence of laboratory-based academic research can be applied to real L2 classrooms as it stands is one issue to be considered, although investigating the benefits of tasks in the classroom is quite challenging. Firstly, unlike in laboratory-based studies, how reliable would it be to measure performance in the classroom, where various variables cannot be fully controlled? There is not always a clear-cut distinction between the effects of the input phase of learning with a teacher, which is usually provided separately from the task to teach knowledge of the language, and the *output* phase during task engagement by the students. However, classroom activities can be seen as a continuum, and it makes most sense to understand what actually happens in terms of applying language teaching and learning. Secondly, how precisely can we measure learners' task performance when their L2 development processes are dynamic and changing from one time to another? Approaches for dealing with these challenges will be addressed in section 1.3 of this chapter.

Finally, it is a great challenge to pursue the study of 'pedagogical tasks' in order to make the most of classroom language teaching and learning in EFL settings. In essence, the success of the utilization of tasks for second or foreign language (L2) development largely depends on the degree of learners' participation and engagement in the task in the process of internalizing the language for meaningfulness. In fact, there are various variables assumed to affect successful engagement in the task for all the individuals in a specific group of EFL learners. For example, these include the type of task (i.e., collaborative or competitive), the topic (i.e., how familiar it is), the structure of the input (i.e., how the target language is provided to the students, what it is), the means of communication (i.e., computer-mediated or face-to-face) and the nature of the output (i.e., oral or written) and so forth. These variables will be presented in section 1.4 of this chapter.

Notwithstanding these concerns, a task plays an important role in the classroom in that it promotes creative discourse through interactions between teachers and students. In fact, language classrooms are the central venue for learning, providing ample interactive elements in which 'each individual in an interaction imitatively adapts to the language of another' (Larsen-Freeman, 2012: p.76). Specifically, L2 classes are the perfect time to get to know each other and form friendships, providing optimal opportunities and resources by which learners can map form – meaning – use in communicative interactions (i.e., how to use structure, what it means, and when to use it). Obviously, it is worth investigating the role of a task which will motivate or demotivate learners to engage in meaningful communication for L2 learning in a setting where dynamic interactions can be seen.

Thus, in the pursuit of meaningful communication in EFL classrooms, the study explores some of the variables related to tasks which may affect learners' L2 development. The first classroom research in this study examines whether or not using different means of communication (i.e., computer-mediated or face-to-face communication) for tasks has any impacts on learners' performance for L2 development. Additionally, how collaborative tasks facilitate learners' task participation for L2 development is another issue to be examined, since it is not yet clear to what extent Japanese students, who are familiar with playing a receptive role in traditional teacher-centered classrooms, could negotiate or cooperate with each other for L2 learning. Moreover, some of numerous variables come into play: for instance, the kind of task types (i.e., one-way or two-way information gap) and topics which facilitate students' task performance, teachers' discourse in the classroom (i.e., different types of teacher questions) on learners' subsequent task performance and output, as well as features of target language (e.g., phrasal verbs, question forms). These are all possible factors to be examined in the second classroom research of this study.

Structure of the Paper

Reflecting the issues above, this dissertation is composed of seven chapters. The first chapter provides an overview of the content of this study followed by the rationale of task research (see section 1.2), measurement issues (section 1.3) and task variables (section 1.4).

Chapter 2, Theoretical Framework, lays out the theoretical dimension of TBLT by giving an overview of the recent history of communicative language teaching (CLT), which was developed in the late 1970s and early 1980s to meet the demands of the changing world. It goes on to give an account of communicative abilities and linguistic skills for communication, which the social context required, rather than mastery of the linguistic structure (Halliday, 1973). The second section provides an overview of TBLT in SLA theory and defines a 'task' as a methodology in an attempt to apply the theoretical perspective of the Communicative Approach to practical language teaching. The third section explains the approach of TBLT and how it is implemented for L2 learning in the classroom. Some techniques such as *focus on form* and *priming* will be addressed. The fourth section draws on research into SLA which has shown the psychological benefits of TBLT in terms of learners' cognitive processes of *input, intake, output* including *noticing the gap, attention*, *awareness* and *negotiation* in their language experiences, tying up the various theoretical and empirical findings. Moreover, investigations of interactions that could become triggers for learners' internal language learning will be addressed, assessing the significance of TBLT in second language research. In addition to a broad picture of how and what research has found out about 'tasks' in the light of learners' comprehension, an overview of interactive behaviors and L2 output is provided, and other factors that determine the success of L2 development in the various tasks in the classroom will also be considered.

Chapter 3, Methodological Framework, is concerned with the methodological dimension of TBLT in relation to the measurement methods used for this study. It focuses on learners' discourse from the perspective of interaction analysis, which investigates how language discourse is performed as a result of tasks in relation to L2 development. Recent research has been conducted in order to establish measurements of L2 performance such as negotiation of meaning or form sequences, or Language-Related-Episodes (LREs), which is used to refer to the learners' metalinguistic ability to talk about grammar (Ellis, 2012) a verbalize grammatical rules explicitly (Butler, 2002; Hu, 2010). In addition, general aspects ' performance in SLA research, complexity, accuracy and fluency (CAF), will be reviewed. The issues of some variables that are dealt with in this study are addressed. The subsequent section sets out task variables which will be examined in this study. Finally, the last section of this chapter states the problems and research questions of the whole study in relation to the validity of findings in SLA research in Japanese educational context: 1) To what extent can we confirm the benefits of tasks in the classroom for Japanese elementary level L2 learners? 2) What suggestions could be made concerning the use of tasks in the teaching of Japanese teenage learners? The next two chapters present the findings from classroom research, focusing on the key themes of the impact of some task variables on L2 learning in order to address the statement of the problem above.

Chapter 4, Effects of the Means of Communication in Collaborative Tasks on the Learning of Phrasal Verbs, examines the means of communication as a variable, comparing computer-mediated communication (CMC) and face-to-face (FTF) communication. Dictogloss task, a collaborative task in which participants were given dictation and negotiation of language in their first language (L1) to reconstruct sentences, was examined. It was used to investigate the hypothesis that differences might be found in L2 learning between tasks conducted using CMC in a computer-assisted language learning (CALL) classroom and those conducted in a FTF traditional classroom. In Japanese mainstream classroom contexts in particular, students have become very accustomed to face-to-face teacher-led interactions; therefore, there was a pressing concern about whether group interactions could take place via computer-mediated communication, and how positively this could function to learn lexical items (phrasal verbs). The research questions examined in the study were whether or not there were any different impacts 1) on the written development of phrasal verb, 2) on learners' attention to form and 3) on the way learners negotiated language problems. The data of negotiations during performance of the task was audio-recorded and the transcribed language-related episodes (LREs) were analyzed, along with quantitative analysis using the chi-square test and analysis of variance (ANOVA). The results showed no significant difference between the groups in the written test of phrasal verbs. A difference was seen in the focus of their negotiations in terms of form and meaning, that is to say, the CMC group needed more negotiation for meaning to avoid conversation breakdown, although a similar pattern in attention to form and correction was found in both groups. Further discussion will be presented in terms of difficulties with learning phrasal verbs from conversational contexts, differences between CMC and FTF in terms of negotiation of form and meaning, and learners' attention to form and resolutions as seen in LREs.

Be that as it may, due to the necessity to focus more on meaningful interaction in the face-to-face classroom, which is still the dominant classroom format in the Japanese educational context, my next research, described in **Chapter 5, Effects of Teacher Questions and Task Types in the Development of Question Forms,** expands the scope of a face-to-face lesson. The research investigates learners' performance of a task in a group (learner-learner interactions) as well as the teacher's input phase of the lesson (teacher-led interactions). There have been only a few studies investigating the role of the teacher during task-based interactions (Samuda, 2001); moreover, there is even less research focusing on teachers in natural classroom settings, which obviously requires investigation in task-based interaction studies along with learner-learner interactions (Kim, 2013). The current study focuses on two types of teacher questions (referential and display questions) from the perspective of communicative values. It was hypothesized that the more the students were provided with opportunities for meaning-focused (referential) questions, the more they might internalize the target language naturally.

Moreover, the study examines the effects of different task types, in terms of familiarity with topics, on task performance dimensions, in terms of complexity, accuracy and fluency (CAF). The three aspects of learners' performance have been central to one of the most significant current discussions in task-based language research over the Tradeoff Hypothesis, namely, Limited Attentional Capacity approach (Housen & Kuiken, 2009; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Skehan & Foster, 1999; Skehan, 1998; 2001), which claims that the three performance dimensions have a trade-off relationship in one's L2 performance in the SLA discipline. Research questions examined in the study were: 1) Does the type of teacher question (referential or display) affect the amount of students' responses to the questions? 2) Which type of teacher question facilitates students in producing accurate question forms in written tests? 3) Which type of teacher question facilitates students in performing accurate question forms in oral tests? 4) Do referential and display questions have different effects on students' task performance (complexity, accuracy, fluency) in the two tasks (Picture Difference, Personal Information Exchange)? 5) Does the type of task have different effects on students' performance of complexity, accuracy, and fluency? The results revealed that there was no significant difference caused by teacher questions; however, they revealed that learners' performance is significantly affected by the task itself. In addition, it was suggested that there seemed to be a trade-off between accuracy and fluency. The role of teachers, tasks and task performance in terms of complexity, accuracy and fluency measured in the classroom will be further discussed.

Chapter 6, Issues and Future Directions in Task Research and Pedagogy, sums up the results of the two studies above and answers the broad questions stated in Chapter 3, which asked whether the Japanese teenage L2 learners would accommodate themselves to the meaningfulness of tasks in the classroom, based on the issues that emerged from the findings. To answer the questions above, the first section discusses possible factors rendering tasks meaningful in terms of high-quality participation and L2 development for Japanese learners at a low level of English proficiency. The last section of this chapter discusses pedagogical implications based on the general findings and issues of how tasks should be applied in Japanese contexts. The issue of accuracy versus fluency in terms of Japanese learners' attentional resources will be debated, and a fundamental issue raised by the argument over form versus meaning in English language teaching in Japanese contexts will be addressed.

Chapter 7, Conclusions, gives a brief summary of the entire thesis, tying up the theoretical and empirical strands and recapitulating the findings of the present studies. The final point emphasized is that it is worthwhile investigating tasks in the classroom, not only to develop a reflective practice for teachers but also to bridge the gap between theory and practice. The significance and possible practicality of the benefits of experiencing tasks in L2 learning will be covered, with the aim of applying the findings in Japanese educational contexts.

1.2 The Rationales for Task Research

Before addressing why tasks are considered to be effective within theoretical frameworks of SLA, we will briefly look at the background to the rise of the concept of TBLT in ELT practices. Historically, the concept of TBLT was generated after reflection upon the shortcomings of teacher-centered and form-oriented L2 classroom practice (Van den Branden, Bygate & Norris, 2009). It is generally believed that, in its most basic form, the task was developed in order to aim for learner-centered and meaning-oriented communicative classroom practice for L2 development. The use of tasks in L2 classrooms took over the role of helping learners to perform the target language while engaging in the meaningful use of language (Van den Branden et al., 2007). Such a pedagogical 'task' in the domain of instructed SLA directs L2 learners to the use of a selected feature of language discourse (e.g., request, confirmation) while exchanging information (Ellis, 1999; Long, 2015; Norris, Bygate, & Van den Branden, 2009; Nunan, 1989; Van den Branden, 2006). Meanwhile, L2 learners are led to a kind of holistic activity which involves the learners' knowledge of the different sub-areas of language, such as phonology, grammar, vocabulary and discourse, to make meaning, in the same way that language is normally used (Ellis, 2012; Samuda & Bygate, 2008).

Based on these activities, the effectiveness of tasks has been studied within the theoretical framework of SLA with a focus on interaction. The Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1996), which assumed that certain sorts of interactional processes are most beneficial for L2 development, had a considerable influence on early approaches to exploring tasks (Skehan, 2014). It has been claimed that interactional features of the task involved in input, feedback from teachers, and output in negotiation of meaning can provide opportunities for noticing the gap. The research on interaction has provided ample support for the benefits of TBLT, which are considered to have impacted L2 learning as an important component of many classrooms. Mackey (2012) explains the following:

> Through interaction, L2 learners are provided with opportunities to notice differences between their own formulations of the target language and the language used by their native (NS) and non-native speaking (NNS) conversational partners, and they are sometimes pushed to modify their output in order to be understood. (p.5)

In essence, the important role of tasks for interaction in L2 learning is to create an opportunity in which language 'input' is possessed internally in the cognitive mechanisms while engaging in meaning-focused activities (Long 1991; Spada, 2011; Ellis, 2001). Accordingly, a variety of ways to elicit and provide language during interactions (e.g., negotiation of meaning, corrective feedback) is considered beneficial in promoting a focus on form for L2 development 'while communication itself [is] still the primary goal of the encounter' (Skehan, 2014, p.2). There are a number of studies which have investigated tasks in relation to rich and varied *comprehensible input* (Schmidt, 1990), as well as feedback on L2 acquisition (White, Spada, Lightbown, & Ranta, 1991; Lightbown & Spada, 2006) in such a way as to make the learner's cognitive mind engage in communication concurrently or in succession. For instance, cognitive-interaction studies, which see the effectiveness of tasks as being in their cognitive and interactional dimensions, have carried out an exploration of tasks with the aim of applying interaction in order to see how it facilitates the cognitive process of L2 learning (Mackey & Goo, 2007; Lyster & Sato, 2010; Mackey, 2007; 2012). The position emphasizes a framework for investigating a wide variety of interactional factors such as the social context of learning, along with learners' internal processes in terms of attentional control, and individual learners' cognitive differences (Mackey, 2012).

In particular, when it comes to an EFL classroom, it seems that teacher-learner and learner-learner interactions play an important role in L2 development. Findings from SLA research related to their effectiveness in the interactional process and L2 development will be addressed in more detail in Chapter 2. The next section sets out the issues concerning the measurements by which task performance is assessed.

1.3 Measurement Issues

As was mentioned above, there are challenges in the research of L2 development in the classroom. In this section, some difficulties in classroom-based studies compared with laboratory-based studies will be pointed out. Secondly, the challenges of investigating L2 development in terms of the dynamic process of L2 learning will be presented, followed by some measurement methods for L2 learning.

1.3.1 Laboratory-based and Classroom-based Research

Most studies in the SLA discipline have been carried out in a laboratory setting, in w

2008), and there have been few studies in intact classes (Foster, 1998; Samuda, 2009). This is because laboratory-based studies enable us to control for any possible influential factors in order to examine a single phenomenon in the process of second language acquisition, whereas it is undeniable that there are many things happening in intact classrooms, in which the effects of a number of variables are unlikely to be controlled for.

With that, Mackey and Goo (2007) investigated whether the setting had any effect on the learning that resulted from task performance by a meta-analysis, based on the assumption that the effects that tasks have on performance can be influenced by different research settings. They reported that interactions had a greater effect on learning when conducted in laboratory settings. If this is often the case, we need to reconsider how teachers can ensure a similar level of effectiveness in the normal classroom. There is a need to examine findings generated in the classroom, as these may be of great help to both on-site teachers and learners. The classroom is the place where the teacher and learners benefit from the language pedagogy which is created by their dynamic interaction (Allwright, 2003; Ellis, 2012).

1.3.2 Task Research and the Dynamic Process of L2 Learning

Having said that, it should be noted that what L2 learners share in the classroom is an artificial space and controlled time which may make up only a small part of the dynamic process of L2 learning in real life. The benefits of interaction in the classroom can be seen as follows, as Philp, Adams, and Iwashita (2014) suggested:

> […] peer interaction is a context in which the participants are all language learners who are together for the purpose of learning. [...] the nature of this context is somewhat of a kaleidoscope: It changes with the shifting combinations of those involved, how they relate to one another, the activity in which they are engaged, their purposes and means and so on. (p. 1)

Similarly, in language teaching research in the classroom, participants are not subjects of experiments but they are learners who are in the development of *interlanguage*, which Selinker (1972) refers to as the systematic knowledge of L2 that learners construct at different stages of development through their language experiences of the L2. One could account for it by the idea of complexity theory, which sees language evolution as a dynamic process, as was suggested by Evans (2007), as cited in Larsen-Freeman (2012), who noted:

> Language development is no longer seen as a process of acquiring abstract rules, but as

> the emergence of language abilities in real time, where changes over days, months, and years and moment-to-moment changes in language "processing" are the same phenomena, differing only in their timescales [...] (pp.128)

Since language development is characterized by continuous change, complexity results from many interacting elements or agents, and it is necessary to look for nonlinear relations among variables that have been separately studied for linear cause and effect relationships (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008; Larsen-Freeman, 2012). Most of all, language is learnt not only in classrooms, 'it exists and flourishes *in* the lives and circumstances of its users, created *of* their worlds' and 'exists *for* purposes beyond itself' (Larsen-Freeman & Freeman, 2008, p. 147).

Therefore, it would appear to be quite challenging to investigate L2 development without viewing the task as a unit of classroom activity operating within a broader pedagogical framework. We need to bear in mind that we should understand the potential for tasks to shape aspects of L2 development (e.g., Gass & Varonis, 1994; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Bygate, 1999; Samuda, 2009). That is to say, without considering a variety of factors and contexts, testing a single phenomenon of a simple hypothesis (e.g., effects of a certain input) seems to be insufficient to portray L2 learning. Instead, it is of great interest to seek to understand how language is processed and shaped by the way it is used in classroom dynamic interactions. There is an urgent need to explore and understand the process of L2 learning, which shapes aspects of L2 development, despite a number of factors which might affect L2 learning in the classroom.

1.3.3 Measurement Methods

In the literature on the measurement of task performance, a number of studies have attempted to show evidence of L2 development from qualitative and quantitative data. In these studies, one of the measurement methods used has focused on the process of negotiations between teacher-learner and learner-learner during task performance in order to provide an understanding of learners' cognitive processes for L2 learning. Other methods, which are more frequently used in L2 studies exploring task characteristics and task conditions (Skehan, 2014), are the investigation of some aspects of L2 performance in different learning contexts.

Studies to date have explored qualitative differences in the way meaning and form are negotiated during interactions by looking at conversational moves, length of turns of speaking, clarification, repairs and language-related episodes (LREs) which result from pair or group work (Basterrechea & García-Mayo, 2013; Ellis, 2006; Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen, 2001a; Kim, 2009), since it is considered that these can be indicators of noticing 'gaps' in learners' interlanguage (Swain & Lapkin, 1998). The first research in this study attempted to collect data from learners' discourse in order to identify LREs and explore whether or not L2 learning was happening during learner-learner negotiations in the task in different settings.

In addition to these discourse measurements, Skehan (1996) proposed measuring general aspects of language use in the performance of tasks. He emphasized structural complexity, lexical features, accuracy and fluency, and among these, the three most researched areas are complexity, accuracy and fluency (CAF), which have been shown to be empirically distinct (Skehan, 2014). Complexity is generally defined as the extent to which learners produce elaborated language or as lexical diversity (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005); accuracy is measured through the proportion of error-free clauses; and fluency is measured as breakdown (i.e. unfilled pausing), repair (e.g. reformulation), and speed (Skehan, 2014). Some studies have investigated these three aspects of learners' performance, complexity, accuracy and fluency, as dependent variables (Foster, 1996; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Skehan & Foster, 1997; 2005); however, only a few studies (e.g., Mochizuki & Ortega, 2008) have examined beginner-level L2 learners in EFL settings.

1.4 Task Variables

In researching particular effects in the classroom, there are factors at play which are difficult to fully control at any one time. The current study deals with the following variables: means of communication (related to the learning environment), task types, the nature of the input (i.e., teacher discourse) and the language outcome (i.e., the feature of language), which are assumed to influence EFL learners’ successful engagement in the task for L2 development.

Firstly, with the recent gradual changes to the educational environment owing to the development of technology, we may need to consider whether or not the means of task-based communication have any different impacts on learners’ engagement in the task, and whether or not providing input materials on the computer screen has any different impact on L2 learning compared with the use of pen and paper. More precisely, it remains unclear whether educational technology has any impact on the ways learners negotiate, interact, and focus on language in a certain task compared with the situation in face-to-face (FTF) traditional classrooms. Research is needed to examine the emerging role of computer-mediated interaction in the context of task-based language teaching and learning.

Secondly, research into tasks has revealed great difficulty in practice in identifying the design variables related to L2 learning in various communicative interactions that occur when learners attempt to perform a task (Ellis, 2012; Van den Branden et al., 2007). For example, the ways in which tasks are implemented (e.g., the means of communication) and the design of tasks used (e.g., information-exchange, collaboration, the topics for discussion) do matter. Tasks can be tailored in such a way as to generate the processes by which learners have ‘opportunities to receive comprehensible input, to negotiate for meaning, to produce output, and to have [their] attention brought to points of discrepancy between the interlanguage and the target la ’ (Mackey, 2012, p. 59). To strengthen communicative elements for interaction, the creation of specific tasks that effectively bring these elements together is a key issue.

Meanwhile, from cognitive variables seen in information processing, which are associated with attentional resources leading to different performance, Skehan and Foster (2009) investigated how task type (e.g., Personal Information Exchange, Narrative, and Picture Differences) function in their cognitive demands in terms of complexity, accuracy and fluency. The tasks which were 'easy' for the learners led to more fluency but less complexity and accuracy; however, the identification of what type of task is easy or difficult for the learners is still an open question (Mackey, 2012; Van den Branden et al., 2007).

Similarly, the roles played by topic and familiarity in motivating learners to engage in meaningful use of language need to be addressed. This is a major concern when using tasks, as the choice of topic has the potential to account for the success or failure of meaningful communication at the level of individual learners. In particular, the influences of topic familiarity and of procedural familiarity (e.g., use of a game known to the students) could be important variables in the investigation of teenage learners' L2 learning.

Thirdly, the nature of input (e.g., teacher discourse, the target language) provided to the learner can be a central variable in second language outcome (Gass & Selinker, 2008); however, the methods of providing input to the students vary from classroom to classroom. In typical classrooms, teachers play an important role for language input. It can be assumed that the discourse the teachers use in the classroom may influence EFL students' language learning. In particular, teachers often ask questions to function as a kind of model rather than as a conversational partner. Therefore, whether or not the discourse teacher uses affect students' outcome in their task performance needs to be investigated. All these variables must be taken into account within a dynamic whole lesson before making a cautious interpretation of the findings.

Lastly, the language features used for output can also be considered as a variable. The research conducted in the current study dealt with phrasal verbs and question forms. Phrasal verbs, which consist of very common verbs and adverbs, are regularly used by English speaking people in daily conversations; however, they are particularly difficult for EFL learners, since their usage and meaning depend totally on the conversational context. Indeed, investigating the acquisition of phrasal verbs is a great challenge; however, a primary concern is to understand the difficulty for learners in recognizing language and negotiating its meaning and form through the task. Similarly, question forms are commonly used and requisite to keep conversation going in our communication, though it seems that *do*-fronting and inversion of word orders are problematic for a Japanese beginner-level learner. It is of great interest to investigate whether or not an interactive task such as an information-gap task could facilitate their development of the language.

In this chapter, I have discussed task research reviewed in EFL classroom contexts for the meaningfulness of the task in the light of successful engagement and L2 development. The next chapter addresses the background of TBLT and sets out 1) what a task means and 2) how it is beneficial in the cognitive process of one's L2 learning.

CHAPTER TWO

Theoretical Framework

2.1 Introduction

Teachers often provide students with some kinds of activity in order to practice listening, reading, writing or speaking. However, what exactly is the difference between an exercise and a task? To answer this question, the first section sets out an explanation for the rise of task-based language teaching by tracing the development of English Language Teaching (ELT) practices in recent years. It then accounts for some definitions of the 'task' in L2 teaching and learning in order to clarify what a 'task' means, how it works in the classroom, and what advantages it confers on L2 learning through classroom interactions, followed by sections which give an account of the benefits of implementing tasks along with interaction and L2 learning, supported by research into SLA.

2.2 Changes in English Language Teaching Practices

Teaching language is a continual process of trial and error. There is no single best method among English teaching practices, nor can we claim that newer methods are always better than older ones. Methods are often determined by the conditions in each teaching and learning setting; the choice of new methods of teaching language has often been made based on a teacher's own beliefs about the teaching and learning process. It is sometimes the case that "methods or practices that fall into disfavor in one era are resurrected in another" (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011, p. 4). In addition, factors both internal and external (e.g., educational policies) to ELT practices affect language teaching, and the consensus regarding the merits of a particular method has often swung back and forth like a pendulum over time. Nevertheless, in search of ways to make language learning more successful, teachers have adopted or rejected new perspectives on language teaching. To get an idea of how task-based language teaching and learning emerged, we briefly look at changes in the methods in language teaching practices in the recent history of ELT.

2.2.1 History of Language Teaching Methods

For many years, language was seen as a system for the expression of meaning and was taught by language teachers in order to help students to read and appreciate foreign language literature (Nunan, 1999). For these purposes, the Grammar-Translation Method began to be used early in the 20th century and was considered to be helpful in that the more students became familiar with the grammar of the target language, the better they became able to speak and write their native language; foreign language learning would help students grow intellectually through the mental exercise of learning, despite the fact that students would perhaps never use the target language (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). However, with the rise of a need for communicative language learning, and due to regrets that the Grammar-Translation Method had not worked as an effective way to use another language to communicate, the idea of the Direct Method took its place. This method told teachers not to use the students' native language, and no translation was allowed in the classroom in order to maximize students' opportunities to use the language they were studying. However, the lack of preparedness of language students for communication based on instruction through L2 brought the Direct Method under attack. Moreover, it turned out that the proscription of the students' first language (L1) deprived teachers and students of opportunities to share in common, undermining and damaging the possibility to establish a relationship between languages, and violating the pedagogical principle of the links between students' L1 and the target language they were learning (Cook, 2010).

In the meantime, the Audio-Lingual Method, which had a strong theoretical base in linguistic and psychology, came to be applied to language classrooms. Unlike the Direct Method, this method drills learners to acquire the sentence patterns of the target language by stimulating and reinforcing correct responses in order to overcome the habits of their native language and to form new habits (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). However, this method emphasized drills and repetition including dialogue memorization, which raised the question as to whether or not language acquisition results from habit formation. Some argued that language acquisition takes place when learners engage in meaning for communication, not through habits formed in isolation. In the face of criticism that the Audio-Lingual Method ignores learners' thinking processes which allow them to discover the rules of the target language, human cognition came to be emphasized.

Following on from the use of drills and repetitions, the Silent Way, for instance, provided opportunities for learners to use the language to express their thoughts, perceptions and feelings rather than leading them to repeat the target language after the teacher. However, the passive role of the teacher, who keeps silent as far as possible and so does not provide a substantial amount of feedback during the lesson, was questioned. As learners came to be considered as sensitive 'persons' with fears and negative feelings about learning languages, the next challenge in the methodology was how to turn them into positive learners. Having focused on learners' cognition as an aspect of mental capacity for L2 learning in the 1970s, the application of 'desuggested' pedagogy has been developed to desuggest the psychological barriers learners bring with them to the learning situation. The principles of 'Desuggestopedia' make a classroom bright and cheerful and the teacher initiates interactions with the whole group of students from the beginning of a language course (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011).

In addition, a new method, Community Language Learning, came to see the role of a teacher as a counselor who could help students to use the target language communicatively, enabling the sharing of thoughts and feelings between the teacher and learners, so that the learners who were dependent on the teacher at first could become independent step by step, based on mutual interdependency. The method has the advantage of creating a community among class members for L2 learning. However, one of the challenges for educators was whether or not the method met the goal of language acquisition in terms of accuracy in the classroom.

Meanwhile, the promotion of language in a globalized world has influenced thinking about language education that reflects a diversity of perspectives on the teaching and learning processes. The more necessary English communication has become in a globalized business world, the more English language teaching has valued the language we use. Subsequently, the goal of L2 learning shifted from learning the usage of languages to communication in the target language, and the teaching method and style of instruction placed an emphasis on interaction and dialogue.

2.2.2 Language for Communication

There has been much argument over the goal of language teaching and learning. The theoretical perspective of communicative language teaching (CLT) emphasized that the goal of language learning for students was to communicate in the target language. Prabhu (1987) believed that as far as language teaching embraced intellectual excitement, it was important for learners also to engage in classroom activities in which they perceived lessons as experiences of growth for themselves. His idea tied in with the idea of bringing a task into the classroom for experience and subsequently led to the concept of TBLT. In addition, language is fundamentally social, a means by which language users needed to perform certain functions such as requesting, inviting, and promising, and so mastering linguistic structure was not enough to be able to communicate (Halliday, 1973, Wilkins, 1976). Widdowson (1978) argued the following:

> Knowing a language means both knowing what signification sentences have as instances of usage and what value they take on as instances of use, it seems clear that the teacher of language should be concerned with the teaching of both kinds of knowledge. (p. 19)

Basically, learning how to communicate in the target language requires knowing when and how to say what to whom (Hymes, 1971) as well as linguistic competence. Such new observations gave impetus to a shift from a linguistic structure-centered approach to a communicative approach in the late 1970s and early 1980s. However, since the principles could be interpreted and applied based on the teacher's understanding, this permitted adaptation to each classroom, and the resulting flexibility meant that classroom practices differed widely (Larsen-Freeman & Andersen, 2011).

Seeing that language is an object not only to be analyzed and described but also to be obtained as the ability to express meanings and communicate, Widdowson (1978) claimed that what we know about teaching a language as communication calls for the need to bring linguistic skills (e.g., teaching vocabulary, pronunciation) and communicative abilities (e.g., pragmatics) into close association with each other. On the other hand, Lightbown and Spada (2006) explained what communicative competence means as follows:

> The ability to use language in a variety of settings, taking into account relationships between speakers and differences in situations. The term has sometimes been interpreted as the ability to convey messages in spite of a lack of grammatical accuracy. (p. 96)

A question about the ability or competence of CLT has been raised. The concept helped to swing the focus from accuracy in language to appropriacy, in other words, how suitable any use of language was for a particular context (Krulatz, 2010; Celce-Murcia, 2010). It provides ways to understand that all linguistic behavior is related to the underlying activity of interpretation (Widdowson, 1978) and it leads to the conclusion that the aim of language learning is to develop such ability; thus, it seems to be reasonable to adopt an integrated approach covering the different skills and cognitive abilities involved in the acts of writing, reading, listening and speaking. However, a key issue is how to do so, and how to achieve this in the classroom.

2.2.3 Communicative Competence and Language Knowledge

In L2 communication, the ability to compose correct sentences is a prerequisite of being able to communicate, while the acquisition of an understanding of which sentences are appropriate in a particular context is also necessary. To put it another way, however good the knowledge of syntax and morphology learners acquire, they can still have difficulty in using language in terms of the many meanings that the same sentence can have in different situations (Widdowson, 1978). Basically, to achieve some kind of communication, we need our knowledge of the language system, as well as our ability to use our knowledge of linguistic rules for effective communication. Indeed, even if learners know many ways to express intentions and meanings of refusing, apologizing and requesting, for example, how these pragmatic features can be integrated into classroom instruction is another question (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). To optimally promote language development for those learners who do not have much daily exposure to conversational interaction outside classrooms, having the students use language appropriately in the classroom requires them to pay close attention to using language in some kind of productive task.

Bardovi-Harling and Hartford (1993b) investigated pragmatic development in teacher-fronted EFL classrooms in a longitudinal study. They found that there were difficulties in mitigating their suggestions and rejections because of learners' tendency to take on a passive role in a classroom in which teacher initiation, learner response, and teacher feedback interaction were dominant. The critical issue is how to provide appropriate input resulting in the realization of many speech acts in the classroom. In order to increase acquisitional orientation, there needs to be more research into task effects and testing of various measure of development (Bardovi-Harling, 2014).

2.3 Definitions of the Task in L2 Teaching and Learning

Having looked at an overview of English language teaching methods which stressed the necessity of acquiring knowledge of language as well as of how to use it in the classroom, we will now turn to one of the solutions which meets this demand by providing a task for L2 use. Starting from the assumption that a L2 classroom environment is one in which learners' participation is restricted and unproductive, commonly regarded as a teacher-fronted classroom, it is obvious that there is little space for learners to use the target language in their conversational interaction. Accordingly, to answer the questions above, a language teaching approach is feasible if the activities are designed to direct learners to use the target language in a meaningful context. In that sense, a task can be considered to be one of the devices which could motivate L2 learners to participate in communication and to perform activities in the classroom. The following sections explain what kinds of activity these are and what exactly a task is by looking at different definitions.

Although there is a consensus among language teachers, curriculum developers and researchers that the basic aim of second or foreign language teaching is to enable learners to use the target language for functional purposes (Van den Branden et al., 2009), the in has varied depending on the user, such as researchers, administrators, syllabus designers, teachers, students and so on, and the principle of - (Long, 1985; Prabhu, 1987) has come to have a wide variety of different interpretations. Therefore, we will look at the definition of a ‘task’ from some different perspectives, emphasizing respectively 1) real-world needs, 2) communication, 3) negotiations, 4) a workplan and 5) assessment for language learning.

2.3.1 The Task for Real-World Needs

Firstly, we will reach back to the definition of a ‘task’ which was explained with theoretical support before the era of SLA research. It was found in the work of Dewey (1963), who considered how the logic of disciplines could be brought into contact with our learners’ experiences of the world (Samuda & Bygate, 2008). From this point of view, ‘tasks’ could be seen as a means of creating experience-based opportunities for language learning, and tasks have been interpreted in different ways in different contexts and from different perspectives.

Going forward from there, in the theory of SLA, Long (2015), for instance, claimed that the use of tasks was an attempt to respond to the growing demand for accountable communicative language teaching programs which were designed for learners with real-world needs for functional L2 abilities. He defined the task as follows:

> [a] piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward. Thus, examples of tasks are painting a fence, dressing a child, filling out a form, […] In other words, by task is meant the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play, and in-between. (p. 89)

From this point of view, tasks in L2 learning involve various experience-based L2 which can be put to use in our daily lives. It seems to make sense in that language is learnt based on practical demands for the learners to use it in the situations they may encounter. However, there is concern about whether or not such tasks accommodate EFL students who do not necessarily live in English speaking countries. Tasks involving a more pedagogical point of view are deemed necessary.

2.3.2 The Task for Communication

Nunan (1989) made an attempt to define tasks for active communication in the classroom. His pedagogical point of view is as follows:

> [a] piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning, […] The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right with a beginning, a middle and an end. (p. 10)

These tasks include listening to a weather forecast and deciding what to wear; completing a banking application form; and describing a photograph of one's family (Nunan, 1999).

However, he points out that these examples do not seem to show a clear distinction between a task and an exercise, and provides a distinction in that the success of a task will be measured in nonlinguistic terms whereas that of an exercise will be decided in linguistic terms, and a prominent aspect of tasks is that they have some sort of input data, procedures and performance, which exercises do not always have. In sum, the definition of a task for pedagogical purposes provides further explanation of the differences between a one-off activity and a task with a continuum concept in language learning.

2.3.3 The Task for Meaningful Communication

Seeing that a task is supposed to be a communicative activity for L2 learning, there is a need to further provide a description of what a pedagogical task actually involves. Generally, communication involves interactions such as negotiations; Skehan (1998, 2014) put an emphasis on negotiation in tasks, which can make the task itself more meaningful. He defined the task as follows:

> An activity in which meaning is primary; there is some communication problem to solve; there is some sort of relationship to comparable real-world activities; task completion has some priority; the assessment of the task is in terms of outcome. (p. 95)

He gives much greater importance to meaning and to language use, seeing that a communicative approach has been to organize teaching around the use of language learning tasks. In this regard, he considers the task-based approach as providing benefits not for teachers but rather for learners' performance and language development. Subsequently, he assumes that certain sorts of interactional processes in tasks are most helpful for second language development.

2.3.4 The Task as a Workplan

As we have seen, a pedagogical task is supposed to encourage meaningful negotiations for L2 learning through classroom interactions. Ellis (2003) frames the task in terms of a set of essential and criterial properties which could be taken as representative of areas of general agreement. His definition is that a task is 1) a workplan which involves 2) a primary focus on meaning, 3) real-world processes of language use, 4) any of the four language skills, 5) cognitive processes and 6) a clearly defined communicative outcome (Ellis, 2003). His definition seems to cover key aspects of activities which are supported by SLA theory, that is to say, he put emphasis on cognitive processes in the learning continuum of input and output.

However, in educational contexts, Samuda and Bygate (2008) disagree with the term 'task as a workplan' in which there are some aspects of jointly constructed social perspective, since their insights are that the task should be described by the word 'activity', which also includes a set of processes for 'game, set and match' with a plan prior to the event (plan-in-action); in other words, tasks can be more usefully defined as 'a holistic type of pedagogical activity'.

2.3.5 The Task for Assessing L2 Learning

Earlier (see 2.3.2), Nunun pointed out that the distinction between an exercise and a task lies in the fact that the success of the latter is measured in nonlinguistic terms (e.g., task completion) whereas that of the former will be decided in linguistic terms. In this regard, Van den Branden et al. (2009) claimed that there was increasing confusion between the generic meaning of the term 'task' and the essential features of the task as a basic unit of task-based research as a methodology.

The approach articulated in the key principles underlying task-based language teaching (TBLT) was to teach and assess authentic language use that is relevant for specific groups of learners with empirically identified needs analysis (Long, 2005; Norris, 2011). Van den Branden et al. (2009) explain as follows:

> Task-based teaching involves the pedagogic manipulation of such target tasks in distinct stages, featuring extended and realistic task input, work on elaborated language materials associated with the target task, and opportunities for benefiting from a focus on form that is generated by teachers and learners alike. Assessment is integrated into this teaching and learning process as both a formative and summative mechanism, but with a commitment to real-world target language use tasks throughout, and attention to the importance of authentic scoring criteria as well as feasibility and utility of the process. (p. 132)

According to their perspective, tasks should be assessed by authentic language use; at the same time, they can be manipulated and elaborated to fit the pedagogic purposes which are relevant to the target learners' needs. To sum up, a task deals with different aspects involved in task engagement and assessment in task-based research, and as a matter of a fact, a task used in research may fall under this definition, which requires task essentials supported by the theory of language acquisition. In addition, the outcome of L2 learning for EFL students is necessarily required in order to make the next step forward in L2 learning. With regard to this, a 'task' can be a perfect way to show authentic performance criteria in the L2 learning process beyond the scope of a mere chat between learners or an exercise for output.

As was pointed out by Van den Branden et al. (2009), it would appear that there is a need to think differently about the generic meaning of the term 'task' and the essential features of the task in SLA research. However, in practice, these basic dimensions are chosen by those who use the task in their own implementations, and the definition of a 'task' in second language pedagogy is given according to one's purpose, depending on the features that the task could or must highlight.

Considering L2 learning in EFL settings, we should bear in mind that the minimum requirements that must be present in a task are its bare essentials which are prominent in second and foreign language teaching (Samuda & Bygate, 2008). Namely, a task will be considered to involve communicative actions along with cognitive processes (e.g., negotiations, informing, discussions) in which learners' attention is directed either implicitly or explicitly through a continuum process (plan-act-assessment) of language acquisition. The next section will further address the link between tasks and the process of language learning to clarify the effective and beneficial ways in which to use tasks.

2.4 Implementation of Tasks in the Classroom

Having demonstrated that a task is distinct from a one-off exercise and ought to be elaborated for pedagogical purposes based on the target learners' needs, there remains a great challenge, particularly in EFL classrooms, given that 'there is a danger that reading or listening takes place in a void' (Willis & Willis, 2007, p. 33). A key issue in implementation of tasks is how to provide an appropriate context in which the learners can actively participate for purposeful and meaningful communication in the classroom. Chaudron (1988) and Ellis (1988) investigated a number of correlational studies on whether learners' 'participation caused learning' or 'proficiency caused participation' in interactive research. They suggested that it was not easy to come to a conclusion based on their interpretation, yet the low amount of participation might not be enough for L2 acquisition; instead, the quality of participation, such as dealing with tasks and small-group work, was also important.

In order to explain what can be done and learnt in the task-based language classroom in more detail, the following sections explain the approach of task-based language teaching. Its two different perspectives as to the origin and principles, holistic and analytical syllabuses (Van den Branden et al., 2009), will be presented. In order to give a comprehensive picture of the aims of TBLT, the types of task and the purposes of their implementation will then be explained.

2.4.1 TBLT Approach

Prior to responding to the problem above, let us look at what exactly 'task-based language teaching' means. Samuda and Bygate (2008) explain the term 'task-based' learning and teaching as a context in which tasks are the central unit of instruction: they drive classroom activity in engaging key processes of language acquisition, and they are assessed in terms of task performance in response to the operational needs of specific learners. Moreover, the heart of our understanding of TBLT is that language acquisition takes place when learners use the language to accomplish a task that has been arranged for them on the basis that they simulate relevant real-world activities. That is to say, tasks are largely based on the realization that they are going to be used for meaningful communication and have a clear successful (or unsuccessful) outcome in the target language on cognitive activities (e.g., prediction, planning, problem-solving, decision-making, and so forth) through work in small groups.

There is a growing body of literature demonstrating the beneficial role of tasks in language negotiation, which includes facilitation of language acquisition (Candlin & Murphy, 1987; Long, 1996; Gass, 1997). Unlike drills for exercise, learners' interactive participation is potentially more productive than non-interactive learning activities in which negotiation is unnecessary (Mackey, 1999). How, then, can such interactive advantages in TBLT contribute to L2 acquisition or to the learning of targeted language structures? We will deal with the question in more detail later (see 2.4 Tasks in Second Language Acquisition); however, we will come up against a fundamental problem in the discussion as to how grammar structures are specifically featured (Ellis, 2009) in meaning-focused TBLT from pedagogical points of view.

There is a distinction between the approach of TBLT and that of other pedagogy. The holistic approach involves 'the learners' knowledge of the different sub-areas of language - phonology, grammar, vocabulary and discourse - to make meanings (Samuda & Bygate, 2008, p.7), whereas the analytic approach is designed to focus on selected aspects of language (e.g., phonological contrast), and requires learners to work with target forms in ways such as exercises and drills without attention to meaning (Samuda & Bygate, 2008; Van den Branden et al., 2009).

Tasks are considered to be one kind of holistic activity, since a task directs learners to integrate the different aspects of language for a larger purpose. However, the main argument is that in spite of the goal of tasks as a holistic activity, tasks are 'seen to serve a learning goal in the eyes of the learners and teachers who use them' (Samuda & Bygate, 2008, p. 9). One major aspect in common is that TBLT did not explicitly feature or teach grammatical structures (Swan, 2005), despite the fact that primary attention needs to be paid to either form or communication, or both, in language education. The gap raised a question as to how to teach meaning and form efficiently through task-based instruction. Ultimately, how to balance a focus on aspects of the target language in the classroom context with the ways in which language is normally used remains an issue.

2.4.2 Focus on Form

In answer to this problem, Long (1991) put forward a *focus on form* (FoF) which could direct learners' attention to linguistic form within communicative tasks, rather than by way of a return to grammar drills and exercises. Basically, FoF draws the learner's attention to linguistic forms implicitly as they arise incidentally while their focus is on meaning or communication (Long, 1991). A key feature of FoF is that 'meaning and use must already be evident to the learner at the time that attention is drawn to the linguistic apparatus needed to get the meaning across' (Doughty & Williams, 1998: p. 4). Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) explain that the design of task-based language teaching and learning assures that learners' attention to form becomes an essential component of the task while processing meaning (*task essentialnesss*). Meanwhile, it is noted that FoF is different from *focus on forms* (FoFs), which is based on traditional structural and synthetic approaches to language teaching (Wilkins, 1976) in which discrete items of the language are presented to the learners in an isolated and decontextualized manner (Nassaji & Fotos, 2007).

There are a number of ways in which specific linguistic items can be featured so as to draw explicit attention to them in communicative lessons, which are designed to contain the target form and to allow learners to take time out from their communicative activity regardless of the occurrence of actual errors (Ellis et al., 2001a). For example, students can receive *comprehensible input* of grammatical structures in 'task-supported teaching' (Ellis, 2003) which requires learners to use a certain linguistic form (e.g., modal verbs, past tenses, question forms) to complete the task.

Another possible method to encourage learners to notice a particular target language feature is *input enhancement*, using bold type for a particular structure in a reading passage (Fotos, 1994; White, 1998; Wijaya, 2002; Suzuki, 2010). *Input flooding* can also be employed, which is to say, using particular vocabulary items or grammar structures with great frequency in the input in order to artificially increase incidence of the form in focus (Williams & Evans, 1998). Moreover, a *consciousness-raising task* also enables the raising of learners' consciousness with regard to specific linguistic items (Ellis, 2009; Fangyuan, 2012; Hopkin & Nettle, 1994; Sheen, 1992), and the teaching of rules implicitly through exercises allowing the learners to infer the rules. Willis (1996) addressed follow-up to a communicative task that includes explicit direct instruction so that the post-task phase combines communication-focus and form-focus. Furthermore, a number of research studies have investigated FoF provided incidentally in the teacher's reaction by way of feedback (e.g., corrective feedback, recast) to an actual or perceived problem in the course of communication (e.g., Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Doughty & Verela, 1998; Lyster, 1998; McDonough & Mackey, 2000).

On the other hand, one of the ways to prepare learners for the topic of the task and to make available the language (e.g., vocabulary, phrases, sentences) they are likely to need is to provide a priming stage. W llis and Willis (2007) proposed that the timing of 'priming' in pedagogical tasks can be flexible and that it should be done either by a teacher-led introduction, a questionnaire, or by group work, leading a class brainstorming on language without focusing on formal accuracy on the part of the learners. How to shape this priming has already been studied in SLA research, and this will be addressed in more detail in Chapter 5 in the course of addressing and examining the effects of teacher questions (as a method of priming) on task performance.

All in all, there are various techniques for teachers to help learners engage in the purposeful use of language while working on linguistic forms. However, when and how to use each one appear to depend on the learners' needs and purposes in each teaching context.

2.4.3 Form Focus versus Meaning Focus

Having seen the various techniques of integrating learners' attention to form into meaning-focused contexts, how to strike the balance between form and meaning in classroom settings still remains the greatest challenge. Some argued that FoF should not be confined to situations in which learners are engaged in meaningful communicative activities (Sheen, 2003; Swain, 2005), since they tend to be 'unnatural' interactions that are unlike those which emerge in the real world. Moreover, such an approach may hinder the creation of learner-driven classrooms where students can take initiative in the selection of topics and in the selection of linguistic resources they produce while interacting with other peers. Furthermore, some theorists and practitioners disagree with planned classroom activities which have specific linguistic features as a focus (Long & Robinson, 1998). However, as Lightbown (1998) points out, 'Teachers are not "traitors" to the cause of communicative language teaching if they plan activities in which they know that learners will almost inevitably need to use specific linguistic features' (p. 195).

The disadvantage of unplanned classroom activities, on the other hand, is that they may result in learners failing to learn certain language features (Lightbown, 1988) such as past tense forms (Harley & Swain, 1984), adverbs (White, 1991), and forms of polite address (Lyster, 1994). To maximize opportunities in which learners are exposed to, use, and receive feedback on a wider range of linguistic features, FoF should be considered to be like any other instructional activity that is used to draw the learner's attention to language forms (Spada, 2011). In fact, how to teach grammar items through communicative tasks seems to largely depend on the degree of learners' language proficiency and the learning context.

2.4.4 Form versus Meaning in the Learning Context

When the learning context is an EFL setting, there are major concerns about a lack of sufficient input and appropriate context to provide students with sufficiently strong motivational grounds to use English in real communication (Harada, 2016). In this regard, for example, what is common to other instructional approaches such as content-based instruction (CBI) and content and language integrated learning (CLIL) is that they provide a dual focus on form (language) and meaning (contexts and content) for language use. In fact, CLIL, in the European context, provides 'the only site for learners' interaction in the target language'

(Dalton-Puffer, 2011, p. 182), and the interaction in classroom-based CLIL practices is through tasks which focus on either content knowledge or language learning outcomes, that is, discourse, pragmatics, speech acts, academic language functions, and genre (Dalton-Puffer, 2011). In this way, it can be assumed that some types of tasks can be naturally integrated in these approaches depending on the learning purposes.

However, in EFL settings, as Harada (2016) points out, a great deal of assistance in understanding the subject matter is required in order to learn to use the language component. To teach both specific content and related language skills, teachers need to provide various means of support, such as giving reading assignments outside of the lesson, to help learners engage in the purposeful use of language in the classroom. When it comes to learners whose English proficiency is at a low level, in particular, the teacher needs to prepare and use more learner-friendly activities which will bridge the gap between learning the content and linguistic items. Greater efforts to address these and other challenges are needed in order to elaborate and manipulate tasks in a certain teaching context for a certain group of learners, striking an appropriate balance between form focus and meaning focus.

Despite the challenges of implementation of tasks for both meaning and form in EFL classrooms, tasks have various benefits for L2 learning from theoretical points of view in SLA research, which will be presented in the next section.

2.5 Tasks and Second Language Acquisition

In this section, more detailed explanation of the rationale for TBLT based on second language acquisition theories and research will be presented, in order to consider how using tasks promotes L2 development. We begin with an overview of the process of L2 learning for la

internalize this input. Studies on the interactive effects of different types of task on L2

also be addressed.

2.5.1 The Cognitive Process of L2 Learning

2.5.1.1 Noticing the Gap

Whatever the types of focus-on-form may be in meaning-focused contexts, the common assumption is that some kind of attention to form by learners is necessary and that production

the content taught (Swain, 1995; 2005). Cognitive function in L2 learners is explained as follows: when the learners notice that resources (e.g., aspects of the use of certain resources, relevant concepts) are lacking, they perceive the need for the missing resources (noticing) and discover the possibility of extending familiar resources to handle the situation (attention), then improve accuracy (awareness) using their own available relevant resources (Samuda & Bygate, 2008). That is, the cognitive constructs of noticing, *attention* and *awareness* are a crucial part of the L2 learning process (Mackey, 2012).

The Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1995) assumes that in order to learn any aspect of L2, such as sounds, words, grammar, or pragmatics, learners need to notice the linguistic data within the contexts they encounter, and that the more L2 learners notice, the more they learn at some point in their acquisition of the language (Ortega, 2009). The term "noticing" refers to paying special attention to the new form, meaning, and the way in which the language is used, which is regarded as an important part of the process of learning a new language. Noticing occurs from within the learner only when he or she is ready to take on the new language, struggling to put a sentence together and expressing his or her thoughts in the process of discovering something new (Ortega, 2009).

Noticing can also be encouraged by external means through interactions with a teacher and peers. When learners pay attention to the new features of the L2, they may become aware of the gaps between their production and the utterances of others, going on to discover new language information (Swain & Lapkin, 1995). In this way, the *Output Hypothesis* (Swain, 1985) advocates that L2 acquisition is promoted when there are opportunities for pushed output in which *noticing the gap* between learners' outcomes takes place. However, Ellis (1999, 2012) points out that the output in question should not be just any kind of output, but that requiring uptake (a learner's observable immediate response to the corrective feedback in their utterances) (Loewen, 2005) which will show a clear outcome in L2 learning. At any rate, providing opportunities for the learner to perform meaningful activities which require output is crucial to develop both accuracy and fluency in L2 acquisition (Nassaji & Fotos, 2007).

As well as these opportunities for output, input also plays a pivotal role in making noticing happen in L2 acquisition. Input is recognized as an essential basic component in the learning process of second language acquisition, because if learners cannot understand the language that is being addressed to them, then that language will not be useful to them as they construct their L2 grammars (Mackey, 2012). In fact, Long (1985) puts much emphasis on the quality of input that will trigger the operation of acquisitional processes and drive interlanguage development. That kind of *comprehensible input* (Krashen, 1985) should be provided at the right stage of development for the change to occur. Shmidt (1990, 2001), however, considers that not all *input* has equal value and that only when it is noticed, intake and effective processing become available. He assumes that learning cannot take place without awareness at the level of noticing.

2.5.1.2 Attentional Mechanism and L2 Learning

On the one hand, in order to investigate the effects of pedagogic tasks which demand learners' oral a l a lassroom language learning settings, attentional mechanism have been invoked to explain diverse phenomena in SLA (Robinson, Mackey, Gass & Schmidt, 2012). "Availability of attentional resources has also been argued to predict the extent to which instructional conditions manipulating the focus of learners' attention affect the quality of perception, and …memory for targeted aspects of input." (Robinson et al., 2012, p.247) and SLA researchers have explored the mechanism of attention used to control action while using the L2 in both laboratory- and classroom based experiments. Initially, 'what is available to be learned (input) a

(intake)' (Robinson et al., 2012, p.248) are made distinct. In any case, it is necessary to be aware of (meaning that the cognitive level which shows attentional networks in the brain gives rise to) linguistic input for internalization in order to maximize the efficacy of the *input-to-intake* stage in the information-processing flow. However as far as the terminology is concerned, there are arguments over the difference between "noticing" and "attention" in L2 acquisition, which may seem to be confusing. For instance, N.C. Ellis (2005) explains that noticing is not necessary for priming and tallying, but attention entails everything in our stimulus environment being tallied. Likewise, Robinson (2001) claims that noticing involves awareness and that only input entailing attention may be transferred to long-term memory.

Nevertheless, there is a consensus that some kind of attention to form is requisite for L2 development. What environmental factors, then, should be implemented when using tasks to support the cognitive process of L2 acquisition, and what kinds of task can be of help in directing learners' attention to language features for L2 development? The next section will focus on the role of conversational interaction, which can be a trigger for drawing attention to form in L2 development, followed by the illustration of different types of task.

2.5.2 Interaction and L2 Learning

Interaction is the fundamental fact of the L2 classroom, because it provides more opportunities for learners to notice the gap and to adjust in order to resolve linguistic problems which emerge in communication (Allwright, 1984). There is a solid foundation of support for claims that conversational interactions benefit L2 learning, and they can be regarded as facilitating many of the processes in which input and output can be optimally engaged in connecting form-meaning relationships in learners' internal cognitive processes (Gass & Varonis, 1985; Long, 1985; Mackey, 2012; Pica & Doughty, 1985). With language use with peers and teachers, who help them to push output for modification in order to resolve the misunderstandings caused by problems with language use, such an interaction provides opportunities for L2 learners to notice differences between their own formulations of the target language and the language used. However, the way in which in-class interaction contributes to L2 learning is not yet known.

Interaction research (Mackey & Gass 2005, 2011; Gass & Mackey, 2007) has investigated the benefits of the task product (output-based) along with the task process (input-based). With any input and output containing the target forms, it is suggested that they can positively affect language acquisition (N. Ellis, 2002). Studies by Bretta and Davies (1985), and Lightbown (1992) revealed that meaning-focused classrooms are more effective in promoting L2 acquisition than form-focused ones; however, there may be limitations on what can be achieved in communicative classrooms (Ellis, 1992; Spada & Lightbown, 1989).

To date, although a great volume of interaction research has examined the role that interaction plays in classroom language learning in terms of attention to linguistic form and the impact it has on acquisition (Ellis, 2012), how conversational adjustments facilitate language acquisition through a wide variety of interactional factors remains to be known. It is a great challenge to clarify from the cognitive perspective how learning takes place during feedback (e.g., corrective feedback, implicit/explicit recasts, eliciting) and learner-learner negotiation work such as *negotiation of meaning* and *form*. Nevertheless, in order to investigate what happens in L2 learners' cognitive process, a variety of tasks have been utilized in terms of the level of learners' attention to forms. Swain and Lapkin (2007) examined tasks by eliciting language-related episodes (LTRs), which are sequences of talking directed at addressing specific linguistic problems that arise in communication, since it is considered that learning can take place when language problems are resolved through interaction. Similarly, Loewen (2005) examined 'focus-on-form' more specifically as it occurs in task-based ESL lessons. The study revealed that learning did result when the learner self-corrected and demonstrated understanding of the meaning of the forms addressed in the episodes.

2.5.3 Interactive Tasks

To explore and challenge the validity of the process of L2 learning via tasks in Japanese EFL settings, we will next look at previous findings from SLA research, which has studied what types of task have an impact on learner-learner interactions for L2 development. A task is one of the central approaches for examining SLA theory, which helps L2 learning without being explicitly taught a linguistic feature or having any deliberate intention to learn, provided by means of FoF and focused tasks (e.g., implicit feedback such as recasts).

When the task began to emerge as pedagogic practice for general language purposes, the choice of a task appropriate for the classroom context became crucial. In traditional language teaching, which is teacher-centered, a teacher controls turn-taking behavior and the decision of topics; on the other hand, in learner-driven classrooms, the teacher considers students' interests when choosing topics and selects the linguistic resources they produce. Thus the choice of tasks needs to be made carefully, taking into account learners' proficiency levels, interests, and relationships between peers.

Tasks differ in a number of dimensions and have various task-design and implementation variables (Ellis, 2012). However, it is possible to design each kind of task to maximize opportunities for L2 learners to use specific target linguistic structures, to manipulate interactions so that learners get involved, receive interactional feedback, and produce output (Mackey, 2012). Interactive tasks (e.g., dictogloss, spot-the-difference tasks, story completion tasks, jigsaw tasks) are commonly used to elicit data to examine a particular outcome of the task and the process of L2 acquisition. Studies have demonstrated that task types influence the amount and quality of negotiation (e.g., language-related episodes, L1 use) in L2 learning. The following are some examples of task design and types.

2.5.3.1 Open and Closed Tasks

Task design is mainly divided dichotomously: open tasks and closed tasks. Open tasks require learners to create a story from pictures, for instance, using their imagination. The task outcome is not predetermined (Long, 1989) and learners need more flexibility in discovering a solution and making up a story. In closed tasks, on the other hand, the task outcome is predetermined and learners are required to find finite answers, as can be seen in spotting the differences between two pictures. There is no single answer in open tasks, while there is one in closed tasks. Julkunen (2001), who investigated the amount of negotiation in interactions, revealed that the tight structure of closed tasks is conducive to more feedback and negotiation of meaning than takes place in open tasks. As for the amount of negotiation during the interaction, the more closed the task, the more negotiation for modification may take place between learners.

2.5.3.2 Collaborative Task (Dictogloss)

Collaborative output tasks require learners' cooperative production via conversational interaction in order to complete the task, and they are favorable for improving learner accuracy in the use of the target form (Swain & Lapkin, 1998, 2001; Nassaji & Tian, 2010). Dictogloss, for instance, which requires learners to work together with their notes and reconstruct a text accurately, is considered to be helpful in increasing learner awareness of the target structure. This type of consensus task, the dictogloss, is commonly investigated in terms of learners' awareness of language (Swain & Lapkin, 1998, 2001; Swain, 2000) because it aids in raising awareness of language during the collaborative negotiation.

Dictogloss is also commonly used in investigating language-related episodes (LRE) and *metalanguage* talk, in which learners talk about language (De La Colina & Mayo, 2009; Kim & McDonough, 2011; Kowal & Swain, 1997, Swain & Lapkin, 2001, Yilmaz, 2011), to identify learners' attention or awareness of the language during the interaction. Researchers have shown an increased interest in dictogloss tasks because they 'may be most effective at drawing learners' attention to meaning while still attending to form' (Mackey, 2012: 24).

2.5.3.3 One-way / Two-way Information Gap Tasks

A task like information gap, in which learners negotiate for missing information, has either one-way (non-reciprocal) or two-way (reciprocal) design. In one-way tasks, one learner is mainly responsible for conveying the information necessary for task completion (e.g., picture description), while two-way tasks require learners to participate in order to exchange information (e.g., spot-the difference, personal information exchange). Gass, Mackey and Ross-Feldman (2005), who investigated the amount and the quality of negotiation of meaning, found that a much higher incidence of negotiation of meaning and LREs took place in two-way tasks (jigsaw tasks) which used two different maps in which learners had to engage in an information exchange to complete the task. A more open two-way task like a picture sequencing task (or story completion task), in which learners are required to determine the story behind the pictures, needs collaborative work between learners. A number of studies have revealed that information gap tasks done in small groups, including pairs, could elicit much more negotiation than teacher-fronted lessons (Pica & Doughty, 1985; Newton, 1991; Foster, 1998). Table 2.1 shows different types of task, as these may be a variable that affects task performance (based on Ellis, 2003; Mackey, 2012).

Table 2.1
Task Designs and Types

	Open (divergent) tasks	Closed (convergent) tasks
Consensus, Collaborative Tasks	- not predetermined (Long, 1989) - no single right answer - need more flexibility to discover a solution e.g. problem-solving task	- predetermined and tight structure - finite answers - less flexible and typically do not draw on full language knowledge (Julkunen, 2001) e.g. dictogloss
	One-way gap (non-reciprocal tasks)	Two-way gap (reciprocal tasks)
Information Exchange Tasks	- one learner does most of the talking e.g. interview task, prediction task	- both participants exchange information e.g. picture differences

The choice of task design and type is likely to have a profound effect on learners' attention to form. It is undoubtedly important to know how to adjust the tasks for implementation in ways that may affect a learner's task performance and its effectiveness in L2 development. For instance, whether or not the participants have the chance to rehearse (task repetition), strategic planning time (pre-task), online planning (within-task) or post-task requirements are some such factors. All these relate to whether or not learners can be provided with opportunities to think carefully about language in the context of a meaning-focused activity (Willis & Willis, 2007).

All in all, a number of researchers have shown that interaction facilitates negotiation and can be a trigger to draw learners' attention to form and meaning, or to discuss language-related episodes for any language problems that arose. It is presumed to be highly likely that some kinds of task type and design (independent variables) will affect learners' cognitive activities and their task performance (dependent variables). Nevertheless, there may be a gap between teachers' intentions and learners' actions. When choosing which tasks to implement and how to do so, we are not simply confronted with a symmetrical dichotomy between the teachers' intentions and learners' actions (Clarke, 2007). Thus, we need to consider the impact of various task design variables on classroom interactions.

2.5.4 Task Design Variables

Tasks performed in the teacher-fronted classroom and those performed by students working in pairs or small groups can be distinguished (Ellis, 2012) since they have different task design variables. Many previous studies investigated the impacts of the variables on learner-leaner interactions in a laboratory where learners' performance and achievement of goals could be strictly controlled. However, it is necessary to note that few studies have been conducted in a classroom context in which impacts of task design variables on interaction may take place.

Task designs were divided into six categories, based on whether 1) information exchange was required or not, 2) the information gap was one-way or two-way, 3) the task outcome was open or closed, 4) topic familiarity, 5) discourse mode (e.g., narrative or descriptive), and 6) cognitive complexity. In addition, Ellis listed implementation variables in terms of 1) participant role, 2) task repetition, 3) interlocutor familiarity, and 4) interlocutor proficiency, which are all related to the ways in which a task is operationalized rather than to the type of task given. As a matter of fact, implementation variables are considered to depend on the particular teaching and research context in question. We will focus exclusively on two task types among these task design variables (namely, the topic and nature of the information gap exchange) in Chapter 3 and Chapter 5.

The next chapter will consider the issues surrounding the measurement of L2 development. How can we identify attention to form from learners' task performance? The issue of the task variables which affect learners' task performance for L2 development in some way will be addressed in more detail.

CHAPTER THREE

Methodological Framework

3.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, we looked at the nature of and the rationale behind the pedagogical tasks for L2 learning in the theoretical framework of second language acquisition. In this chapter, we will focus on measurement methods for the process of L2 development through tasks. A number of studies have explored how to determine successful L2 performance as the result of a task, given to demonstrate L2 development. Some studies investigate the phenomenon as an objective reality that can be studied scientifically; others in theory-driven research identify the variables that can be studied (Ellis, 2012). The first section of this chapter presents the measurement issues in interactive task performance, which have placed great emphasis on learners' discourse or spoken language (e.g., negotiation sequences). A measure based on Language-Related Episodes (LREs) in which learners talk about language focusing explicitly on linguistic form (Swain, 1998) is theoretically significant for language learning (Kim, 2009; Basterechea & García-Mayo, 2013). An extensive body of literature exists on the role of LREs, since *self-repairs* which happen in LREs can be considered as evidence for learners' attention to form and meaning in the process of language acquisition.

More recently, in addition to observing and categorizing interactive behaviors (e.g., confirmation check), the quality of L2 learners' production from the standpoint of linguistic measures (e.g., complexity, accuracy, and fluency (CAF)), has been studied by many researchers and has been an object of SLA research. 'Complexity' is the extent to which learners produce elaborated language and the learner's preparedness to use a wide range of different structures (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005: p. 139), 'accuracy' refers to 'how well the target language is produced in relation to the rule system of the target language,' (Skehan, 1996: p.23) a cy refers to the production of language in real time without undue

.

Lastly, the variables which are specifically dealt with in the following two empirical studies (Chapters 4 and 5) are presented: the mode of communication, task types, teacher questions which the learners receive in the lesson, and the aspect of language to be learnt.

3.2 Measurement Methods

There are various ways to collect data to measure language learning. Ellis (2912) has identified three of the most common variables: L2 development, task performance and learner factors. To investigate whether 'instruction has had any effect on learners' interlanguage development' (Ellis, 2012, p. 39), the majority of empirical studies have employed a quantitative method using pre- and post-test designs (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005; Gass & Mackey, 2000; Mackey et al., 2000). Such learners' interlanguage development (learning) can be analyzed from tests to judge grammaticality, such as multiple-choice tests, sentence completion tests, and communicative oral tasks. Moreover, to carry out a more qualitative examination of learners' internal processes, learners' performance on different tasks can be collected as samples which are analyzed to provide different kinds of measures of L2 use, including discourse measures (i.e. negotiation sequence, LREs) and linguistic measures (i.e. CAF). Furthermore, learner factors can be obtained from questionnaires, tests and observation.

With these various ways of eliciting data, it is, of course, essential to use plural measures to reflect and understand what happens in the performance of L2 learners at a certain point in time. Indeed, several studies of second language classroom discourse have drawn on a variety of different research methods, depending on the aim of the research. Some studies focus on describing the patterns of interaction, and others observe interactions involving L2 acquisition. To investigate interactive discourse, some of the ways of measurement will be introduced in the following sections.

3.2.1 Interactive Discourse

The descriptive studies which focus on the process feature of L2 classrooms have employed 'interactional analysis', which observes systems consisting of a set of categories for coding specific classroom behaviors of the teacher and the learners (Ellis, 2012). However, it was suggested that the teacher and the learners discourse were separately analyzed (McLaughlin, 1985). Later, to describe the structure of interactions systematically, studies employing 'discourse analysis' (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Lyster & Ranta, 1997) and 'conversational analysis' came to be used.

Conversational analysis, an approach to the study of talk in interaction which grew out of the ethno-methodological tradition in sociology (Liddicoat, 2007), describes the ways of speaking and behaviors in a classroom from multiple perspectives mainly by observing them longitudinally (Duff, 2002; Harklau, 1994; Nunan & Bailey, 2009). A conversational analysis has been employed to demonstrate the nature of an activity and examine the patterns of interaction which take place while performing different tasks.

On the other hand, in order to investigate the direct link between input from informal conversation and subsequent immediate language production, Hatch (1978) and Wagner-Gough and Hatch (1975) investigated the relationship between language and communication in the learning process. Their view was that interaction might mean the actual instance in which a learner learns how to verbally interact and develop syntactical structures. Their approach developed 'interaction analysis' in SLA research (Mackey, 2012), which is characterized neither by the type of development or observation that might result from conversation, nor by the use of pre- and post- experimental design. Nevertheless, they are commonly used nowadays, but a concern remains whether or not there is any direct evidence that interaction is causally related to L2 acquisition (Mackey, Abbuhl & Gass, 2014) in these descriptive investigations. In the process of seeking any evidence of L2 learning from the measurement of discourse, which is based on data collected from learner output in interactions, negotiation of meaning and form sequences has attracted SLA researchers.

3.2.1.1 Negotiation Sequences

Negotiation sequences arise mainly during between the listener and the speaker in an attempt to resolve a problem which has arisen between them. The framework was developed to describe the structure of the routine (Varonis & Gass, 1985) where negotiation happens. The sequence, starting with a 'trigger', 'indicator' and 'response', occurs less frequently in teacher-centered classrooms but is found much more in task-based lessons, where the primary focus is on meaning and communication breakdowns tend to occur. Nevertheless, negotiation of meaning happens less frequently in elementary ESL classrooms compared with conversations between native-speakers and non-native speakers (Pica & Long, 1986), since it is more important for non-native speakers to ask clarification questions and check each other's comprehension and repair this through signals and reformulations (Pica, 1996).

Long claims (1996) the importance of the investigation of negotiation of meaning and form in interaction because their modification can be signals of comprehension by speakers and interlocutors: the speakers make adjustments to their linguistic form, conversational structure, and message content in an effort to communicate. His study of the negotiation of meaning has been related to the Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1981), which suggests that modifications through interactional adjustments during negotiation for meaning could promote comprehensible input. A number of studies have revealed that interactionally modified input when learners can negotiate for meaning results in better comprehension than pre-modified input (Pica, Young, & Doughty, 1987), although it is doubtful whether learners always succeed in comprehension as the result of negotiation. For example, learners may fake comprehension because they are not ready for negotiation (Hawkins, 1985); some aspects of language such as inflectional morphology are not subject to negotiation (Sato, 1986); and noticing does not always happen in negotiation (Mackey, Gass, & McDonough, 2000). Besides, it is uncertain how important meaning negotiation is in relation to acquisition (Ellis, 2012). Later studies focused more on the negative feedback and modified output where attention to a learner error is drawn in interaction (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). Inevitably, the importance of focus on form (Long, 1991), in which students pay attention to linguistic elements when they incidentally come across them in their meaning-focused communication, has increased in interactional analysis.

Much recent research examining interactional corrective feedback and L2 development has investigated various aspects of language, such as articles (Muranoi, 2000; Sheen, 2007), questions (Mackey & Philp, 1998; Maceky, 1999; Philp, 2003), and past-tense formation (Doughty & Varela, 1998; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006; McDonough, 2007). This research has shown the greatest benefit for lexis in comparison with less salient and more complex features, such as morphosyntax (Jeon, 2007), and pragmatic and phonological targets (Mackey, 2007).

3.2.1.2 Language-Related Episodes (LREs)

In addition to quantifying negotiation sequences by comparing the extent to which negotiation occurs under different settings, it is possible more specifically to address linguistic features that are proving problematic in the negotiation of form (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). LREs, which Swain (1998, p. 70) defined as 'any part of a dialogue in which students talk about the language they are producing, question their language use, or other- or self-correct', has typically been utilized in recent research. In these episodes, the talk about language is focused explicitly on linguistic form, which results in a correct or incorrect resolution to the linguistic problem or in a lack of resolution (Kim, 2009). The frequency with which LREs address some aspects of language (e.g., vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation) is examined to understand what impact they have on learning, specifically on the acquisition of the specific form addressed in the LREs (Ellis, 2012).

In particular, LREs have been commonly utilized in tasks of a collaborative nature such as dictogloss tasks, since they provide information about what learners notice during the task as they discuss meaning and collaborate on text reconstruction in their negotiation. One study, which investigated the relationship between learners' L2 development and LREs by using dictogloss (collaborative task) and jigsaw tasks (information gap task), showed that dictogloss tasks drew learners' attention to target forms and improved accuracy in their production (Swain & Lapkin, 2001). Moreover, Swain (2006) conducted text reformulation tasks (dictogloss) and documented that LREs in the learners' L1 might cause learning because they served to articulate and transform learners' thinking into form, and provided a means for reflection on the form. Particularly in the context of foreign language learning, where students have limited exposure to the L2, using some *metalinguistic* knowledge is considered to be significantly important in discussing language (Colina & García-Mayo, 2007; Ellis, 2012). Furthermore, Fortune (2005) studied the use of metalanguage through dictogloss tasks by adult EFL learners at intermediate and advanced levels, and showed that the advanced learners used more metalanguage than the intermediate level learners in the episodes in which language became the object of talk, suggesting that the use of metalanguage in small group work which invites a focus on form (such as dictogloss) could facilitate language learning.

Meanwhile, Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001) coined the term focus-on-form episodes (FFEs), which shows 'an occasion where the participants attend to some aspect of linguistic form while engaged in performing a communicative task' (Ellis, 2012, p. 205). The main difference between LREs and FFEs is that '[w]hereas LREs have been investigated in the talk that results from pair or group work, focus-on-form episodes (FFEs) have been investigated in a lockstep lesson' (Ellis, 2012, p. 205). That is to say, Ellis (2012) explains three types of typical FFEs: those which take place in a student's response to a teacher, in student questions, and in a teacher's questions to a whole class (lockstep lesson) which focus on a specific linguistic feature. In addition, FFEs examine the frequency of learners' self-corrections or demonstration of understanding of the meaning of the forms (Loewen, 2005), which is referred to as resolving in LREs. Overall, more FFEs take place in teacher-learner interactions, including feedback, whereas LREs happen in learner-learner interactions.

To measure LREs has been found to be theoretically significant for language learning (Kim, 2009; Basterrechea & García-Mayo, 2013) in terms of the amount of self-repairs and resolutions in the learners' negotiations (Loewen, 2005; Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006). However, the degree of attention to form in learner-learner interaction and the question of how problems are resolved differ considerably due to a variety of factors (Philip et al., 2013).

3.2.2 Linguistic Discourse

In addition to investigating the number of successfully resolved negotiation sequences or LREs (Ellis, 2012), in order to further investigate a relationship between discourse and L2 learning, linguistic aspects of a learner's internal processes of la learning in the interactive discourse have been widely investigated. Skehan and Foster (1999) investigated the three principal proficiency dimensions of task performance in terms of complexity, accuracy, and fluency (CAF). A consensus has been reached that learners' L2 proficiency and L2 performance are multidimensional in nature, and cannot be measured simply by looking at one aspect of the proficiency underlying their performance. Nevertheless, the components of CAF have been used as 'performance descriptors for the oral and written assessment of language learners to indicate learners' proficiency for measuring progress in language learning' (Housen & Kuiken, 2009, p.1) a

applied linguistic research (Skehan, 1998; Ellis, 2003, Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, Foster, Tonkyn, & Wigglesworth, 2000).

The complexity of a task is the placing of a cognitive heavy load on learners by asking them to manage too many things at the same time (Samuda & Bygate, 2008), such as providing difficult task conditions (Robinson, 2001) or task type (Foster & Skehan, 1996). A variety of syntactic patterning and restructuring of more complex subsystems of language and the use of form closer to the cutting edge of interlanguage development are considered to be

) 'the size, elaborateness, richness, and diversity of the learner's linguistic L2 system' (Housen & Kuiken, 2009). Some empirical studies have investigated the cognitive demands on learner production in terms of complexity which requires students to provide a wide-ranging information load in order to complete a demanding task (Brown & Yule, 1983; Robinson, 2001).

On the contrary, accuracy is measured in terms of how accurately a learner uses the L2, which means that the learners 'who prioritize accuracy are seeking control over the elements they have already fully internalized and thus adopt a conservative stance towards L2 use'

(Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005, p. 139). Both are seen as representations of the learner's interlanguage knowledge and the level of the internalized target language (Housen & Kuiken, 2009).

Moreover, fluency is 'the production of language in real time without undue pausing or hesitation' (Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005, p. 139). Technically, Tavakoli and Skehan (2005) suggest that speech fluency includes speed fluency (rate and density of delivery), breakdown fluency (number, length, pause in speech), and repair fluency (number of false starts and repetitions).

Concurrently, the issue of CAF has been a disputed subject in terms of the attentional limitations observed in the Trade-off Hypothesis (Skehan, 1998, 2009) in the SLA field. The rationale behind the theory in relation to the Cognitive Hypothesis (Robinson, 2001, 2005, 2007) will be explained in the following section.

3.2.2.1 The Trade-off Hypothesis and the Cognition Hypothesis

In the late 1980s, a new approach to researching tasks emerged, which was 'less concerned with interaction processes and is more concerned with task performance and the processing influences upon it' (Skehan, 2014, p. 2). Skehan (2014) argued that it was possible to conceive of three performance areas (complexity, accuracy, fluency) in discourse and that 'the goal is to explore what makes it more likely that each will increase, whether as a function of the task or of the way the task is done' (p. 3). Complexity refers to the extent to which learners produce elaborated language and the learner's preparedness to use a wide range of different structures (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005), and it is new or emerging language, associated with change, development, and risk-taking (Skehan, 2014); accuracy refers to how well the target language is produced in relation to the rule system of the target language (Skehan, 1996); and fluency is defined as the production of language in real time without pausing, hesitation or reformulation (Ellis, 2003; Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). These dimensions are a good reflection of performance and they are distinct from one another; however, it is considered that learners trade off accuracy against fluency or complexity or vice versa. The Trade-off position is explained as follows:

> If it is the case that where attentional resources are limited, the natural priority, in a communicative context, is to emphasise meaning, rather than form (Van Patten, 1990), the danger would be that form can lose focus, and that advanced language, or control over less advanced language, might be sacrificed to the primary goal of achieving fluency and meaning expression.' (Skehan, 2014, p. 3)

Skehan (1998; 2014) considers limitation in attention as fundamental to second language speech performance, and he claims the necessity of exploring the assumption that more demanding tasks lead to the prioritization of fluency over accuracy and complexity, which is known as the Trade-off Hypothesis. For example, he suggests that tasks based on familiar or concrete information can allow learners to pay attention to accuracy in production, whereas because demanding tasks can create problems for a learner, tasks requiring transformation or manipulation of material (e.g., pre-task planning, repetitions) might lead to the production of greater linguistic complexity. In the investigation of tasks applicable to real situations, Skehan put forward a general framework of the task: the phase of task types or characteristics, difficulties, conditions; implementation phases (i.e., pre-task, planning, repetition, information pressure, post-task activities and so forth). He claims that tasks are likely to have a number of features 'which can be argued to have simpler or more difficult values, such as number of elements or concrete versus abstract' (Skehan, 2014, p. 6) depending on the context or the particular learner. Thus, the Trade-off approach tries to uncover generalizations regarding the link between task types or characteristics and performance dimensions in terms of complexity, accuracy and fluency (Skehan, 2014).

Meanwhile, the Cognition Hypothesis (Robinson, 2011) is distinct from the Trade-off Hypothesis when analyzing task characteristics in that attention to each factor is not constrained by the others, and they are not in competition in the same way as in the Trade-off Hypothesis. Robinson (2001, 2005, 2007) studied the manipulation of task features depending on cognitive complexity to clarify how learners allocated *attentional* resources and he made a distinction between resource-directing and resource-dispersing factors. The former has a very selective influence on specific language features such as article usage, which can allow a learner's attention to raise accuracy and complexity simultaneously when engaging in abstract tasks. On the other hand, the latter factors have a more general impact on attentional resources and performance; they 'do not lead to predictions such as that of joint accuracy-complexity increases' (Skehan, 2014, p. 7) Thus, he predicted that task designs are manipulated to promote language development by increasing task complexity (e.g., demands on attention and working memory to push learners to direct their attention to specific aspects of the linguistic code). Then, the greater the task complexity, the more advanced language is pushed since it concurrently raises accuracy and complexity, although he points out that the greater the task complexity, the lower the fluency.

However, testing these two rival models is not an easy task in terms of the conceptual and operational clarity of the dependent variables (i.e., complexity, accuracy, fluency). The challenge concerns how complexity, accuracy and fluency can be defined as constructs and how the CAF components are interconnected; for instance, there are certain problems with the comparison of the three performances, which have different constructs. Consequently, the empirical evidence available so far does not support either model (Housen, Kuiken & Ineke, 2012).

3.2.2.2 Measuring Complexity, Accuracy and Fluency

The common measures of complexity used in many task-based studies are those of the degrees of subordination, which is analyzed by identifying T-unit, which is one main clause plus subordinate clauses attached to it (Hunt, 1965) or AS-unit (The Analsysis of Speech Unit). The AS-unit is primarily a syntactic unit, although it is suggested that intonation and pausal phenomena will need to be taken into account (Ellis, 2012). Foster et al. (2000) defined the AS-unit as "a single speaker's utterance consisting of an independent clause or sub-clausal unit" (p365). For example, a clause includes a finite verb; a sub-clausal unit is like "Thank you very much" (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). In addition, a subordinate clause is required to be attached to an independent clause. That is to say, when a learner utters 'I like watching films', it is one clause; when a speaker says, 'I like (0.5 pause) …watching films', it consists of two clauses. It is suggested that this measure is more sensitive to accuracy, as it takes account of all the errors produced (Bygate, 2001). The T-unit works well for analyzing the complexity of L2 writing, whereas the AS-unit is more appropriate for spoken language (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005) of elementary learners who have not reached the stage of using subordinate constructions, since it does not distinguish levels of complexity among them (Ellis, 2012).

In addition to measuring structural range (Foster & Skehan, 1996) of a unit, measures of complexity based on the number of words in clauses have been used as well. The number of different verb forms or the ratio of indefinite to definite articles (Wigglesworth, 1997) should be noted as other ways of measurement. These are more sensitive to differences at higher proficiency levels (Norris & Ortega, 2009). Furthermore, lexical density can be also an index of lexical sophistication. Among them, the type-token ratio (the ratio of different words to total words) is the most used measure in the second language field; the more particular words are repeated in a spoken test, the lower this value becomes and conversely, the more a speaker keeps bringing in new words, the higher the value will be (Skehan, 2014). It would appear that lexical richness tends to be a measure of complexity particularly for more elementary learners; yet the complexity measures do not allow for a totally consistent picture and it is desirable to draw on multiple measures (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005).

As for measuring accuracy in task-based performance, indexing the proportion of all clauses that are error-free may be the most widely used method; however, it is not the only option (Skehan, 2014). The drawback of this measurement is that there is a difficulty in deciding what constitutes a 'clause' in conversations (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005), however Mehnert (1998) suggested that errors be measured per 100 words to solve the problem. Alternatively, Skehan and Foster (2005) proposed calculating the proportion of errors per AS-unit. Meanwhile, deciding what constitutes an error is another problem; Ellis (2012) pointed out more specific measures of accuracy, eliciting the production of particular linguistic features such as morphology (Wigglesworth, 1997), use of plurals (Crookes, 1989), and use of vocabulary (Skehan & Foster, 1997) in a task set, considering the learner's oral proficiency in English.

As for fluency, since there are many different contributing factors, it is challenging to identify it; however, a distinction can be made between the flow (i.e. pausing, breakdown, repetition, reformulation) of speech and the speed (Skehan, 2014). Unlike the flow of speech, speech rate can be expressed as words or syllables per minute; however, the average span in speech, without any sort of interruption and pauses or repairs (Twell, Hawkins & Bazergut, 1996), needs to be blended with several other measures to measure automatization in speech in order to have the potential to indicate the level of general fluency with greater validity

(Skehan, 2014).

Having said that, there is a controversy regarding standard measures of CAF, whose definitions vary by theories of linguistics and language learning (Housen & Kuiken, 2009). Norris & Ortega (2000) claim that dynamic and multi-dimensional CAF constructs need to be operationalized to illustrate the inter-related set of constant change of L2 production; likewise, the development of multiple subsystems in mutual interaction during more longitudinal and non-linear research is called for (Larsen-Freeman, 2006). Besides, the problems of reliability and generalization of research need to be considered (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). Nevertheless, the notion of CAF in various discourse-based measures seems requisite and useful in classroom research when CAF is considered a good starting point to describe linguistic performance as a process of linguistic development rather than a product of subdimensions of acquisition (Palloti, 2001).

3.3 Issues around Variables

As Skehan (2014) pointed out earlier, there is a need to research a particular task by identifying factors (variables) that may influence performance in the course of investigating the effective use of task choice and task implementation to overcome attentional limitations. In fact, as for the factors in implementing a task, there is little agreement that planning time has any influence on accuracy, apart from on the aspect of complexity (Ellis, 1987). This is because various factors (e.g., different conditions of data collection, assessing different constructs) are considered to contribute to the mixed results (Yuan & Ellis, 2003; Ellis, 2012). Likewise, it is important to identify potential variables of the task itself, in terms of types and characteristics, which may have some effects on L2 performance under certain conditions and to ensure reliable measurement in the process of analyzing learner language (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). Consequently, this section presents some of the variables that are dealt with in the current study.

Firstly, the means of communication for task-based language teaching and learning will be discussed. As the installation of technology in the classroom advances, the effects of technology-mediated communication on L2 development have been an increasing interest in examining whether the technology has any impact on learners' interaction and their cognitive process of L2 development in task-based language teaching (González-Lloret & Ortega, 2014).

Secondly, the task design can be a factor which may influence the target learners' active participation and their willingness to use language. More specifically, whether or not the topic of the task is familiar to the learners and whether or not the tasks encourage learners' participation are potential factors to some extent when using either collaborative or information gap tasks. One of the greatest concerns with teenage learners is how to make a task more personalized for them. Therefore, the topic as well as an element of game-like competition to make activities fun may be of great importance when providing tasks in the classroom. Nonetheless, there is little literature investigating the effects of a certain type of task (e.g., narrative task) on fluency and task familiarity in relation to L2 acquisition.

Thirdly, the discourse a teacher contributes to the classroom can be also a variable which may affect learners' task performance and their L2 development. In particular, teachers ask many questions, which provide potential input for EFL learners who have fewer opportunities to be exposed to English in their daily lives. Classroom learners tend to be exposed to a far smaller range of discourse types; for example, they are often taught formal language rather than the language used in most social settings (Lightbown & Spada, 2006), and classroom conversations are often made up of teacher questions and student answers. That is to say, teachers often use questions with less 'communicative value', which are not focused on real-life content but on language (Håkanson & Lindberg, 1988), Although the effect of different types of teacher questions have been studied based on a number of taxonomies (see 3.3), it is worth investigating them in relation to learners' task performance. In particular, referential questions (e.g., "If you could go anywhere in the world, where would you go?") a (e.g., "What's the weather like now?") a from a communicative value standpoint. Teacher questions may also be of help to further understand the implications of the role of teacher discourse in the classroom.

Lastly, the particular language feature which is produced by the learners may well affect task performance. Studies have shown that some features of the language (e.g., plural, possessive, -ing form) are easiest to learn with high accuracy for some second language learners, but not for others from different first language backgrounds at different developmental stages (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). On the other hand, despite the fact that phrasal verbs (PVs), which consist of a verb and a particle, are commonly used in casual conversations among English-speaking people, they are one of the most difficult linguistic items for EFL learners to acquire because of their lack of exposure to the context in which they are used. It is very challenging to explore the development of phrasal verbs to understand whether this can be facilitated by the use of tasks.

In addition, as far as communicative language skills are concerned, the acquisition of question forms is essential to keep the conversation going and expand information exchange. However, specifically the inversion and *do*-fronting question forms are troublesome for Japanese speaking learners, which is attributable to first language influence (Lightbown & Spada, 2006) since their L1 has different rules (e.g., a question formation is made by adding "-*ka*" at the end of an affirmative sentence; inversions play no role). A number of studies have investigated the acquisition of question forms in relation to developmental stages (see 3.3), though few studies have explored this in relation to teacher questions and task types in intact classroom settings.

3.3.1 Means of Communication

Along with the recent gradual changes to the educational environment, in which learners now work in virtual environments via technology, one of the main concerns for researchers and practitioners is whether educational technology has any different impacts on the way learners negotiate, interact and focus on language in a certain task. It remains to be investigated whether or not the findings in the face-to-face (FTF) classroom correspond to those in the computer-mediated communication (CMC) environment.

Indeed, technology plays a role nowadays in providing sites for interpersonal communication in distance learning communities as well as in acting as a tool to extend what FTF L2 learning can achieve (Kern, 2006). And one thing which seems certain is that a computer extends opportunities for language learning in a way that would be challenging to orchestrate in traditional classroom settings (González-Lloret & Ortega, pp. 23-14). Thus, computer-mediated learning seems to be especially relevant to a well-theorized task-based language teaching and learning approach in order to maximize active learning and holistic tasks in language education (Van den Branden et al., 2009). Firstly, we will overview what CMC means and will provide studies of CMC in relation to tasks.

3.3.1.1 Computer-Mediated and Face-to-Face Classrooms

The term computer-mediated communication (CMC) is used when human-human interactions take place via a computer, and is distinct from human-computer interactions, in which students encounter a task relating to a specific aspect of L2 learning in a designed program (Fischer, 2012). In a CMC environment, learners work on screen individually and can interact with another via either local or global networks to achieve set goals using a variety of resources, which include authentic language in written and spoken forms, and visual resources such as icons, images, colors, and shapes (Stockwell & Tanaka-Ellis; 2012). On the other hand, in a FTF environment, learners may interact directly or work together to orally discuss any information that they have. This study refers to FTF communication as a non-CMC, in which the social context of 'interactions is mediated … which have the potential to be either conducive or a hindrance to the interactions' in their development of linguistic skills (Stockwell & Tanaka-Ellis, 2012, p. 72).

Moreover, CMC allows learners to be sensitive to a particular mode such as the linguistic mode (written language), the visual mode (the choice of fonts), and so forth (Lamy, 2012) in the course of communicating using a variety of online resources on screen. A number of studies which focused on text-based CMC have shown the benefits of a/synchronous CMC for L2 learning, where a written record with textual enhancement strategies in a visual mode can allow learners the time and opportunity to reflect on their language production more saliently, leading to noticing (Chapelle, 2001; Chun & Yong, 2006; Lai et al., 2008; Meskill, 2005; Lee, 2010; Pellettieri, 2000, Sauro, 2013; Shekary & Tahririan, 2006). These opportunities owe much to the visual display of text-based CMC; however, what is not yet clear is the impact of means of communication which allow learners to make selective use of text (e.g. online lessons via Skype, video conference, a co-operative online game like 'Second Life') or of remote interactions like Web-based seminars (e.g. Webinars) on the way learners interact for L2 learning from SLA perspectives, considering these as alternative forms of FTF communication. Many of the recent mixed-modal forms of CMC task research have been concerned with the validation of a particular type of online task (e.g. Second Life), analyzing strategies of negotiation in the process of the co-construction of meaning from socio-cultural perspectives (Canto, Graaff & Jauregi, 2014; Chen, 2012; Cho, 2011; Jee, 2010; Mroz, 2012; Sauro, 2009; Sykes, 2014). Nevertheless, there is a concern that the literature to date has exposed issues of inconsistency in the methodological practices of research within mainstream SLA (Ziegler, 2013), revealing inconsistencies between the definitions of 'computer-mediated' interaction among researchers (Kenning, 2010). In addition, only a small number of studies have examined interactions in real classroom settings, and further investigation of language use beyond text chat (Peterson, 2010) is needed.

3.3.1.2 Computer-Mediated Communication and L2 Acquisition

There is a substantial body of research which has investigated the impact of online text-based technological affordances on tasks (e.g. jigsaw, decision-making) and L2 learning (Chapelle, 2007), and the findings have reasonably claimed some benefits for second language acquisition (Blake, 2000; 2007; Fischer, 2012; Chun & Yong, 2006; Lai, Fei, & Roots, 2008; Lee, 2010; Pellettieri, 2000, Sauro, 2013; Shekary & Tahririan, 2006).

Although there have been few studies to date which have investigated mixed modal (oral a l affordances and L2 acquisition in EFL settings, Lee's dissertation study (2010) revealed no statistical difference between CMC via both text- and voice-chat and FTF interactions by ESL learners in regard to the acquisition of L2 new lexical items. He suggested that when negotiation of form and meaning took place or the learners had some background knowledge of the target words, oral and written vocabulary acquisition could be promoted regardless of communication media. In addition, Ziegler's (2013) recent dissertation research, which examined the efficacy of interaction in synchronous CMC (SCMC)[1] using the chat function and FTF contexts through meta-analysis based on journal articles and dissertations published between 1990 and 2013, revealed that interaction in both SCMC and FTF had positive impacts on L2 development. However, "no significant differences were found between the two modes on the development of learners' oral and written skills or their productive and receptive skills" (Ziegler, 2013, p. 155), regardless of the evidence of a small effect on writing skills for the SCMC group and on oral skills for the FTF group. Oskoz (2009) investigated learner-learner feedback during online chat tasks on SCMC to discover some patterns of assistance and scaffolding for L2 development similar to those used in tutor-learner interaction in FTF context. The findings showed that the target form (subjunctive) was not necessarily focused on by the learners while chatting, since the form was not the direct focus of the communication-oriented task.

A number of findings focusing on attention from such areas as type of information (concrete or abstract; familiar or unfamiliar material) or un/structured information have shown their different impacts on different aspects of performance. For instance, Gass, Svetics, and Lemelin (2003) investigated learners' attention to syntax, lexicon, and morphosyntax by using

[1] Synchronous messaging facility can support several different modes (e.g., a text chat window using smileys, which belong to the iconic mode (Lamy, M.N., 2012)

textual enhancement on a computer screen, which revealed that learners' attention was focused on all three parts of language; yet the greatest amount of learning took place in syntax. However, the study showed that externally-manipulated attention did not necessarily correspond to internal attentional processes, since the great amount of learning in lexicon took place in the absence of any focus.

These findings have shown that the means (CMC or FTF) and mode (oral and text or written) of L2 skills do not seem to significantly affect the ways learners pass through cognitive processes, such as paying attention to form/meaning and being aware of the language. Or rather, the process seems to be more greatly influenced by the ways in which L2 learners communicate and interact with each other for L2 learning. Questions then arise as to how peer-peer interactions facilitate attention to form and meaning, as well as how we can measure L2 development. Next, we will look at studies which examined learner-learner interaction and the potential measurement of L2 learning based on language-related episodes (LREs) in both CMC and FTF.

3.3.1.3 Interaction in CMC and FTF Communication

One of the clear differences between CMC and FTF classrooms is that CMC classrooms are directed to learner-centered interactions where L2 learners are allowed to have more opportunities to interact with other learners via text- or voice- chat, rather than with the teacher. On the other hand, in traditional FTF classrooms, learners necessarily tend to work on tasks with an awareness of the presence of the teacher. There has been a question as to whether such learner-learner interactions among learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) actually promote similar learning to those with teachers (Philip et al., 2014). Findings have revealed that fewer instances of modification were observed in learner-learner classroom interactions due to their low proficiency and face-saving, and that more priority was given to communication rather than to discussing language (Foster & Ohta, 2005; Fujii & Mackey, 2009; Mackey et al., 2003; Philip, Walter, & Basturkmen, 2010).

Besides, in CMC negotiation of form between learners that led to self-repair or modification of others' output occurred less frequently (Van den Branden, 1997) a effectively than in teacher-led negotiation (Lyster, 2001). Consequently, exploring learner-learner interactions via CMC has grown in importance in the light of the potential impact of computers on L2 learning. Further issues surrounding learner-learner interactions through collaborative tasks have been addressed in 3.2.2.2.

3.3.2 Task Variables

In technical terms, tasks for L2 learning are implemented in a variety of ways, from exercises and drills which artificially push language use to elicit paraphrases or repetitions[2] to complex tasks which require a large amount of cognitive domain (e.g., analysis, synthesis,

[2] 'Tasks' used in Japanese government authorized textbooks (e.g., 'One World') are invented as an exercise or a drill which requires, for instance, paraphrase in writing and speaking, dictation, listening activities.

evaluation, solution) at a time. Obviously, the choice of task type seems to interact with individual learner variables such as proficiency (Nunan, 1991) and anxiety (Julkunen, 2001). Naturally, we cannot argue that task type alone impacts on task performance; we need also to consider other variables such as proficiency, individual learner characteristics and social factors which impact on classroom interaction (Mackey, 2012, p. 61). In particular, research has suggested that certain types of task seem to have a greater impact on the occurrence of L2 learners' negotiations of meaning and form compared with other types of task.

Accordingly, we will look at findings involving task types, task familiarity, and interactive tasks to find out how learners co-construct and negotiate for L2 learning.

3.3.2.1 Task Types

Tasks for pedagogical purposes are used to provide opportunities for L2 development with comprehensible input, negotiation for meaning/form, production of output, and to direct one's attention to points of discrepancy between the interlanguage and the target language in a particular setting (Mackey, 2012). Considering these elements of interaction together while asking what specific tasks can be the most effective is an elementary question for both researchers and teachers. Obviously, the choice of task type seems to interact with individual learner variables such as proficiency (Nunan, 1991) and anxiety (Julkunen, 2001).

Barnes and Todd (1995) found that different tasks gave rise to different strategies on the part of individual learners and their groups. As the process of task engagement that pupils undertook could be seen as a creative process of language use, they showed that tasks were not utilized merely to structure final language production but that pupils could make connections between the surface discourses produced and their underlying thinking through interactions. For example, features of different tasks which promote particular areas of language could be designed as focused or unfocused tasks, the degree of structuring of tasks (e.g., closed /open tasks), the incidence of negotiation for meaning, participant roles (e.g., one-way/two-way tasks), task familiarity, planning, and repetition (Samuda & Bygate, 2008, p. 93). These tasks are commonly used to facilitate interactional modifications and language development; however, there is no consensus on the ways in which they work to impact learning.

In terms of negotiation of meaning and interactional modifications, studies have shown that two-way tasks are more effective than one-way tasks (Long, 1983; Pica, 1987), because as long as learners are given an activity which requires the exchange of information, social interaction must be structured for mutual comprehension. On the other hand, Shehadeh (1999) showed that one-way (picture-dictation task) surpassed two-way (opinion exchange task) in terms of modified output. Similarly, fewer modifications were found in two-way tasks compared to a one-way picture drawing task (Gass & Varonis, 1985), which suggested that the necessity of negotiation for meaning depended on the shared background knowledge of the learners engaged in the tasks rather than on the task type itself.

In addition, with respect to closed/convergent tasks which require learners to find only one correct answer and open/divergent tasks which have no predetermined answer, empirical studies demonstrated that negotiation of meaning was more common in closed than in open tasks and was more effective with less proficient learners (Loschky, 1989; Long, 1990; Nunan, 1991; Fotos, 1994). On the other hand, there are arguments that can be advanced to support the use of open tasks, principally because they provide learners with more opportunities for taking longer turns and managing their own discourse (Leaver & Willis, 2004). In addition, Duff (1986), who investigated a problem-solving (convergent) task and a debate (divergent) task, found that the convergent task prompted more turns and more interactional modifications than the divergent task. Likewise, Skehan and Foster (2001) also showed that negotiation of meaning was more likely to occur in convergent than in divergent tasks.

What impact, then, do different task types and conditions have on L2 development in terms of complexity, accuracy and fluency? Foster and Skehan (1996), and Skehan and Foster (1999) investigated the impact of a certain task type (e.g., Narrative, Personal Information Exchange, Argumentation) on task performance to examine fluency, accuracy or complexity and compared results when pre-planning time was and was not allowed for tasks given to ESL university level students. Interestingly enough, they found that 1) fluency and accuracy improved with familiarity for the personal tasks, 2) since personal tasks were already sufficiently familiar to the students, students performed more fluently regardless of pre-planning time, but 3) personal tasks gave rise to less complex use of language. In this regard, Mackey (2012) points out that "[a]ttention is modulated differently based on the task type, and the issue of ease and difficulty and the appropriateness of the measure for identifying success are still open questions in SLA research".

From the findings of the studies, it is plausible that task familiarity can also be a factor influencing learners' task performance. Indeed, no matter how well tasks are designed, if the topic is boring to the students, it is difficult to engage learners fully in the task and to achieve L2 development. Next, the familiarity of task topics and the learners' affective characteristics, which are considered to be related to their willingness to engage in L2, will be discussed.

3.3.2.2 Task Familiarity

In general, it might be argued that what is familiar to the participants differs according to topic, task procedure or structure, and depends on background knowledge across cultures, age, and education (Samuda & Bygate, 2008). Task familiarity could mean both familiarity with the content of the task and with the type of task (i.e., the procedures). It has been explored in a number of studies in the latter sense, which have looked at it in relation to task planning, preparedness, and readiness (Ellis, 2009; Wang, 2009; Bygate, 2001) rather than to familiarity with the topic of the task. Plough and Gass (1993) explored the effects of familiarity on learners' negotiation of meaning. They focused on familiarity with a particular type of task (procedural familiarity) rather than with the content (topic familiarity), and concluded that unfamiliar tasks generated more negotiation of meaning than familiar ones. In recent years, task familiarity achieved through repetition (Bygate, 2001; Gass, Mackey, Alvarez-Torres, & Fernandez- García, 1999; Lynch & Maclean, 2001) and familiarity with the task itself (Mackey, Kanganas, & Oliver, 2007) have been explored and have shown that procedural familiarity (i.e. repetition, planning) lead to a greater amount of negotiation of meaning and greater attention to linguistic forms (Mackey, 2012).

There is a question as to what impact the familiarity might have on doing a task (e.g., could familiarity increase fluency or accuracy?). Little research has been done on this (Samuda & Bygate, 2008). Much of the current debate revolves around how familiarity or novelty impacts on learning, what kind of familiarity with the content is helpful, and to what extent task familiarity is connected to learners' more active engagement in a task for L2 development; however, there seems to be no compelling reason to argue that familiarity with a task facilitates task performance in some way. When it comes to personal tasks, for instance, studies have suggested that they generate more fluent and less complex language regardless of planning time, since personal tasks are less cognitively demanding (Foster & Skehan, 1996; Skehan & Foster; Skehan, 2001). It is not yet clear, however, whether or not more personal topics given to adolescent learners at school give rise to greater L2 development, in terms of complexity, accuracy and fluency.

3.3.2.3 A Collaborative Task

In addition to reviewing some impacts of task type and task familiarity, how learners' attention to accuracy and fluency are modulated through a kind of interaction is another issue to be considered in order to understand task variables. Learner-learner collaborative tasks provide a number of beneficial opportunities for language production and a variety of language uses, including initiating discussion, asking for clarification, interrupting, competing for the floor, and joking (Ellis, 2012). For instance, Dicotogloss is a task which requires learners to reformulate texts collaboratively after individual dictation work. It is obviously a form-focused task, in which the interactive process is considered to focus attention and contribute to language learning (Samuda & Bygate, 2008). Provided that a task is designed appropriately for the target area of language learning rather than being a 'fun' activity, students will resolve the language problems and it will promote negotiation of meaning and modified output (Yule & MacDonald, 1990; Foster, 1998; Mackey, 1999).

Other studies on collaborative interactions have investigated negotiation during tasks based on language-related episodes (LREs), where talk about language is focused explicitly on linguistic form (Swain, 1998), since LREs have been found to be theoretically significant for language learning (Kim, 2009; Basterrechea & García-Mayo, 2013) in terms of the amount of self-repairs and resolving the language problems in the learners' negotiations (Loewen, 2005; Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006). Swain (2006) conducted text reformulation tasks (dictogloss) and documented that LREs in the learners' L1 might cause learning because they served to articulate and transform learners' thinking into form, and provided a means for reflection on the form. Particularly, in the context of foreign language learning, where students have limited exposure to the L2, using some *metalinguistic* knowledge is considered to be significantly important in discussing language (Colina & García-Mayo, 2007; Ellis, 2012). Fortune (2005) studied the use of metalanguage through dictogloss tasks by adult EFL learners at intermediate and advanced levels, and showed that the advanced learners used more metalanguage than the intermediate level learners in the episodes in which language became the object of talk, suggesting that the use of metalanguage in small group work which invites a focus on form (such as dictogloss) could facilitate language learning.

3.3.2.4 Attention to Form in Interactive Tasks

Despite its efficacy in interactive tasks, however, the degree of attention to form in learner-learner interaction remains unclear, since how the language problems in dictogloss are resolved varies considerably due to a variety of factors (Philip et al., 2013). Several studies to date have investigated learners' proficiency, looking at mixed- (high-/low) and matched-proficiency learner-learner interaction in the negotiation of meaning and form (Iwashita, 2001; Kim & McDonough, 2008; Lesser, 2004; William, 1999; Yule & MacDonald, 1990). The findings from SLA research demonstrated evidence of the amount of learners' LREs, which can be an indicator of learners' attention to form and meaning.

For instance, William's (1999) study revealed that LREs mostly focused on lexical items regardless of proficiency levels; few LREs on morphosyntactic forms happened in structured activities among learners of higher proficiency. Yet she suggested that the degree and the type of attention to form depended on the proficiency level and the nature of activities. Lesser (2004), meanwhile, explored mixed-/ matched-proficiency dyads in dictogloss tasks, and found that the learners' ability to correctly resolve LREs increased in high-high proficiency pairs, showing that 'the lower proficiency members of the same dyads correctly solved only two LREs (8%), both of which had a lexical focus' (Lesser, 2004, p. 73). And 'a word's meaning or prepositional usage (72%), or the spelling/pronunciation of a word (28%)' (Lesser, 2004, p. 72) were the main focus of the low-low pairs. The study suggested that future research would need to investigate whether "LREs promoted noticing of forms upon subsequent listening to the dictogloss passage" (Lesser, 2004, p. 74). Moreover, Kim and McDonough (2008) investigated collaborative tasks in L2 classrooms by analyzing the occurrence and resolution of lexical and grammatical LREs and the patterns of interaction. They found that less focus on form happened when matched-proficiency learner interactions took place; focus on linguistic form increased when the learners interacted with a higher proficiency interlocutor; yet the learners did not necessarily perceive such an interaction as resulting in benefits even though LREs were resolved correctly.

3.3.3 Teacher Questions

In addition to learner-learner interactions, teacher-learner interactions also happen in the classroom. A large number of studies have focused on teacher-learner interactional feedback using various types of tasks including several meta-analyses (e.g., Lyster & Saito, 2010; Mackey & Goo, 2007). However, what is not yet clear is the impact of teacher questions on teacher-learner interactions. Therefore, we will next take account of a variable in the in .

Question forms are used particularly frequently by the teacher in the classroom, but it is not yet known what types of teacher questions are most frequently used and whether they have a .

A teacher asks many questions in the classroom. They have a considerable influence on classroom discourse in their instruction and feedback. They decide which aspects of the language will be targeted, they impart knowledge or awareness for students to prepare, and they provide relevant feedback through activities with distinct purposes (Samuda & Bygate, 2008). Particularly for students with a low level of English proficiency, the language the teacher uses plays a significant role in their language learning. Without appropriateness, it is possible on the other hand that a teacher's discourse may distort the natural communication that takes place in L2 classroom (Ellis, 2012). However, the questions asked by teachers are often one of the most effective ways in which teachers manage the class and encourage students to develop communication skills.

A teacher throws out a lot of questions to their students. The major contribution that teachers make to second language (L2) discourse is in the typical form of initiation, response, follow-up (IRF) exchange as well as in the form of giving instructions and feedback. Questions are also often used to check students' L2 knowledge (display questions) rather than to ask for personal and creative responses (referential questions). This suggests that form is emphasized over meaning and accuracy over communication (Long & Sato, 1984; White &

Lightbown, 1984), which is different from the way people interact in real life communication. The question arises of whether or not the different types of strategies used for asking questions have any impact on students' subsequent task performance and L2 development.

3.3.3.1 Studies of Teacher Questions

There have been various studies which investigated different types of questions. The taxonomies of these questions vary according to the different aspects on which teachers focus (Ellis, 2012). Bloom, Krathwohl, & Bertram (1984) identified a hierarchy of six question categories according to the level of 'brain power' which they require and the degree to which they elicit an extensive and elaborate response. Long and Sato's study (1984), based on Kearsley's taxonomy of questions (1976), documented that teacher questions were undoubtedly prevalent in six elementary-level ESL classes and that they occurred most often in the first part of ubiquitous IRF (initiate – respond – follow-up) exchange. Dillon (1997) also suggested that teachers used various kinds of questions, and that the frequency of use depended on whether the teacher wanted to elicit recitation or discussion from the learners. Koivukari (1987) classified teacher questions according to the depth of cognitive processing at which questions operate: at the surface level (e.g. calling for the reproduction of content) and at deeper levels.

Moreover, types of question are classified by form (e.g. yes/no or WH questions), communicative value (e.g. referential or display), and orientation (e.g. language focused or real-life content) (Håkanson & Lindberg, 1988). Categorizing and investigating types of question form (taxonomies) has been a sustained concern within the field of cognitive psychology (Bloom et al*,* 1984; Barnes, 1976; Kearsldey, 1976), and recent developments in the field of SLA have led to a renewed interest in the roles of different types of question form used in ESL classrooms, in particular by making an exclusive distinction between referential questions and display questions (Barnes, 1976; Long & Sato, 1984; White, 1992).

3.3.3.2 Referential and Display Questions

Based on the educational objective of constructing a taxonomy, the two broad categories of referential questions and display questions seem to be highly plausible, and this categorization seems to be one of the most comprehensive available in task-based language learning, which values communication highly (Ellis, 2012).

Display questions are often utilized by teachers in the EFL classroom, who largely control the topic of discussion and ask questions to which they know the answers in order to get students to take their cues from teachers (Walsh, 2002). However, Lee (2006) claims that "it would be premature to dismiss display questions as an ineffective teaching variable for language acquisition" (p.708) without relying on multiple sequences of initiation – response – feedback (IRF), including repairs, commonsense knowledge, negotiation and so forth.

Meanwhile, in terms of the opportunities for student output, some studies found that responses to referential questions were significantly longer than responses to display questions (Brock, 1986; Long & Crookes, 1992; Nunan, 1990; White, 1992), showing varying lengths and complexity (Banbrook, 1987). and continuous interactional revisions (Lee, 2006). This is because referential questions intend to get students to use imagination and creativity by providing contextual information about situations, events, and actions (Long & Sato, 1984; White & Lightbown, 1984; White, 1992). The preference for display questions does not apply only to language classes. Wragg (2012) revealed that only four per cent of questions asked in secondary schools were "higher order" questions which required more thought and extended answers.

In addition, studies which investigated the length of responses to referential questions and display questions revealed that the latter were significantly shorter than the former in advanced ESL university classes (Brock, 1986), and similar results were obtained by other researchers (Long & Crookes, 1992; Nunan, 1990, and White, 1992). As for the relationship between question type and learner output, Banbrook (1987) found that referential questions could prompt a variety of responses in terms of the length and complexity. On the other hand, Musumeci (1996) found that teachers initiated most exchanges through display questions in the EFL classroom, rarely asked questions for which learners did not have answers, and modified their speech in response. In a recent study of an EFL classroom in Brunei, Ho (2005) suggested that display questions could be purposeful and effective in terms of institutional goals. Similarly, secondary students in Hong Kong produced longer and more complex utterances in response to display questions (Wu, 1993). It was also reported that display questions were likely to elicit more continuous interactional revisions when the teacher and students negotiated for their meaning over several turns (Lee, 2006; Long & Crookes, 1992).

Besides, Yang and Lyster (2010) found that referential questions would not make students produce longer responses, based on their results showing that there were few responses to referential questions in Chinese language classes, since students tended to economize on words, giving priority to meaning for instant communication.

Seen in this light, teacher questions control the discourse, and these can make very different contributions to language learning (Ellis, 2012). Despite the fact that the conversational interaction led by a teacher in the classroom is quite different from the way people interact in real life communication, there has been little agreement about the effects of different strategies of teacher questions on learner output in terms of the varying length and complexity of their responses (Banbrook, 1987; Brock, 1986; Long & Crookes, 1992; Nunan, 1990; White, 1992) and of continuous interactional revisions (Lee, 2006). Even with all the evidence, there is still an ambiguous relationship between teacher questions and L2 acquisition. Therefore, the questions as to whether frequent use of referential questions, which are given for conversational interaction in which questions result in active learner participation and meaning negotiation (Ellis, 2012), help EFL learners to develop L2 learning more effectively than display questions, which elicit a specific grammatical structure from the students, will be tested in Chapter 5. Lastly, we will highlight the language features to be targeted for learning in relation to L2 learning and acquisition.

3.3.4 Language Variables

It is important to take account of the aspect of language to be learnt in the investigation of L2 learning, since this may also have an impact on L2 performance. For example, phrasal verbs are one aspect which is particularly difficult for EFL learners, who have few opportunities to be exposed to the context in which phrasal verbs are frequently used in daily conversations. Nevertheless, phrasal verbs are an important component of fluent speech in L2 communication, just like other examples such as collocations and chunks, and so it is necessary to investigate the process by which phrasal verbs are learnt in the interactive EFL context. The following presents findings from studies of phrasal verbs and question forms in relation to L2 acquisition.

3.3.4.1 Phrasal Verbs

Phrasal verbs mainly consist of a small number of common verbs or adverbs in combination with prepositions (e.g. *get, go, come, put / out, off, up*); however, what confuses L2 learners is that there are idiomatic (non-literal) phrasal verbs whose 'meaning of the combination cannot be built up from the meanings of the individual verb and adverb' (Leech & Svartvik, 2002) as in *hang on* (wait), *go on* (continue), *get off* (leave). In addition, there are different types of phrasal verbs in terms of syntactic structures (e.g., I'll *put on* my jacket, I'll *put* my jacket *on*, I'll *put* it *on*.). Because of their arbitrary nature, various ideas have been proposed to learn phrasal verbs in the classroom (e.g. miming to memorize as an item, discussing the meanings of literal and non-literal verbs in the sentences, and identifying phrasal verbs in the sentences of a monologue) in ways which make learners aware of the connections between a verb meaning and a particle (Seymour & Popove, 2005).

Cognitive linguists have studied phrasal verbs in terms of L1 influence and avoidance, underuse (Laufer & Eliasson, 1993) and language transfer (Hulstijn & Marchena, 1989; Liao & Fukuya, 2004). Nevertheless, no studies have looked at the avoidance of phrasal verbs by Japanese learners, whose L1 does not share these lexical patterns with English. Cognitive linguists have discussed phrasal verbs (PVs) in terms of the language typology which distinguishes between satellite-framed (e.g. Germanic languages such as English, and Slavic languages such as Russian) and verb-framed language (e.g. Romance languages, Hebrew, Japanese) (Slobin, 1996; Talmy, 2000) and they have researched PVs in light of the influence of L1 on L2 learning. Cadierno and Ruiz (2006) empirically studied how adult language learners came to express motion events in an L2 with reference to research on L1 acquisition, comparing expressions with the semantic components of *path* and *manner* of motion by the groups of informants whose L1 and L2 belonged to the same or different typological patterns: Danish learners (satellite-framing) of Spanish (verb-framing), Italian learners (verb-framing) of Spanish (verb-framing), and Spanish native speakers (verb-framing). Unlike in previous research on L1 acquisition, however, the results showed a limited role for the adult L1 in advanced second language acquisition.

On the other hand, Hulstijin and Marchena (1989) showed that Hebrew learners of

English avoided phrasal verbs (e.g., let down) and preferred one-word verbs (e.g., disappoint), since Hebrew has no phrasal verbs. Similarly, Laufer and Eliasson (1993) investigated the causes of the avoidance of phrasal verbs in L2 learning by Swedish learners, whose L1 was related to English, and Hebrew learners whose L1 was unrelated to English. The results showed that the Swedish learners avoided using phrasal verbs less often than L1 Hebrew learners and suggested that the avoidance is determined more by a systematic incongruence between L1 and L2 than by the inherent difficulty of L2 forms. Moreover, the findings of a case study of Chinese learners of English also showed that the phrasal-verb avoidance behavior was a manifestation of interlanguage development, yet suggested that differences between L1 and L2 might be the reason for the learners' avoidance (Liao & Fukuya, 2004).

Along with investigations of phrasal verbs in L2 acquisition, several studies have explored question forms and L2 acquisition. A number of studies have investigated question forms in relation to interlanguage development in L2 acquisitional sequence. Some studies explored question forms in the study of priming techniques in teacher-learner interactions. The following addresses studies of development of question forms in terms of interactions and L2 acquisitional sequences.

3.3.4.2 Question Forms

In SLA research, question forms are studied in an attempt to understand why interaction is developmentally helpful. McDonough and Mackey (2008) explored the relationship between syntactic priming and ESL question development in the interactional context. Studies on syntactic priming in feedback have recently challenged earlier research on teacher discourse and L2 development. These studies are grounded on the assumption that syntactic structures which have previously been either heard or spoken can facilitate subsequent production in the context of interaction with a native or more advanced speaker of the L2 (McDonough, 2006; McDonough & Chaitkitmongol, 2010; McDonough & Mackey, 2008; McDonough & Trofimovich, 2009), since a priming technique shows "evidence that the learner noticed the structure, and can serve as indication that the learner has processed" (Mackey, 2012, p. 31). Priming, in which the speech structures of question forms were incorporated, was demonstrated to facilitate speakers (students) to notice the structures which they had heard in their interlocutor's preceding utterance.

These results provide confirmatory evidence that syntactic priming helps L2 learners recognize the form represented even in the absence of feedback; however, whether priming models alone were associated with L2 development is not yet clear (McDonough & Mackey, 2008). This indicated that there is a need for further investigation of the influence of input such as teacher questions on L2 output and development in interactive lessons through tasks.

3.3.4.3 Question Forms and Developmental Sequence

A number of empirical research studies have operationalized the stages of acquisition of question forms as part of the *developmental sequence* (Mackey & Philip, 1998; Pienemann &

Johnston, 1988; Spada & Lightbown, 1993; McDonough & Mackey, 2006, 2008; Philip, 2003; Silver, 2000). Taking the view that first language does have an influence on different patterns used for creating sentences and word forms, Pienemann, Johnston, and Brindley (1988) collected data relating to a *sequence* in the acquisition of questions by learners of English from a variety of first language backgrounds. They showed six stages of the sequence and found a similar sequence, by and large, to the one observed in first language acquisition.

Although they found a positive association, the debate about whether or not the acquisition stages of question forms claimed by Pienemann et al., (1988) are universal has been inconclusive. For instance, studies of ESL learners lend support to their claims (White, Spada, Lightbown, & Ranta, 1991; Mackey, 1999; Bronwen, 2008), while Tarone and Liu's study (1995) of EFL learners was not in line with those found in the study of Pienemann et al., (1988) study. The experiments which have taken place offer contradictory findings depending on the participants (e.g. ESL/EFL learners), the target language (e.g. French/ English), and the context provided. There are still insufficient data on the question development of Japanese teenage L2 learners; however, this paper will not concentrate on the acquisition order of question forms.

In addition, Hakuta (1974) investigated the development of question forms in English for a Japanese child, aged 5, learning English over an 11-month period in the United States. His data showed '*do you*' appeared to function as a chunk as la *did*' appeared in about the sixth to eighth month, and '*where, when, why*' question forms followed. Similarly, Raven (1974) studied a Norwegian child learning English, aged 6, over a four-month period in the United Kingdom. Interestingly enough, this child mostly used declarative sentence word order regardless of inversion that happened in both Norwegian and English grammar. However, these findings documented that there was no uniform pattern in the acquisition of question forms, since they showed that none of the data reflected the Norwegian language patterns (Gass & Selinker, 2008). As observed above, question forms have been of major interest within the investigation of developmental sequence of L2 acquisition; however, more research into Japanese English learners is called for.

Before investigating some of the variables mentioned in this chapter, the following section attempts to address the problem statement of this paper.

3.3 Problem Statement

So far, we have looked at the study of tasks in the light of theoretical and methodological frameworks. This section will first reveal several important issues to be explored and state general research questions as well as hypotheses to be tested in this dissertation.

The aim of this study is to cla lassrooms and how it can be used in L2 learning, 2) the issues over the measurement and variables of task research, in order to investigate 3) tasks-based learning in a Japanese classroom context to assess the extent to which some of the variables affect the process of L2 learning. So far, we have seen that the concept of utilization of a 'task' is to make language use happen in the classroom in order to learn language appropriately, just like language is used in the real world, and in a way which is supported by the SLA theories. However, despite its theoretical efficacy in L2 learning, there have been a number of problems in applying it to each classroom context, particularly in the one for Japanese L2 learners. It is a classic problem to combine theory and practice by examining effects on the learners' L2 development in a real classroom, which is naturally often accompanied mainly by difficulties in operationalization, various variables, measurement and so forth.

Moreover, I have attempted to provide explanations for different ways of measurement of L2 learning in dynamic classrooms in which learner-learner and teacher-learner interactions take place. A number of recent studies have focused on discourse in interactive tasks such as consensus and information gap tasks to find L2 development by investigating texts produced in L2 to describe the output. LREs show the evidence of negotiation for form and meaning, which are considered to be beneficial for L2 learning in terms of drawing attention to the language and self-modifications. Nevertheless, what is not yet clear is the relationship between negotiations and L2 acquisition. In the meantime, the linguistic aspects of a learner's internal processes of L2 learning which appeared in the interactive discourse have also been explored, namely complexity, accuracy and fluency (CAF) as the proficiency dimensions of task performance. In spite of the fact that the notion of CAF in various discourse-based measures seems requisite and useful in classroom research, these measures are controversial in terms of whether they serve as reliable measures of the constructs (e.g., how to determine which measures constitute validity). Many of them require interpretation, and there is the risk of a proliferation of measures (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 21005). Although it is obvious that learners' L2 proficiency and L2 performance are naturally multidimensional and cannot be measured simply from one aspect of the proficiency underlying their performance, there is a need to elicit diversified aspects of L2 performance and production for measurement. In that sense, tasks can serve to describe linguistic performance as a process of linguistic development as well as a product of L2 acquisition.

Finally, we have discussed the issues around variables which are important factors in task research in a Japanese classroom context. Whether or not the task via computer-mediated communication produces different L2 outcomes compared with that in face-to-face communication is an urgent need to be investigated. The task structure and the degree of familiarity of the task are other factors which need to be taken into account for EFL learners' successful participation in task activities. The way that learners interact with a teacher as well as with other learners in the classroom is also of help to understand the process of L2 learning in depth from interactions, and the language features learnt through task activities need to be examined as well.

With these issues in mind, it remains to be investigated whether or not the findings are applicable to Japanese L2 learners in EFL settings. In fact, many of the task-based syllabuses and designs have been proposed in ESL settings where English is commonly spoken, including in French immersion classrooms (e.g., Foster & Skehan, 1998; Long & Crookes, 1992; Mackey, 1999; Willis & Willis, 2007; Swain & Lapkin, 1998). A gap still remains between the ESL and EFL contexts; learners and teachers in the latter face challenges of few opportunities to be exposed to the target language, and little motivation to use it. Naturally, language teaching in EFL classrooms tends to prioritize developing forms rather than meaning for communication from the beginning of L2 learning.

In addition, regarding learner-learner interaction among EFL learners, several studies have revealed that few modifications or self-repairs took place (Foster & Ohta, 2005; Fujii & Mackey, 2009; Mackey et al., 2003; Philip et al., 2010) due to students' face-saving strategies (Hawkins, 1985), and that EFL learners received fewer benefits from collaborative tasks than content and language integrated learning (CLIL) learners did (Basterrechea & García-Mayo, 2013). Even though it would appear that form-focused tasks could correctly direct an EFL learner's attention to form, it remains uncertain whether this is the best way of getting learners to be aware of form in an originally form-focused EFL classroom (unlike in immersion classrooms, for example). Reconsideration of the realization of the EFL classroom context from the perspective of how to make meaning-focused holistic lessons is inevitable. More significantly, as long as attentional resources are limited (Skehan, 1998; Van Patten, 1990) in terms of complexity, accuracy and fluency, and the less frequently that noticing and negotiation of some aspects of language (e.g., inflectional morphology) occur, the more communicative the conversation becomes (Jeon, 2007; Mackey, Gass, & McDonough, 2000), one major concern is to how to integrate well-balanced attention to form and meaning in an EFL classroom. Accordingly, it could be assumed that the successful use of tasks in the EFL context may depend to a large part on a task with clear objectives in the moment in which the teacher and the learners co-construct a quasi-real world to experience L2 use and can get a feeling that they are developing it.

Consequently, the hypothesis to be tested is that: 1) Provided well-designed tasks and active interactions happen in the classroom for Japanese elementary level L2 learners, the use of tasks will be quite helpful, although a question remains how and to what extent this will be so; 2) it is possible to successfully strike the balance between creating more meaning-focused and language-focused interactive classroom environments, which will of course accommodate learners' proficiency levels sufficiently. For these reasons, the central issue in this dissertation addresses the following two general research questions.

1) To what extent can we confirm the benefits of tasks in the classroom for Japanese elementary level L2 learners?
2) What suggestions could be made concerning the use of tasks in the teaching of Japanese teenage learners?

The first question arises from a concern about the validity of findings in SLA research in Japanese educational contexts; the second question is an attempt to seek pedagogical implications for the future direction of English language practice in Japan. The next two sections examine the variables of task study in Japanese classroom to be tested to discuss the challenges and the validity of the task-based learning in reference to the general problem statements mentioned above.

CHAPTER FOUR

Effects of the Means of Communication in Collaborative Tasks on the Learning of Phrasal Verbs

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of an empirical study which investigates the effects of different means of communication (computer-mediated versus face-to-face) on learner-learner negotiations during a collaborative task (dictogloss) in the process of learning phrasal verbs. Technology plays a role nowadays in providing sites for interpersonal communication in distance learning communities, as well as acting as a tool to extend what face-to-face (FTF) L2 learning can achieve (Kern, 2006). One thing which seems certain is that a computer extends opportunities for language learning in a way that would be challenging to orchestrate in traditional classroom settings, and so studying how students can engage in collaborative tasks mediated by technology has become a central issue for researchers (González-Lloret & Ortega). In fact, there is a growing need to investigate whether or not findings in the FTF classroom correspond to those in the computer-mediated communication (CMC) environment. Specifically, whether or not educational technology has any distinct impact on the way learners negotiate during a task for second language (L2) development is one of the concerns demanding investigation, along with the impact of the task on the way Japanese EFL learners of low proficiency levels negotiate collaboratively for task completion.

Japanese EFL university students (*n* = 28), who were generally accustomed to teacher-centered instruction, participated in the study. It utilized a dictogloss in which learners had the opportunity to negotiate any language problems they came across in the process of collaboratively reconstructing a sentence preceded by individual dictation. Meanwhile, phrasal verbs, consisting mainly of a small number of common verbs or adverbs in combination with prepositions (e.g. *get, go, come, put / out, off, up*), were tested.

The research addresses the following questions:

1) Do CMC and FTF communication through dictogloss have different impacts on the written development of phrasal verbs?
2) Do CMC and FTF communication through dictogloss have different impacts on learners' attention to form and meaning?
3) Do CMC and FTF communication through dictogloss have different impacts on the way learners negotiate language problems?

The data were collected based on written pre- and post-test scores, which were analyzed using repeated measures of the analysis of variance (ANOVA), and on transcripts of audio records of learners' oral negotiations. The latter were analyzed for language-related episodes (LREs), which were coded as either meaning- or grammar-based LREs. The chi-square analysis was used to investigate differences between learners' attention to form for each categorized feature of language. The results showed no significant differences between CMC and FTF communication in the development of phrasal verbs and in the amount of attention to the target forms. These findings were in line with previous studies, which, however, did not look at the development of phrasal verbs. What is surprising in this study is that the CMC group needed much more time to negotiate for meaning to avoid communication breakdown in comparison with the FTF group: the difference between CMC and FTF groups in terms of attention to negotiation for meaning and form was significant.

4.2 Method

4.2.1 Participants

The participants were twenty-eight Japanese university students who had enrolled in a Communication English class (*n* = 15: 10 males and 5 females; mean age: 18) or a Multimedia English class (*n* = 13: 1 male and 12 female; mean age: 19) in the first semester at a university in Tokyo. The Multimedia English class was classified as a computer-mediated communication group in which second-year or higher students were enrolled, whereas the Communication English class was classified as a face-to-face communication group and was a compulsory language class in which only first-year students were enrolled. The participants in both groups studied in the faculty of business administration, and their English proficiency was at false beginner level; in fact, they were low-level L2 learners who still had difficulty in comprehending English as well as in writing, reading, and speaking because of shortcomings in the basic grammatical and lexical knowledge which they were supposed to have learnt in their secondary schools. Many of them fell under the category of elementary proficiency level in the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) Reading and Listening test (as reported by the institution)[3]. The students were familiar with a non-communicative traditional approach (e.g., grammar translation), and it was new for the CMC group to use a computer-equipped classroom which enabled them to work via interactive text- and oral-based communication.

4.2.2 Procedure

The main differences between the CMC and FTF groups were that the CMC group

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[3] The participants in each class had already been classified according to their scores (equivalent to below 280 on the TOEIC) on an English language proficiency test administered by the university.

worked online using an in-class network with rich visual support, through which they could share and see other students' writings on screen and could discuss the task via headsets, while the students in the FTF group worked with pen and paper using printed and photocopied materials in a traditional classroom and the teacher used an audio speaker for listening dictation during the lesson. In the CMC classroom, each participant was seated in a regularly-fixed seat in a computer assisted language learning (CALL) room, and was assigned randomly to a pair or a small group for interaction via voice-chat function without directly facing the other participants. One dictogloss task, from input to feedback, lasted about 40 to 50 minutes, since it was conducted as a part of the course syllabus of an intact class. The total time used for the experiment was between about 240 and 300 minutes over 6 weeks. The procedure operated as follows:

Pre-test

One week prior to the instructional treatment, the students took a listening comprehension test using TOEIC Bridge[4] sample questions (34 questions), since the dictogloss involved phonological input to be dictated and reconstructed in the task. In addition, a pre-test of true or false questions featuring phrasal verbs (30 questions) was used to check the equivalence of the two groups.

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[4] TOEIC Bridge measures English proficiency for beginning to lower-intermediate level learners. http://www.ets.org/toeic_bridge/

Priming

In the instructional setting, both the CMC group and the FTF group started with a quiz of phrasal verbs with six questions, in which each participant was asked to match a picture or graphic and a phrasal verb on the sheet provided or on screen. The first task for priming was meant to facilitate learners in visually mapping the meaning with verb-particles (e.g. *go out, eat out, go along*). After doing the quiz individually, the participants checked the answers with other partners in the classroom, and were then required to utter the formulaic pattern aloud. (Appendix A)

To predict the task story beforehand, the participants had the opportunity to take a look at graphic information in the form of a 'Wordle'[5] on screen/a sheet. In a Wordle, each word is displayed in a different size according to the frequency with which it is used in the text: the bigger the word, the more times it appears in the article. It is helpful for the viewers to guess the story without reading the whole written passage (Appendix B).

Task

A dictogloss task was conducted in both CMC and FTF groups, as it perfectly suits the requirements of communicative language learning in terms of consensus building. It allows the learners to focus on language in the process of the collaborative reconstruction of a sentence following individual dictation, which creates opportunities for the learners to

[5] Wordle is an online program for generating "word clouds" from the text that you provide. The clouds give greater prominence to words that appear more frequently in the source text. http://www.wordle.net/

negotiate any language problems they come across. Besides, it promotes learners' integrated skills and the techniques of listening, writing, speaking, and reading at the same time (Jacobs, 2003). However, considering their level of language proficiency, controlled tasks were given in which the participants reconstructed a part of the sentences given, which included target phrasal verbs in a short conversational story (e.g. "Do you [blank] at the weekends?"). Conversation-style listening material, 'Grammar Snacks'[6], which included several phrasal verbs in each episode, was employed in a way which would permit the participants to engage in meaning-focused stories.

During the dictogloss task in which the participants reconstructed sentences collaboratively, they were allowed to use L1 in order to gauge their attention, since studies have revealed that there is a greater need to use the L1 instead of L2 in dictogloss task "[a]mong lower-achieving students" (Swain & Lapkin, 2000, p. 267)[7].

At the start, the teacher provided note-taking sheets (on screen or on paper) for students to do a sentence reconstruction activity individually ahead of the listening exercise. Each sentence was provided several times. After the individual dictation activity, the participants compared their texts with their partners and engaged in looking for differences with peers in order to reconstruct the sentences collaboratively. At the end of the task, they were given the

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[6] 'Grammar Snacks' offers grammar practice by providing a focal area of basic grammar (e.g., present continuous, past simple-irregular verbs, present and past, countable and uncountable nouns) in snack-size bites, and its videos show the grammar being used in a conversational style.
http://learnenglishteens.britishcouncil.org/grammar-vocabulary/grammar-videos

[7] De La Colina and García-Mayo (2009) explain that the use of L1 for L2 tasks is beneficial in that it gives learners the opportunity to speak more fluently in balanced interactions and to use metalinguistic terminology (Scott & de la Fuente, 2008). In addition, Swain and Lapkin (2000), who investigated the use of L1 made by grade 8 French immersion students as they completed dictogloss and jigsaw tasks, revealed that the students within the dictogloss class who obtained lower scores as measured by story quality (language and content ratings) used L1 in about 25 % of their turns, whereas those who obtained higher scores used L1 in 18 % of their turns.

answers and checked them against their reconstructed sentences. (Appendix C)

Post-tests

One dictogloss task, from input to feedback, lasted about 40 to 50 minutes per lesson since it was conducted as a part of the course syllabus of an intact class. The total time used for the experiment was between about 240 and 300 minutes over 6 weeks. There was a test given using true or false questions (40 questions made up of 20 new items and 20 previously studied items) immediately after the task. (Appendix R)

4.2.3 Data Collection, Coding, Analysis

The test scores on the phrasal verb written tests were obtained by counting the number of correct answers from each group and analyzed using repeated measures of the analysis of variance (ANOVA)[8]. First, the equality of variance between the two group was confirmed, then the participants in the CMC group and those in the FTF group were measured as independent variables; each participant's scores on the pre-test and post-test were measured as the dependent variables. However, the post-test included phrasal verbs which the participants had already learnt in the past lessons as well as new phrasal verbs. That is to say, the number

[8] A further analysis of the test for equality of variance was conducted using ANCOVA with the participants' scores of the TOEIC Bridge test as a covariate; no significant difference was found (F (1, 18) = .027, p = .871.

of questions in the pre-test was 30, whereas the post-test included 20 new verbs plus 20 previously studied verbs. To solve the imbalance in this comparison, the lowest common denominator (30×40=120 points) was calculated for analysis.

All students' conversations were audio-recorded in both the CMC and the FTF groups. It is to be noted that, due to the small number of digital recorders available, there was no choice but to collect data asynchronously in the FTF classroom. For this reason, it was not possible to record every single participant's utterance in this classroom: audio-recording took place in groups and was rotated 3 to 4 times. On the other hand, every participant's utterance could be obtained simultaneously from the CMC group in the CALL classroom. This gap made a difference to the total amount of elicited data. Participants' conversational interactions during the dictogloss task were all audio-recorded, transcribed, and used to identify the number of LREs, or any part of the conversation in which language learners talked about the language they had produced in conversational interaction. As described in the previous chapter, a number of studies have employed LREs to give an explanation of L2 learning (Basterrechea & García-Mayo, 2013; Colina & García-Mayo, 2007; Kim & McDonough, 2008; Kim, 2013; Lesser, 2004). The LREs identified were categorized as either grammar-based or meaning-based LREs. Grammar-based LREs include discussion of grammatical features, such as phonological, semantic, morphological, or syntactic forms, whereas meaning-based LREs cover any discussion including negotiation for meaning (i.e., checking, clarification, or repairs) which aimed to avoid communication breakdown. Data was collected from all utterances produced by students during the task, which was basically identified as being made up of LREs, since the dictogloss itself is a form-focused task which directs learners to talk about language in order to complete the task.

It is noted that previous studies of lexical acquisition (e.g., Basterrechea & García-Mayo, 2013; Lee, 2010) have classified LREs different from this study. For example, Basterrechea & García-Mayo (2013) emphasised the difference between lexical LREs (i.e., word meaning, word choice, use of prepositions, and spelling) and grammatical LREs (i.e., morphology or syntax) by investigating the 3rd person singular present tense (-s) morpheme in English in content and language integrated learning (CLIL) and foreign language (EFL) contexts. However, the current study does not concentrate exclusively on lexical LREs; instead, it separated negotiation for meaning (e.g., asking for clarification, rephrasing, and confirming what the participant thinks s/he has understood) and form. Therefore, grammar-based LREs in the current study include lexical LREs as well as morphology and syntax.

The following examples from the data show the two categories of meaning-based LREs and grammar-based LREs presented in (1), in which Students O and T in the CMC group deliberated over the reconstruction of a sentence based on individual dictation. Student O (line 1) asked for Student T's answer (line 2); having heard it, Student O suggested 'to the read?' in line 3, and Student T repeated the words 'to the read?' to confirm or show disagreement. The first two lines represent meaning-based LREs in which students did not pay attention to any particular language problems: Student O asked a question in order to find out Student T's answer. However, lines 3 to 8 represent grammar-based LREs, in which both students deliberated over whether or not ‘to’ was supposed to be used in the sentence. Their attention to a particular aspect of language was identified in their negotiation. However, their attention was directed to a phonological aspect, and there was no evidence of any discussion including common linguistic terms like 'verb', 'noun' or ‘phrasal verb’. Therefore, lines 3 to 8 in (1) are classified under the subcategory of phonological LREs, which falls into the category of grammar-based LREs. English translations are provided in the parentheses.

(1) **1 Student O: ‘Nante kaita?’ [Did you catch any words?]**

2 Student T: It’s time find out food reading.

3 Student O: To the read?

4 Student T: To the read?

5 Student O: It’s times finder? Find?

6 Student T: Find out, kana? [I think, “find out?]

7 Student O: Find out to?

8 Student T: …..Kana? To? [I don’t think so. To?]

In addition, LRE resolutions through negotiation were also compared between the CMC and FTF groups. The number of turns of conversational exchanges that included LREs was calculated by adding up the cases in which the language problems were correctly resolved via learner-learner interaction. It is an important construct to identify LRE resolutions in which negotiations that will evoke noticing the gap and mismatch and self-repair even among learners of the same level are reported, since this may demonstrate that language learning is happening (Loewen, 2014).

An example of a correctly resolved grammar-based LRE is provided in (2). Student M suggested that the sentence did not make sense since it was not a question form. Then, Student I agreed and Student E also accepted by confirming that the sentence should end with a question mark, which shows a correct resolution because they all noticed that the sentence had to be a question form. Lines 1 to 5 in (2) fall under syntactic LREs, a subcategory of grammar-based LREs.

(2) 1 Student M: …came back to, korede owari? […came back to, that's it?]

2 Student E: Wakan nai, kore damejanai? [I don't know. This is wrong, isn't it?]

3 Student M: Kore gimon ni nattenai [This is not a question form]

4 Student I: Hontoda tashikani. [Right, for sure.]

5 Student E: Saigo 'question mark' ni natteru, gimon desho? [There's a question mark at the end, it should be a question form, shouldn't it?]

The coding process was undertaken by identifying the number of turns, which were first coded as grammar-based or meaning-based LREs, after which grammar-based LREs were subcategorized as phonological LREs, morphological LREs, syntactic LREs, lexical LREs, spelling, articles, adverbs, or auxiliaries. The coding by three researchers, who studied second language acquisition in the same graduate school as the researcher did, resulted in an agreement of 82.2% (Chronbach's alpha = .822). The numbers of LREs in each category were statistically analyzed using Pearson's chi-square to compare the computer-mediated communication group with the face-to-face group.

4.3 Results

The first research question asked whether CMC and FTF communication through dictogloss have different impacts on the development of phrasal verbs, as seen in the written test scores. The data obtained from the scores on pre- and post-tests using true or false questions are shown in Figure 4.1. The average score on the pre-test in the FTF group was 67.14 (SD = 11.0); for the CMC group it was 70.0 (SD = 14.81). That on the post-test in the FTF group was 72.86 (SD = 13.54), while that for the CMC group was 65.25 (SD = 15.19), which indicate that there was little difference between the two groups. From the graph, we can see that the FTF group slightly increased their scores in the post-test, whereas the scores of the CMC group fell. However, both achievement slopes are almost identical and no statistical significance was found either within the groups, F (1, 20) = 3.09, p = .94, or between them, F (1, 20) = .217, p = .647.

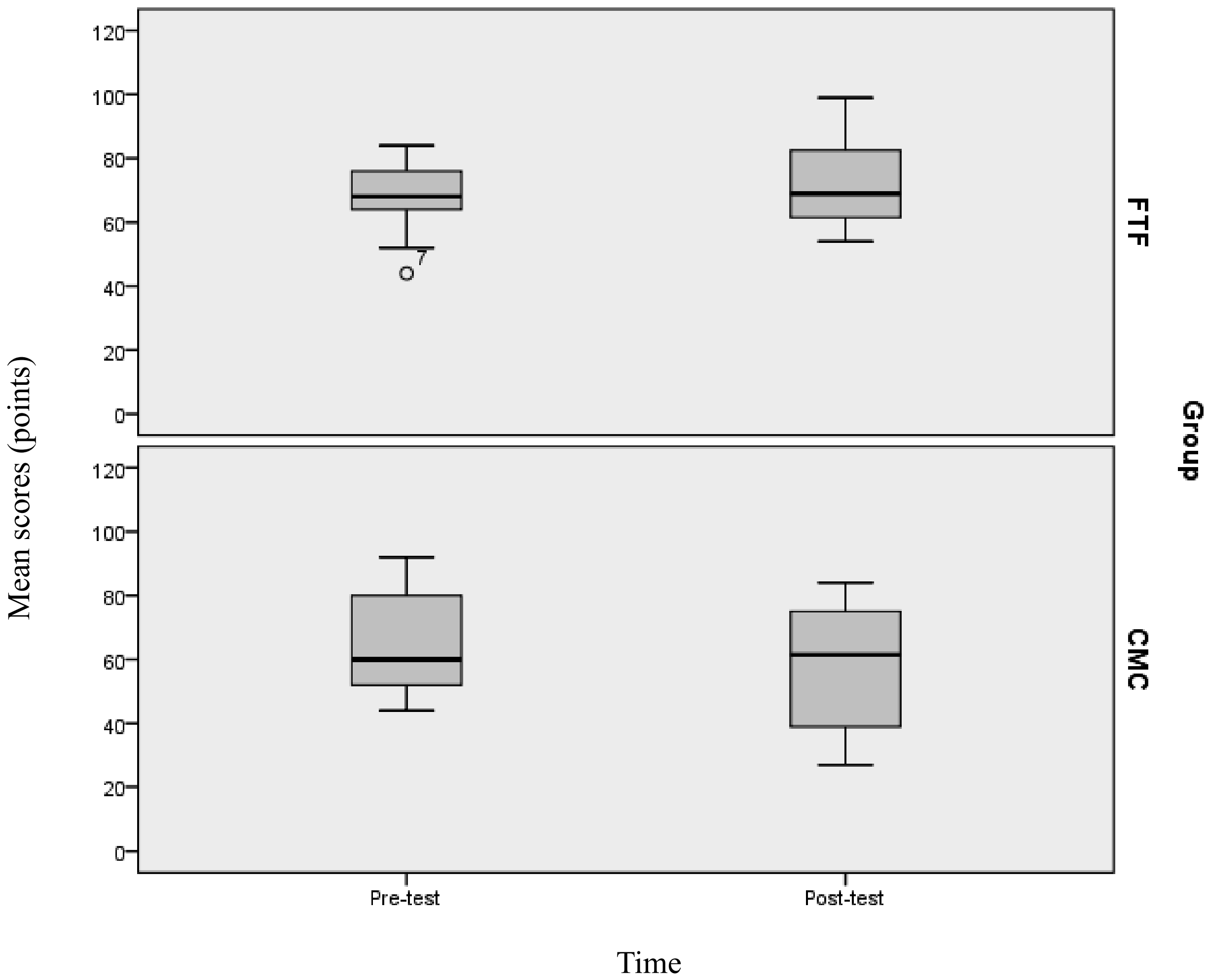

Figure 4.1 The changes in scores between the written pre-test and post-test in the face-to-face and computer-mediated communication groups (Standard error ± 1).

The second research question investigated whether CMC and FTF communication in dictogloss tasks have different impacts on learners' attention to form and meaning. Table 4.1 shows the frequency of turns in which form was negotiated in the CMC and the FTF groups. The frequency of LREs in each category was expressed as the percentage of the total number of LREs.

Table 4.1

Comparison of the Amount and Type of LREs in a Computer-Mediated Communication Group and in a Face-to-Face Group

Category of LREs	CMC Total LREs = 313	FTF Total LREs = 157
Grammar-based LREs	104 (33%)	98 (62%)
Phonological LREs	17 (5.0%)	29 (18.4%)
Morphological LREs	1 (0.3%)	1 (0.6%)
Syntactic LREs	3 (0.9%)	10 (6.3%)
Lexical LREs	39 (12.5%)	42 (26.7%)
Spelling	9 (2.8%)	0
Articles	2 (0.6%)	5 (3.1%)
Adverbs	23 (7.3%)	8 (5.1%)
Auxiliaries	10 (3.1%)	3 (1.9%)
Meaning-based LREs	209 (67%)	59 (38%)

Note. The frequency of each grammatical category of language-related episodes is calculated as the percentage (%) of the total number of speech turns (CMC = 313; FTF = 157)

Table 4.1 shows the amount and type of LREs produced in the CMC and FTF groups. The percentage of LREs is provided to account for the unequal number of productions recorded in each group. The numbers in the parentheses show the percentage. The findings demonstrate a clear contrast between the CMC and the FTF groups in terms of grammar-based LREs and meaning-based LREs. The grammar-based LREs observed in the FTF group were almost double those in the CMC group, whereas meaning-based LREs were found in the CMC group at almost double the frequency of that in the FTF group. The number of turns paying attention to form and to meaning in the CMC and FTF groups were submitted to chi-square analysis, which showed that there was a significant difference between grammar-based LREs and meaning-based LREs in the CMC group and the FTF group (χ^2 (1) = 4.62, p = .002). Although no significant difference was found between subcategorized grammar-based LREs in the CMC (χ^2 (7) = 3.93, p = .11), a significant difference was found in the FTF groups (χ^2 (7) = 1.71, p = .02), indicating that lexical LREs and phonological LREs were exclusively negotiated in the FTF group.

Lastly, the third research question asked whether CMC and FTF communication had any different impacts on the ways in which learners negotiated language problems. Table 4.2 shows the number of total turns in conversational exchanges which included LREs, as well as that of LREs that were correctly resolved through learner-learner negotiations. Each part of the cross-section in Table 4.2 is labeled: the total number of turns, LREs, and LRE resolutions are given for the CMC group in the upper row and for the FTF group in the lower row. The frequency of LREs and of LRE resolutions was calculated as a percentage of the total exchanges for each group due to the unequal number of turns elicited between the CMC (484) and FTF (164) groups. The ratio of LREs in the CMC group amounted to 64.6%, whereas it was 95.7% in the FTF group. It seems that the CMC group focused less on LREs than the FTF group. However, the explanation for this may be that the CMC group had to take more time to confirm meaning negotiation through headsets without being able to use non-verbal communication. On the other hand, the FTF group was able to communicate using quick eye contacts, gestures, paper sharing and other behaviors (e.g., pointing), which may have helped them to reduce verbal communication irrelevant to task completion.

The number of LRE resolutions, in which learners negotiated language problems they encountered and solved them successfully, is shown in the right-hand column. In spite of the different total frequency of utterances in each group, the rate of efforts to solve language problems is calculated to be similar in the CMC and FTF groups (CMC: 25% FTF: 28%).

Table 4.2
Number of Turns which Produced Language-Related Episodes and Their Resolutions in Dictogloss Tasks in Computer-Mediated Communication and Face-to-Face Groups

Group	TTS	LREs		LRE resolutions	
CMC	484	313	(64.3%)	79	(25.2%)
FTF	164	157	(95.7%)	44	(28.0%)

Note. TTS = The total number of turns of speech. LREs are shown as the percentage of the total turns of speech. LRE resolutions = language-related episodes which were correctly solved, which are shown as the percentage of the total turns of speech. The raw numbers are shown in parentheses in each case.

4.4 Discussion

Development of phrasal verbs

Concerning the first research question of whether or not the means of communication (CMC and FTF) used for collaborative tasks have different impacts on the learning of phrasal verbs, the findings showed no significant difference either between the pre- and post-test scores or between the groups. The results were in line with those from a previous study (Lee, 2010), which was conducted with ESL learners on the acquisition of L2 new lexical items. In addition, the results match those observed in Ziegler's meta-analysis research (2013), which revealed no significant difference between the two means of communication on the development of learners' oral and written skills, or on that of productive and receptive skills. However, her study did not discuss any development of phrasal verbs.

The initial expectation was that the different means of communication might influence the ways of interaction and the development of the target form when an opportunity presented itself. In particular, it was assumed that the learners in the CMC group would be exceptionally sensitive to the visual mode of technology, as it has been suggested that a particular visual mode may facilitate learners' attention (Lamy, 2012). However, the findings did not show a particula difference between pen-and-paper materials and the use of a colourful visual mode (i.e. Wordle) which was shown to the learners of the CMC group on the screen every lesson.

It might, however, have been difficult to examine L2 learning focusing on phrasal verbs in a relatively short term (less than 300 minutes over six weeks), and a longer period may be needed for investigation in order to give learners ample exposure, as it has been suggested by previous studies that phrasal verbs are formidably difficult for EFL learners because of L1 influence, leading to their avoidance or underuse (Laufer & Eliasson, 1993) and language transfer (Hulstijn & Marchena, 1989; Liao & Fukuya, 2004). In fact, there was evidence that phrasal verbs consisting of a verb followed by an adverb were rarely negotiated or paid attention to by learners across the groups, regardless of the input provided by a visual explanation of the role of the adverb (e.g. *out, in*) attached to the verb portion of a phrasal verb before doing the task. It may be argued that more explicit explanation and automatic memorization of phrasal verbs are necessary for EFL learners, who lack abundant input and exposure to contexts in which phrasal verbs are often used on a daily basis. These results may be attributable to the ways in which the development of linguistic ability in the area of phrasal verbs was tested. It was challenging to draw a conclusion by evaluating L2 learning through true or false judgment questions, which carried a risk of 50 %. Adding other measures such as an oral performance test would have been worthwhile. A future investigation of the acquisition of phrasal verbs by Japanese learners would be helpful, with more focus on L1 transfer (Hulstijn & Marchena, 1989; Liao & Fukuya, 2004) and also on avoidance or underuse (Laufer & Eliasson, 1993).

Nevertheless, the findings point to the result that the different means of communication used for dictogloss had little impact on L2 learning.

CMC and FTF: Differences in attention to form and meaning

With regard to the third research question about the impact on learners' attention to particular types of form and meaning, the findings showed that the FTF group negotiated grammar-based LREs rather than meaning-based LREs, which means that they spent less time on negotiation for meaning, whereas meaning-based LREs were more often negotiated in the CMC group. It can be suggested that the CMC group, who relied solely on verbal communication via headsets, had to produce negotiation for meaning in order to confirm their communication more often than the FTF group. In addition, it seems that the CMC group did not necessarily pay attention to phonological features, and their focus may have been less strong while they were wearing the headsets. The evidence from the transcripts showed that most of the phonological LREs in the CMC group concerned the adverb portion of phrasal verbs, such as '*out*' and '*on*'. The explanation for this may be that the CMC group could hear more clearly owing to the elimination of the surrounding noise by the headsets and could focus on more detailed segments of the words than the FTF group. However, it could be further debated whether or not this technology, which restricts the use of the five physical senses for communication, could be beneficial for developing verbal communication, just like the benefits of using telephone calls in L2 practice. More robust research will be needed on the influences of this technology.

Among the types of form, both groups paid attention to lexical problems more often than to other forms (CMC:12.5%, FTF:26.7%). It is understandable that students with a low level of proficiency tended to pay attention to lexical meaning first in communicative dialogues. The findings also confirmed the similarity between both groups in terms of the low frequency of morphological LREs (CMC: 0.3%, FTF: 0.6%). It can be hypothesized that the lack of attention to morphology in both groups may have resulted from the well-known morpheme difficulty shown in acquisition order (Larsen-Freeman, 1976).

Overall, the findings did not show any reduction of effectiveness when using CMC for collaborative tasks, which seems to be consistent with the results of previous studies (Lee, 2010; Ziegler, 2013), although these findings differ from some studies of exclusively text-based CMC which showed some benefits of this means of communication because of the visual display of text (Blake, 2000; 2007; Fischer, 2012; Chun & Yong, 2006; Lai et al., 2008; Lee, 2010; Pellettieri, 2000, Sauro, 2013; Shekary & Tahririan, 2006).

CMC and FTF: LRE resolutions

As for the number of LRE resolutions, what is interesting is that regardless of a gap between the amount of attention to LREs in the CMC (64.3%) and FTF (95.7%) groups, there was not much difference between both groups in terms of LRE resolutions (CMC: 25%, FTF:28%). These results are obviously related to the similar English proficiency level in both groups. In ly enough, these figures were close to the ratio shown in Cho's (2013) study (22% of the negotiation routines as modified interactions in CMC). Cho (2013) investigated the negotiation in terms of quantity and quality in synchronous CMC and the effect of task types, and showed that, regardless of the small number of examples (11%) of negotiation routines, 22% of them were identified as modified interactions. Not surprisingly, the findings are consistent with those of Lesser's (2004) study which found that the lower proficiency learners had significantly fewer opportunities to attend to form and correctly resolve their LREs. This is also in line with the findings from FTF settings (Kim & McDonough, 2008; William, 1999) which revealed that less focus on form occurred in peer interactions among low proficiency learners. These findings may help us to understand that 25% is the ideal ratio of form-focused activities in a whole meaning-focused lesson (Nation & Newton, 2009). However, further research into L2 learner interaction among lower proficiency or mixed-proficiency pairs which focuses more on the possible effects of the learner's perception of their partner's proficiency in addition to the learner's actual proficiency (Philp et al., 2013) is called for.

4.5 Limitations

Finally, there were inevitable limitations on this classroom research in that there were technical operational constraints over which the researchers did not have complete control. Besides, questions remain about the extent to which the findings are related to L2 acquisition. As for more focus on L2 development in terms of phrasal verbs, providing slightly more explicit instruction to draw learners' attention might have been required for students at an elementary level of proficiency. The findings may help us to understand what was happening in the process of L2 learning through interaction with different means of communication; however, due to the small sample size and a lack of power (η^2 = .011) for the analysis, further work is required to establish this. In addition, further studies with more focus on determining the effects of multiple modes via technology and interaction on L2 learning among mixed ability learners are suggested.

4.6 Conclusions

The study investigated the effects of means of communication (CMC versus FTF) on the development of phrasal verbs through a dictogloss task. The findings revealed that there was no significant difference between CMC and FTF communication in terms of the development of phrasal verbs. The results are likely to be related to previous studies showing the difficulty of acquisition of phrasal verbs, although more robust research into the acquisition of phrasal verbs by Japanese students is called for.

Additionally, learner-learner interactions through dictogloss based on LREs revealed that the FTF group appeared to focus on negotiation for form, unlike the CMC group, whose members needed more negotiation for meaning to verbally confirm what they heard from each other and avoid conversation breakdown, since their only resource was listening via headsets.

Also, regardless of the difference between CMC and FTF in terms of the amount of negotiation for meaning and form, their ratios of LRE resolutions were similar. The question about whether the overall low degree of negotiation of forms shown in LREs is enough to permit consideration of the association with L2 acquisition remains unanswered. Further studies which take this into account will be needed to be undertaken in order to clarify this.

Overall, the different means of communication did not significantly affect learner-learner negotiations during a collaborative task in the process of learning phrasal verbs in this study. Next chapter focuses on FTF settings in which other variables around tasks are to be examined.

CHAPTER FIVE

Effects of Teacher Questions and Task Types on the Development of Question Forms

5.1 Introduction

In the previous study, we looked at whether or not a difference in the means of communication affects the way students negotiate for L2 learning, since it is of interest to know whether such task performance in face-to-face (FTF) settings is the same as the performance in computer-mediated communication (CMC). The results suggested that no difference was found other than in the amount of time given to negotiation of form and meaning and attention to phonological form. The study in this chapter focuses more specifically on FTF classrooms, in which both teacher-led and learner-learner interactions regularly take place. The aim of the study is to examine the effects of different types of more meaning-focused tasks on how students perform using L2 in terms of accuracy, fluency, and complexity. Two main variables are examined: the role of teacher questions in teacher-led interactions, and the types of task (Picture Differences and Personal Information Gap) in learner-learner interactions which may affect how learners perform such tasks (Samuda, 2009).

In the classroom, teachers ask many questions with which they manage the class, making decisions about which aspects of the language will be targeted through activities (Samuda & Bygate, 2008) or encouraging students to develop communication. In fact, teachers mainly use questions intended to check students' L2 knowledge (display questions) rather than those which ask for L2 learners' creative responses (referential questions). This suggests that teachers tend to emphasize the form of language (accuracy) over meaning for communication (Long & Sato, 1983; White & Lightbown, 1984). Obviously, this is different from the way we interact in real life communication and in meaning-focused task-based learning. Therefore, it is hypothesized that if a teacher asks more referential questions, which ask about topics familiar to the students or about their experiences, this may affect students' performance in terms of demonstration of fluency (Nation & Newton, 2009), accuracy, and complexity. On the other hand, a question arises about whether or not form-focused display questions, which require knowledge to put words and sentences together, may help students to demonstrate accuracy during task performance. However, little is known about the link between the questions used by the teacher and L2 acquisition (Ellis, 2012), even though students' L2 performance, in particular, that of students with a low level of English proficiency in EFL classrooms, can be affected by the language the teacher uses.

In the meantime, two distinct task types with different degrees of familiarity will be examined, as they may impact learners' performance as well. One of the tasks is provided to encourage learners to engage in a competition where they have no familiarity with the topic;

another task is to prompt students to talk about themselves, which is considered to facilitate fluency due to the topic familiarity (Skehan & Foster, 1996), in the form of an interview. Accordingly, the research investigates referential and display questions and task types, addressing the following research questions:

1. Does the type of teacher question (referential or display) affect the amount of students' responses to the questions?
2. Which type of teacher question facilitates students in producing accurate question forms in written tests?
3. Which type of teacher question facilitates students in using accurate question forms in oral tests?
4. Do referential and display question have different effects on students' task performance (complexity, accuracy, fluency) in each of the two tasks (Picture Difference, Personal Information Exchange)?
5. Does the type of task make a difference to students' performance in terms of complexity, accuracy, and fluency?

5.2 Method

5.2.1 Participants

Participants were junior high school students (n = 23-25, 7 male, 16-18 female) aged 13-15, studying at a music college in Tokyo. They had studied English for less than three years, with 3.3 hours of classes (including a 50-minute class taught by a native speaker of English) per week. The students studied regular academic subjects in addition to daily music lessons and practice. Many of the students had not learned written English before the start of the junior high school curriculum at the age of 13, and their English proficiency was at a beginner level. The experiment was conducted over six months and two sessions (spring and autumn sessions, with a summer vacation in between). The participants in the two classes were compared and categorized as Display Group spring (n = 11) and Referential Group spring (n = 12) in the spring session, and as Referential Group autumn (n = 12) and Display group autumn (n = 13) in the autumn session. For educational and ethical reasons, Display Group spring became Referential Group autumn, and Referential Group spring became Display Group autumn; that is to say, the approaches were switched over for the two groups. The two groups in this experiment were in different school grades; however, no statistically significant pre-test mean difference was observed between the groups (t (21) = .42, p = .68), which were both identified as being English learners at a beginner level. From the written pre-tests, it could be seen that most students had difficulty in forming correct *do*-fronting and *wh*-questions in terms of inversion, and some students still tended to mix the be-verb and the do-verb in creating question forms and answers.

5.2.2 Materials

Teacher questions

From the perspective of communicative value, two types of question (referential and display questions) were used, based on Long and Sato's (1984) taxonomy of teacher questions. The referential questions used, defined as questions intended to require students to use imagination and creativity (Ellis, 2012), focused on contextual information, for instance 'Where are you going on holiday this vacation?' or "How was the concert last weekend?" Throughout the study, referential questions were used to ask one group mainly about their personal lives in order to elicit extensive and creative response from the students. On the other hand, display questions, defined as questions in the knowledge category which check comprehension (Bloom et al., 1984) of language and grammar items (e.g. recalling information and identification, remembering, paraphrasing, describing in one's own words, translating from one medium to another), were mainly used to elicit the reproduction of content and descriptions of the story in the textbook from which the students were learning, such as "What is apple bobbing at Halloween?" and "What is Aya going to do in Obihiro?"

Tasks

Data collection was carried out using two tasks[9], Picture Differences and Personal Information Exchange, both of which required L2 production, yet treated different topics, and were also different in terms of student familiarity with the two task formats.

Picture Differences (Spot the Differences). The task requires L2 learners to compare two quite similar pictures and to spot the differences by asking for missing information which another pair or group has. Samples of pictures used in the spring session are shown in Appendices E, F, G [10] and those used in the autumn session are shown in Appendices, H, I, J. This task is helpful for learners to improve their production of questions, and studies have shown that various question forms can be effectively targeted (Mackey, 1999; McDonough & Mackey, 2000). The task was conducted as a race between two teams in the class, so the form was assumed to have been familiar to learners, who commonly played similar games. The participants had rehearsal time in order to prepare their questions so that they could avoid one-word communication.

[9] Prior to the two tasks, the participants, who were beginner-level EFL learners and were not very accustomed to interactive tasks using L2 in the classroom, were given a task (dictogloss) using L1, as it was considered desirable to have them get used to interactive tasks beforehand. (Appendix D)

[10] A *Go for it!* (2004), published by Heinle ELT.

Personal Information Exchange. This one-way information gap task requires learners to ask their partners to talk about their personal experiences and share their stories. Personal Information Exchange is valuable because the task gives learners a chance to speak in a more personalized way, which we often do in real life (Willis & Willis, 2006). In this regard, the topic of the task should be less demanding in terms of cognitive effort, since it is very familiar to the learners based on their own experiences. The participants, who had a beginner level of English proficiency, were divided into small groups and were asked to report on the outcome to the whole class after carrying out individual interviews in each group. Questions included "What's good about you?" (Appendix K), "Tell me about your past when you were zero to five years old." (Appendix L), "How did you get it?" (Appendix M), and "Make believe" (Appendices N, O, P).

A clear distinction between the two information-gap tasks is that the Picture Differences in the current study were not necessarily relevant to students' experiences. However, given that learners drew the pictures based on their experiences, we will consider this to be a personalized task since it became close to real life. It is strongly assumed that if the topic of the task is already sufficiently familiar to the learners, it may influence fluency. Similarly, if the task procedure is well-known and familiar to the learner, such as taking the form of a race or a game between teams, this may help participants demonstrate fluency. The differences are shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1
Distinction Between the Two Information-Gap Tasks

Task types	Picture Differences (PD)	Personal Information Exchange (PIE)
Topic	Not familiar	Familiar
Information gap type	Two-way ('guess-the-answer')	One-way ('interview')

5.3.3 Procedure

The time flow of procedures is illustrated in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2
Time Flow of Procedures

Procedure
1. Written pre-test
2. Experiment in spring session
3. Written-post-test / Oral test 1
Summer vacation
4. Experiment in autumn session
5. Written delayed post-test / Oral test 2
6. Oral test 3
7. Retrospective questionnaires

1. Written tests (See Table 5.2, procedures 1, 3, 5)

The process of data collection is shown in Table 5.2. The first step was to conduct a written grammar pre-test (matching and reordering question forms, with 30 items in total) to verify the homogeneity of the two groups. This took place a day before the beginning of the experiment. Written post-test (a week after the experiment in the spring session) and post-test 2 (after the experiment in the autumn session) were carried out. (Appendix S) The latter test was originally intended to be given before the experiment in the autumn session; however, this plan was revised because it was considered desirable to avoid repeating the same type of written test with the same students so often. The participants were not informed beforehand about the purpose of the experiment, since it was conducted as a part of their usual lessons; instead, they were informed that all activities in the tests, which were not covered in the textbook, would be beneficial for their L2 learning.

2. Experiment in spring and autumn sessions (See Table 5.2, procedures 2, 4)

The process of each lesson (50 minutes) started with teacher questions, which were asked to the students one by one (approx. seven to eight minutes) by the researcher (author). Throughout 3-4 weeks, the Display Group received display questions from the teacher and the Referential Group received referential questions. The task order was also switched between the two groups in the spring and autumn sessions. In this way, they were provided with equal opportunities for instruction, bearing in mind educational and ethical issues. One type of task was repeated three times with different contents during the course of a week, taking 7.5 hours in total, and the other two tasks followed. The procedure in the autumn session was carried out in the same manner but with a reversed design.

There are arguments about variables in task implementation; for example, a number of studies of task planning have explored its relation to task preparedness, and readiness (Bui, H.Y.G, 2014; Ellis, 2009; Wang, 2009; Bygate, 2001), and whether or not giving planning time is associated with a focus on form or on content (e.g., Ellis, 2005; Wang, 2014). In fact, some studies have showed that repetition of a specific task is considered valuable in the progression of associating form with meaning and in increasing fluency and complexity (Bygate, 1996; Bygate & Samuda, 2005; Lynch & Maclean, 2001). However, considering that the participants in the current study were beginner-level EFL learners, other factors such as repetition and pre-planning were controlled and kept identical in this study, since past studies have revealed that personal tasks which are less cognitively demanding are not greatly influenced by the presence or absence of planning time (Foster & Skehan, 1996; Skehan & Foster; Skehan, 2001).

3. *Oral tests (See Table 5.2, procedures 3, 5, 6)*

The first oral test was undertaken right after the first experimental session (oral test 1), and the same test task was conducted about five months later, right after the second experimental session (oral test 2), followed by the delayed post-test (oral test 3). (Appendix K)

The test was conducted as follows. First, the teacher provided a sheet entitled ‘All about me’, on which each participant filled in the blanks to describe things that he or she liked, for example (e.g., ‘music I like the best: ---’, ‘food I don’t like: -----’ ‘My favorite color: ----’). Next, the teacher collected the sheets and had the students ask questions one by one to guess the name of the student who was being described on the sheet of paper the teacher held in her hand. At the same time, the teacher answered a student’s question only when the question form was syntactically and morphologically correct. The test task took 17 to 20 minutes.

4. Retrospective questionnaires (See Table 5.2, procedure 7)

Additionally, a retrospective questionnaire was given to the participants at the end of the whole experiment in order to provide supplementary data which could give valuable insights into the learners’ perceptions of the tasks. The questionnaire asked:

1) Which activity was most interesting?
2) Which activity was least interesting?
3) Which activity was most helpful for English learning?
4) Which activities would you like to try again?

5.2.4 Analysis

Based on a written grammar test which focused on question forms plus dummy questions (30 questions), data for analysis were collected in each of the following phases.

1. Written and oral tests

The scores on the written grammar test (pre-, post-test, delayed post-test) were calculated (30 points max) and analyzed using repeated measurements of analysis of variance (ANOVA). Moreover, three oral post-test tasks were all audio-recorded and the data were transcribed in order to calculate the correctness of the syntactical structures of question forms. They were measured as follows: the number of error-free AS-units (one main clause plus all subordinate clauses) divided by the total number of independent clause units (Foster & Skehan, 1996). In the same way as for the written tests, group comparisons and within-group effects were analyzed using ANOVA.

2. Teacher questions and responses

All oral data of the questions and each student's responses were audio-recorded and transcribed for each group. The number of words and correct sentences the participants produced in their responses were calculated. The number of sentences produced (subject +

verb, subject + verb + object /complement) was identified from the transcripts and a calculation was made for each group for analysis (Chi-squared test). The number of words produced by each student in each group and the total amount of time taken for teacher questions were also calculated and recorded.

3. Students' oral task performance

The participants' task performances were all transcribed and coded according to the definitions of complexity, accuracy, and fluency (CAF). The figures for CAF were calculated for each participant, and the group totals for each task and each performance were also calculated; these were all statistically analyzed by ANOVA. The definition and coding process of CAF were conducted in the following manner.

Because of the beginner level of the learners, it was difficult to collect data on some aspects of language since their total number of utterances was small. Instead, since lexical richness also can be an index of lexical complexity, as was suggested by Robinson (1995), this study measured complexity by the Type-Token Ratio, which is the total number of different words divided by the total number of words in the tokens. Then the Type-Token Ratios based on the total utterances of each participant were subjected to analysis by groups. This measurement seemed to be suitable for indicating the lexical complexity of low-level learners who were not able to produce long texts; however, it is considered that "the closer the type-token ratio is to one the greater the lexical richness" (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p. 155), and the drawback of the Type-Token Ratio is that it has been suggested that "it is easier to obtain a high type-token ratio in a short text than in a long one" (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p. 155). Nevertheless, considering that the task was not a narrative task which would allow learners to produce utterances relatively freely and that beginner-level learners produced a limited volume of utterances, this claim does not seem to compromise the effectiveness of the current study, which seeks primarily to know the range of words which each given task permitted the students to use.

Similarly, each participant's accuracy was calculated by dividing the number of error-free AS-units (a single speaker's utterance consisting of an independent clause or sub-clausal unit) by the total number of independent clauses or sub-clausal units (Foster & Skehan, 1996). Errors related to morphology and syntactical structures were included, but not those related to pragmatics (whether or not a word is appropriate to the context). For example, of the phrase "What did you do when you were…" counts as two AS-units and "he have socks" counts as one; however, the latter utterance is considered to have no error-free clause due to the morphological error in the use of 'have'.

Fluency was measured by the aggregate of clauses without repetitions or reformulations. Repetitions refer to words, phrases, or clauses that are repeated without any correction; reformulations include phrases or clauses which are repeated with some correction (Skehan & Foster, 1999). Repairs or modifications can be an index to measure fluency, which Skehan (1998) found to correspond to hesitation phenomena, rather than breakdown fluency, which measures pause length and speech rate. It would be normal to combine the measurement of these two aspects of spoken production (speed and hesitation phenomena); however, the reason why the current study examined only hesitation phenomena is that there seemed be little advantage in identifying pauses as a sign of dysfluency given the beginner level of learners[11]. The participants were in fact dysfluent, so it was more reasonable to measure repetitions and reformulations in their utterances. Besides, considering the nature of interactional conversations needed to complete the task, students tended to pause to think about what and how to say something, so there seemed little point in measuring a pause as a sign of dysfluency, unlike for a task using a narrative form. The current study examined repair fluency, including reformulations, repetitions, and false starts, and fluency was identified only for clauses but not for phrases of one or two words such as ‘yes’, ‘no’, ‘okay’, ‘no problem’. For example, “What will you do in the…in your twenties?” consists of one AS-unit with repetition or reformulation, which is considered to be dysfluency.

The coding process was conducted twice by the same researcher before the statistical analysis; in addition, the coding of 10% of the results carried out by two others as a double-check resulted in agreement of 94.8% (Cohen’s alpha = .948) for accuracy and 96.2% (Cohen’s alpha =.962) for fluency. As for complexity, the 10% coded by a second researcher and Coh-Metrix 3.0[12] resulted in an agreement of 97.8% (Cohen’s alpha = .978).

[11] In fact, the average number of words produced in response to teacher questions was around six words per minute (see result 1).
[12] Coh-Metrix is a computational tool that produces indices of the linguistic and discourse representations of a text. http://cohmetrix.com/documentation_indices.html

5.3 Results

The length of responses to teacher questions

The first research question asked whether or not the difference between types of teacher question (referential or display) affected students' responses in terms of the length and number of words. The initial hypothesis was that meaning-based referential questions might help students to produce more words, given that the students were involved in quasi real-life communication. Table 5.3 shows the total numbers of main clauses (subject + verb) and words produced by the students in the Display Group and the Referential Group across the spring and autumn sessions. The total time spent on teacher questions is also indicated for reference in Table 5.3 below.

Table 5.3.
Number of Main Clauses and Words Produced During Teacher-led Question Time

	Referential questions	Display questions
Number of main clauses (Subject + verb)	16	25
Number of words in response	518 words	448 words
Total dialogue time	86.8 minutes	81.9 minutes

Both groups produced very few words in response to teacher questions. Despite the nearly equal amount of teacher-learner interaction time (approximately seven minutes in each lesson) allocated for both groups, the total number of words produced in response is seen to be lower for the Display Group than for the Referential Group. However, no significant difference was found between the Referential and Display group in producing sentences and words, χ^2 (1) = 3.365, p = .665 The data of audio-transcription from the Referential Group shows, for example, that when the teacher asked "What did you have for breakfast this morning?" a student answered "*Pan*,….bread". Similarly, "What time did you go to bed last night?" elicited the response "Twelve thirty," while "Have you prepared for the test?" was answered with "Not yet." On the contrary, questions based on the content of the textbook conducted in the Display Group, for example, "Does Lucy like *haiku*?" produced answers such as "Yes, yes she does." Some other sets of questions and responses were "Where is *Aya* going to visit this summer?" – "She is going to grand…visit grandmother in *Obihiro*"; "What happened in Springfield?" – "Tornado has hit"; "What's special about *ramen*?" – "Butter and corn", and so on. It seems that students in the Referential Group tended to respond with one or two words, whereas students in the Display Group took time to remind themselves of the content of the textbook and rephrase the sentences they had learned, which was different from natural communication.

Development in written tests

The second research question examined which types of teacher question facilitate students in producing accurate question forms in written tests. The average score on the pre-test, which was conducted at the beginning of the spring session, was 9.0 (SD = 6.412) for the Display Group, and 9.50 (SD = 7.489) for the Referential Group. Likewise, the average score on post-test, which was conducted right after the spring experiment, was 7.4 (SD = 6.18) for the Display Group, and 10.67 (SD = 6.286) for the Referential Group. In delayed post-test, given at the end of the autumn experiment, students in the Display Group scored an average of 11.8 (SD = 7.146), while those in the Referential Group scored an average of 12.50 (SD = 5.729). However, statistical analysis[13] showed that there was no significant difference either within the groups, F (1, 2) = 1.279, p = .289 or between the groups, F (1, 20) = .333, p = .571.

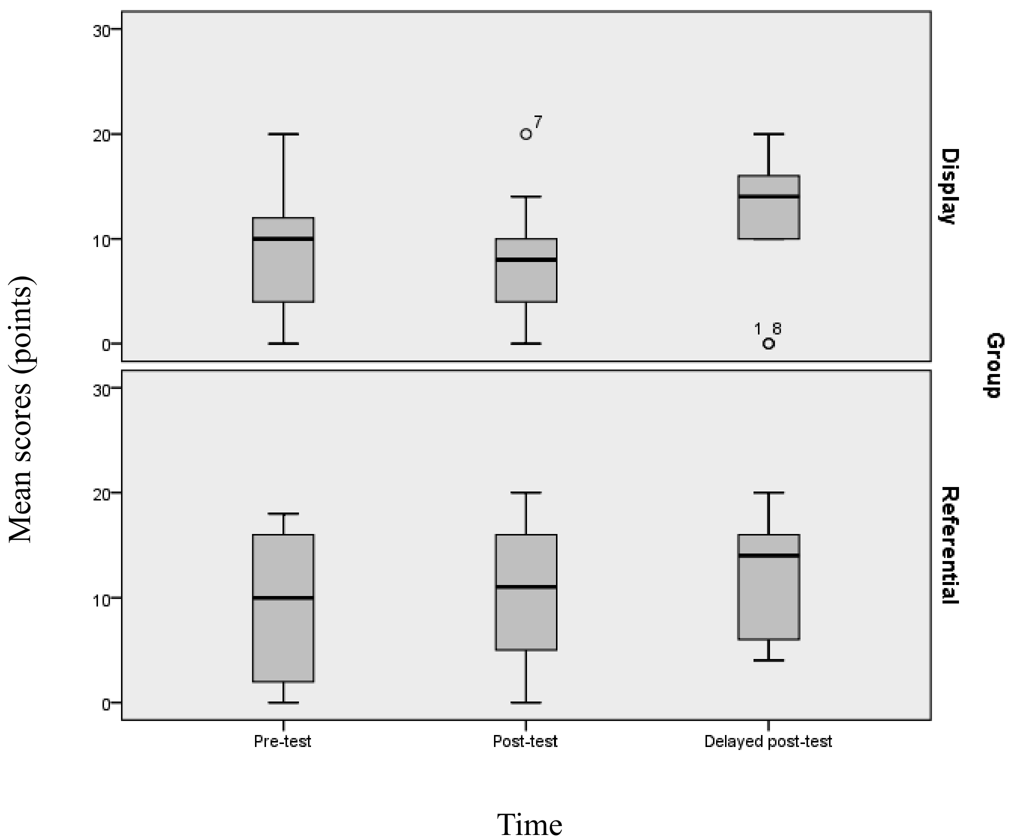

Figure 5.1 A comparison of the number of correct question forms for the Referential and Display Groups in written tests (Standard error ±1).

[13] Further analysis was conducted using ANCOVA with scores of the pre-test as covariance; no significant difference was found within groups (F (1, 18) = 1.37, p = .265 or between groups (F (1, 18) = .878, p = .361.

Figure 5.1. shows the chronological changes between the results of the written pre- and post-tests and delayed post-test throughout the spring and autumn sessions. The vertical axis shows the scores on the tests: the more accurate, the higher the score. The gap between the groups increased after the pre-test in the spring session; the students who were asked referential questions only improved moderately. However, both groups ended up almost intersecting at the end of the experiment, just as they had at the starting point. The decline in the average score of the Display Group can perhaps be explained by the fact that their test in the spring session was conducted during the last period of the day (the sixth period, right after P.E. class), in July, and it was observed that many participants concentrated less on the in-class test due to a lack of motivation caused by the hot weather. However, the analysis revealed that the type of teacher question did not affect students' scores on written tests of question forms.

Development in oral tests

As for the third research question, the performance value for accuracy (Foster & Skehan, 1996), which was measured by dividing the number of error-free AS-units, was analyzed. The average performance value (accuracy) on post-test 1, which was conducted at the end of the spring experiment, was .603 (SD = .324) for the Display Group, and .579 (SD = .295) for the Referential Group. Similarly, the average performance score on post-test 2, which was conducted after the autumn experiment, was .444 (SD = .329) for the Display

Group, and .586 (SD = .351) for the Referential Group. In post-test 3, one month after the experiment had concluded, students in the Display Group scored .499 (SD = .230) on average, while those in the Referential Group scored .581 (SD = .273). Again, statistical analysis showed that there was

no significant difference either within the groups, F (1, 2) = .477, p = .534 or between the groups, F (1, 20) = .643, p = .432.[14]

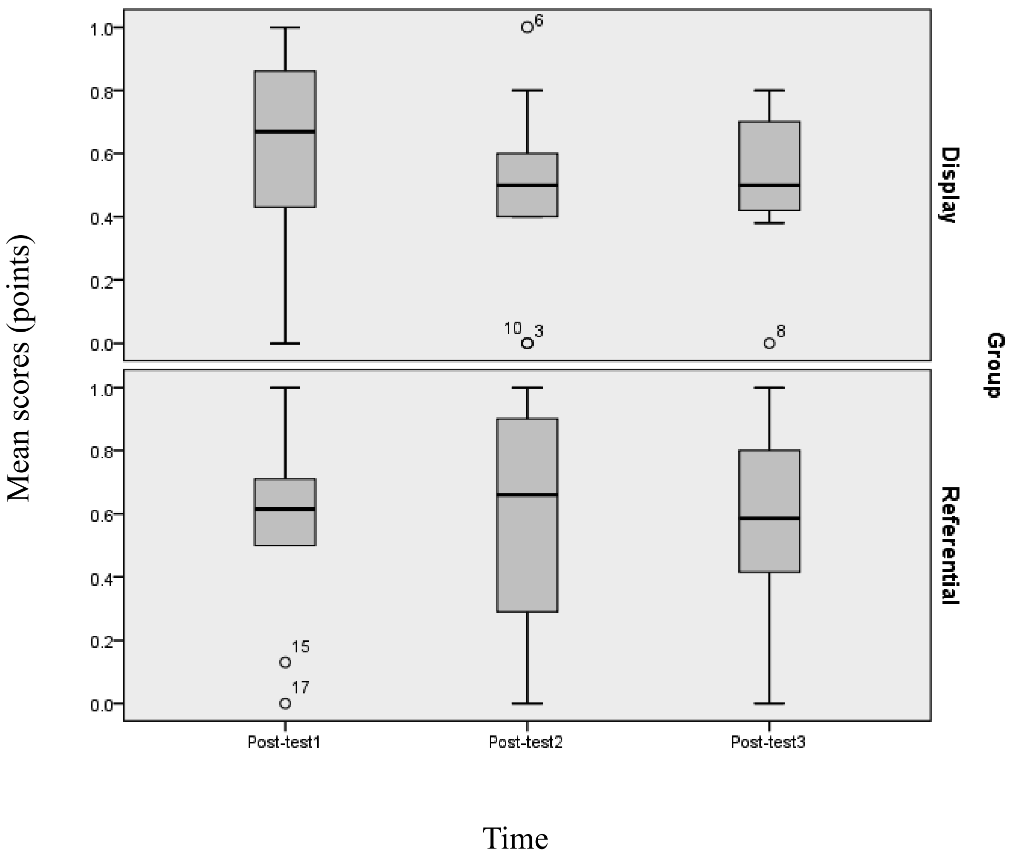

Figure 5.2 Chronological changes in the oral performance of the Referential and Display Groups (Standard error±1).

[14] Further analysis was conducted using ANCOVA with scores of the pre-test as covariance; no significant difference was found within groups (F (1, 18) = .687, p = .469 or between groups (F (1, 18) = 2.27, p = .149.

Figure 5.2 presents the data relating to oral performance values, comparing the two groups and also showing the chronological change. The horizontal axis indicates time: post-test 1, post-test 2, or post-test 3. The vertical axis shows the figures for the performance scores in terms of accuracy (Foster & Skehan, 1996). The lower box plot shows the results for the Referential Group, which almost level off; the upper one shows those for the Display Group, which rose a little after the slight decline. A similar trend was observed in both the written and oral tests; however, analysis revealed no difference in terms of the type of teacher question and students' written and oral task performance.

Teacher questions and complexity, accuracy and fluency

The fourth research question asked whether or not the different types of teacher question influenced students' L2 task performance in terms of complexity, accuracy and fluency when they engaged in Picture Differences and Personal Information Exchange tasks. Analyses to assess the differences between the two groups and within the groups were carried out separately for the spring and autumn sessions, since the contents of the same task type differed from one another in each session. For the spring session, average performance scores based on CAF measures (ranging from 0.0 to 1.0) on the Picture Differences task (PD) were .483 (SD = .181) for complexity, .845 (SD = .164) for accuracy and .368 (SD = .097) for fluency. Similarly, the average performance score for complexity on the Personal Information Exchange task (PIE) was .504 (SD = .191), with .781 (SD = .293) for accuracy, and .597 (SD

= .354) for fluency. The results for those descriptive measures for the spring session are shown in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4
Descriptive Statistics for Complexity, Accuracy and Fluency on the Picture Differences and Personal Information Exchange Tasks for the Spring Session

Spring session		Picture Differences (PD)		Personal Information Exchange (PIE)	
Group	Measure	M	SD	M	SD
Referential	complexity	.537	.188	.464	.130
	accuracy	.845	.164	.793	.166
	fluency	.368	.097	.591	.271
Display	complexity	.483	.181	.504	.191
	accuracy	.845	.164	.781	.293
	fluency	.368	.097	.597	.354

Note: M= means, SD= standard deviation

The statistical analysis showed there was no significant difference between the performance scores obtained by the Referential Group and Display Group, F (1, 20) = .619, p = .441. However, regardless of the type of teacher question provided, it seems to be common in both groups that accuracy was higher than complexity or fluency for both tasks, showing a significant difference within their performances, F (1, 5) = 17.307, p = .000, (η^2= .464) .

Meanwhile, for the autumn session, the average performance scores for complexity on the Picture Differences task (PD) was .648 (SD = .192), .490 (SD = .359) for accuracy, .306

(SD = .318) for fluency. In comparison, complexity on the Personal Information Exchange (PIE) task was .523 (SD = .202), .715 (SD = .205) for accuracy, .517 (SD = .257) for fluency. The results for those descriptive measures in the autumn session are summarized in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5

Descriptive Statistics for Complexity, Accuracy, and Fluency on the Picture Differences and Personal Information Exchange Tasks for the Autumn Session

Autumn session		Picture Differences (PD)		Personal Information Exchange (PIE)	
Group	Measure	M	SD	M	SD
Referential	complexity	.648	.192	.523	.202
	accuracy	.490	.359	.715	.205
	fluency	.306	.318	.517	.257
Display	complexity	.600	.156	.405	.136
	accuracy	.502	.241	.709	.131
	fluency	.422	.242	.528	.185

Note: M= means, SD= standard deviation

Figures 5.3, 5.4, and 5.5 present performance scores for the two groups of participants on the Picture Differences and Personal Information Exchange tasks which were measured in terms of CAF (Robbinson, 1995; Foster & Skehan, 1996; 1999) during the spring and autumn sessions, indicated on the horizontal axis. The vertical axis shows the performance scores in terms of complexity (see Figure 5.3), accuracy (see Figure 5.4) and fluency (see Figure 5.5).

The constructs to be measured for each of the three aspects of CAF performance are different, and each aspect throughout the two sessions is displayed separately below.

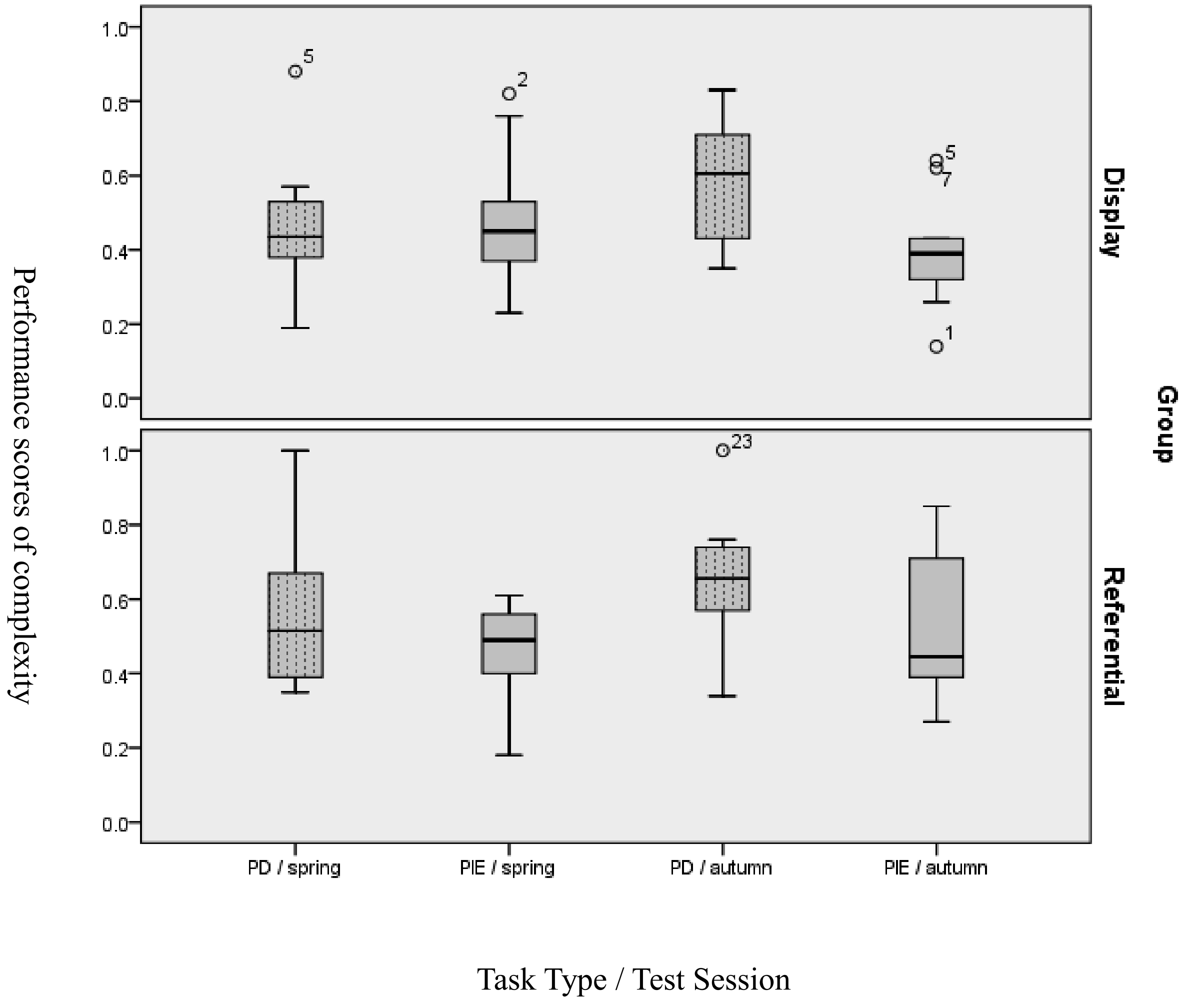

Figure 5.3 Complexity on Picture Differences and Personal Information Exchange for the Display and Referential Groups for the spring and autumn sessions (Standard error±1).

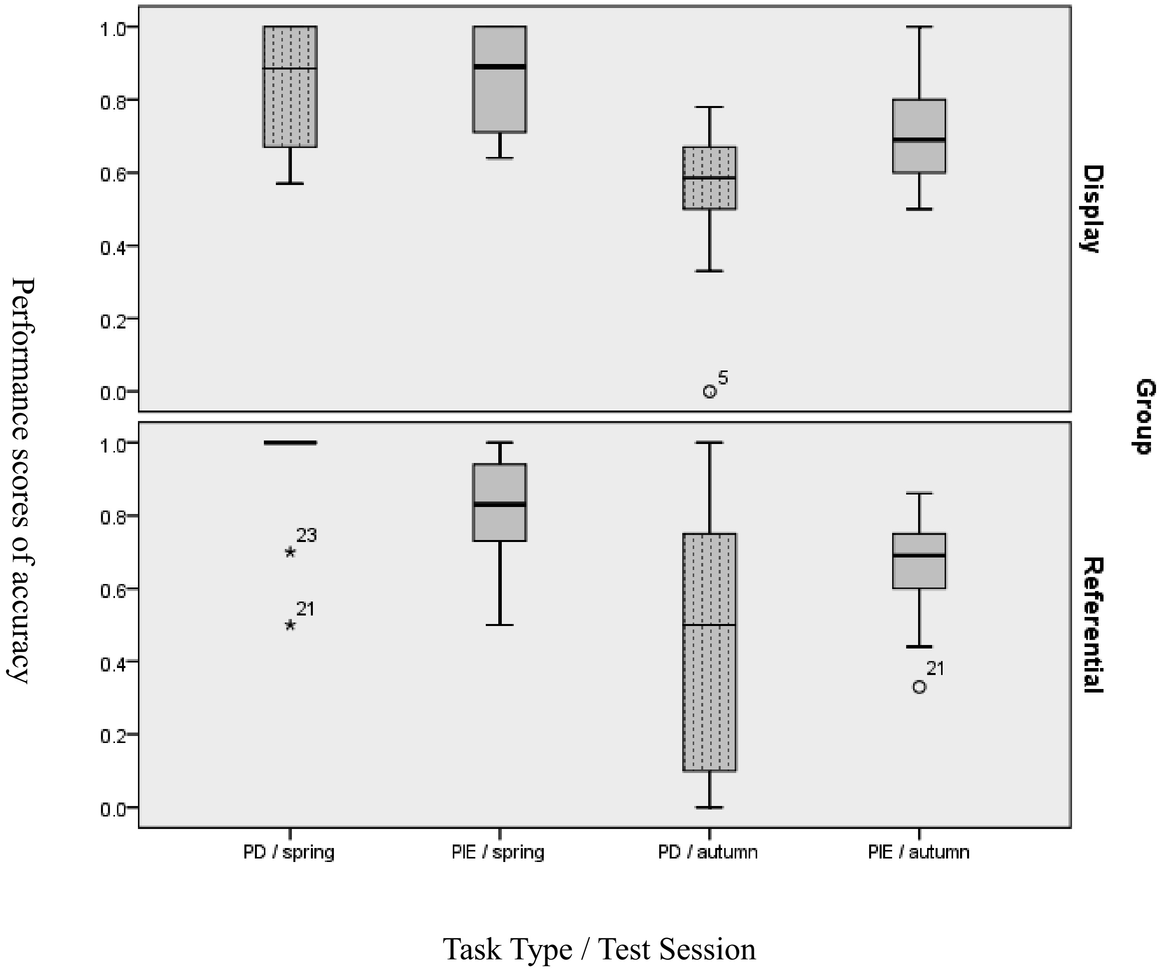

Figure 5.4 Accuracy on Picture Differences and Personal Information Exchange for the Display and Referential Groups for the spring and autumn sessions (Standard error ± 1).

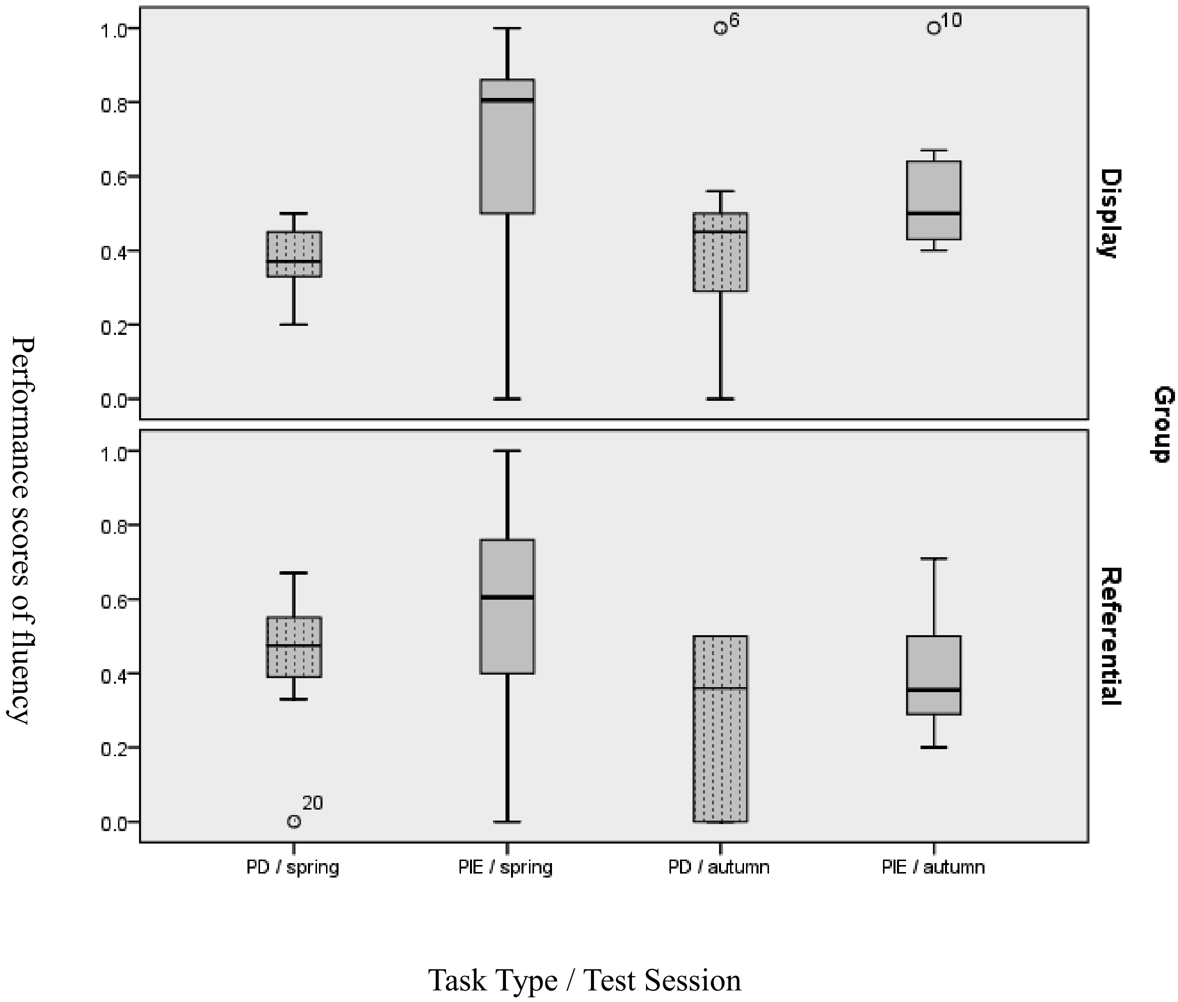

Figure 5.5 Fluency on Picture Differences and Personal Information Exchange for the Display and Referential Groups for the spring and autumn sessions (Standard error ± 1).

Contrary to expectations, the CAF performance for the autumn session plotted on the graph give a completely different picture from the results for the spring session, despite the same task types being used. The most salient finding is that complexity and fluency are in more or less inverse proportion to each other on the Picture Differences task. That means that the students produced a wider variety of words and yet at the same time they showed greater dysfluency in their discourse on the Picture Differences task in the autumn session.

There was no significant difference according to the types of teacher question for the autumn session, F (1, 22) = .011, p = .917 and there was no difference within the performance of each task in each group, F (1, 2) = 11.30, p = .266. That is to say, both groups performed in a similar way on each task. However, focusing on the three dimensions of performance in each task, there was a significant difference across the two different tasks, F (1, 5) = 8.203, p = .000 in the three aspects of CAF performance. These findings seem to confirm a difference between the two tasks; the association between complexity, accuracy, and fluency in the Trade-off theory (Skehan, 1998) within the same group.

So far, the results have shown that neither referential nor display questions influenced students' performance on written and oral tests: both groups performed in a similar way in terms of complexity, accuracy, and fluency during the spring and autumn sessions. However, it seems that the task type made a difference to students' CAF performance. What is surprising is that the findings seem to indicate that CAF performances on the Picture Differences task were not the same. That is to say, the pictures provided for the task may control learners' language outcome, depending on what range of words the task requires them to produce. Further analysis of the results was carried out.

CAF on the Picture Differences and Personal Information Exchange tasks

Therefore, further analysis was carried out to compare the differences between students' performances on both tasks (Picture Differences and Personal Information Exchange tasks conducted in spring and those in autumn), irrespective of the variable of the type of teacher question given to students, since they were given questions of both types across the spring and autumn sessions with no significant difference in their performance. Instead, the question of whether or not different contents make a difference to CAF performance when the task type remains the same was examined. The results for those descriptive measures are shown in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6
Descriptive Statistics for Complexity, Accuracy, and Fluency on the Picture Differences and Personal Information Exchange Tasks in the Spring and Autumn Sessions

Test Session	Measure	Picture Differences (PD)		Personal Information Exchange (PIE)	
		M	SD	M	SD
Spring	Complexity	.510	.182	.484	.161
	Accuracy	.886	.167	.787	.233
	Fluency	.401	.149	.594	.308
Autumn	Complexity	.624	.173	.464	.179
	Accuracy	.496	.299	.712	.168
	Fluency	.364	.283	.522	.219

Note: M= means, SD= standard deviation

The statistics from the spring session showed a significant difference within each of the three aspects of performance, F (1, 2) = 6.83, p = .003, η^2 = .245, and between the two tasks, F (1, 21) = 1184, p = .000, η^2 = .983. Those from the autumn session also showed a significant difference, F (1, 2) = 11.74, p = .000, η^2 = .338; F (1, 23) = 441, p = .000, η^2 = .951. These results indicate that task types, rather than the type of teacher questions, elicit different levels of performance.

To analyze further, CAF performance using pairwise comparisons revealed that the performance of accuracy on each task in the spring session was significantly distinct from those of complexity and fluency (p = .000). Similarly, significant differences between performances of accuracy and fluency (p = .046) on each task were found in the autumn session. Based on a paired comparison using a Post hoc test, significant differences between fluency and accuracy, and between accuracy and complexity were confirmed for the Personal Information Exchange task. For the Picture Differences task, on the other hand, a significant difference was found only between fluency and accuracy. It is noted that the constructs of accuracy and fluency are not identical, making comparison difficult; however, considering the construct for accuracy in the current study (error-free AS-units) and that for fluency (hesitation-free AS-units) which each measure the extent to which errors or hesitations take place, it is possible to compare the two score levels. These findings may suggest that accuracy is likely to compete with fluency for lower-level EFL learners. Moreover, in the Picture Differences task comparison, the results for fluency seem to support other research findings, which found that personal tasks generated more fluent and less complex language, since such tasks were already sufficiently familiar to the students (Foster & Skehan, 1996; Skehan & Foster, 1999; Skehan, 2001). Accordingly, the findings showed that the different task types provided to the students affected their performance.

Furthermore, based on the findings which indicated that the pictures provided for a task may control learners' language outcome by determining the range of words which they are required to produce, further analysis of this which disregarded the type of teacher questions students were asked was conducted using ANOVA (see Figures 5.3, 5.4, 5.5). For the Picture Differences (PD) task, the average performance for complexity across all students in the spring session was .503 (SD = .184), .881 (SD = .169) for accuracy, .401 (SD = .152) for fluency. Meanwhile, that for complexity in the autumn session was .641 (SD = .185), .522 (SD = .323) for accuracy, .402 (SD = .319) for fluency. The statistical analysis revealed a significant difference in performance between the three aspects of CAF, F (1, 2) = 21.135, p = .000, η^2 = .514 and between the tasks in the spring and autumn sessions, F (1, 20) = 528.2, p = .000, η^2 =.964. This means that even for the same task type, students performed differently according to the pictures with which they were provided. In other words, the pictures of a room, a zoo, and a beach provided to students in the spring session did not allow them to perform in a similar way to the pictures of a room, a landscape, and a classroom which were provided in the autumn session. This may well need to be discussed further. Figure 5.3, 5.4, 5.5 show the CAF performance measured on the Picture Differences task and Personal Information Exchange task, comparing the spring and autumn sessions.

Meanwhile, the performances on the Personal Information Exchange task (PIE) in the spring session were, on average, .493 (SD = .163) for complexity, .775 (SD = .235) for accuracy, and .612 (SD = .312) for fluency. In the autumn session, that for complexity was .457 (SD= .187), .679 (SD = .227) for accuracy and .530 (SD = .220) for fluency. The statistics revealed no significant difference within CAF performance for the autumn session, F (1, 2) = .284, p = .754; however, a significant difference was found between the two sessions, F (1, 22) =630.3, p = .000, η^2 = .966. That is to say, the students performed in a similar way on the Personal Information Exchange task in terms of their relative performances in different aspects of CAF, yet their performance on tasks of the same type differed according to the contents.

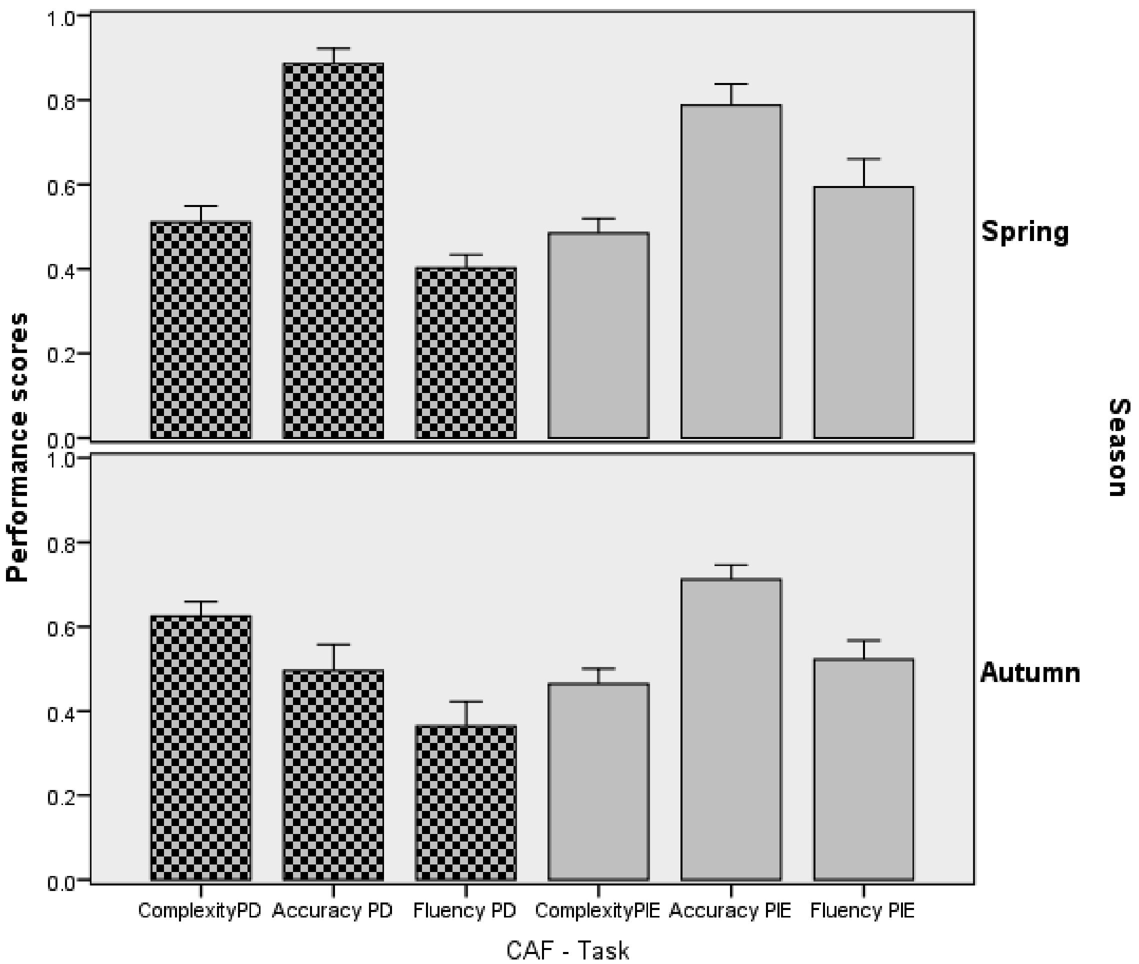

Figure 5.6 Complexity, accuracy and fluency on the Picture Differences and Personal Information Exchange tasks for the spring and autumn session (Standard error ± 1).

To summarize the findings so far, it was revealed that the type of teacher question had a significant effect neither on written or oral performance nor on CAF: the participants in both groups performed in similar ways. However, significant differences were found between students' performances in terms of CAF on Picture Difference tasks with different contents.

5.4 Discussion

Teacher questions and EFL students' responses

Regarding the number of sentences produced, no significant difference was found between the Referential Group and the Display Group. Despite the fact that a small number of words were produced in response to teacher questions, it is somewhat surprising that the number of words produced in the Referential Group surpassed that in the Display Group. The results do not seem to be in line with the studies in ESL settings, in which responses to referential questions were significantly longer than responses to display questions (Banbrook, 1987; Brock, 1986; Lee, 2006: Long & Crookes, 1992; Nunan, 1991; White, 1992), since referential questions intend to get students to use imagination and creativity by providing contextual information about situations, events, actions, and so forth (Long & Sato, 1983; White & Lightbown, 1984; White, 1992). On the contrary, the words produced during teacher-led interaction lasted for roughly the same time and this study found a large number of utterances made up of one word or a single phrase; main clauses appeared relatively few times as a response to teacher questions in both groups (Referential Group, 16; Display Group, 25). This may be explained by the supposition that it may be difficult for low-level English learners to make full sentences, unlike advanced-level ESL students. While ESL students learn the target language with a meaning-focused background and have more opportunities for exposure, these low-level EFL students were inexperienced in having conversations in English. In particular, Japanese school students in their mid teens were somewhat unaccustomed to having conversations with their teacher, whom they may have seen as the person who gave them a grade. Naturally, it was not easy even for the students in the Display Group to reproduce sentences based on memorization, or to take the risk of making mistakes which might have occurred if they had talked longer. It may be possible to conclude that referential questions tended to invite responses of a single word or short phrase in order not to impede the flow of real communication. In other words, the reason why students in the Referential Group tended to economize on words may have been to prioritize meaning in order to communicate immediately without breakdowns, which is quite common in real-life communication.

The findings in the current study did not totally confirm those of Wu's (1993) study, in which students in Hong Kong produced longer and more complex utterances in response to display questions, along with those of Ho's (2005) study, which argued that displa

could be purposeful and effective in EFL contexts. However, it could be assumed that the findi lend support to those of Yang and Lyster's study (2010), in which referential questions did not make students produce longer responses in Chinese language classes; instead, they tended to economize on words. It would appear that input via teacher discourse, even in question form, plays a crucial role in the EFL classrooms and that we need to reconsider the role of display questions that are given to elicit a specific grammatical structure from the students for ostensible communication. Further investigation is called for.

Development of question forms in written and oral tests

As for the impact of teacher questions on learners' development of question forms, the analysis of written pre- and post-tests shows no difference between the group which was asked referential questions and the one which was asked display questions. These findings are in line with oral test performance. One possible reason for this might be that it may take more time for beginning-level learners to acquire oral accuracy, considering the amount of input and tasks used in classroom research. This result also agrees with the findings of another study, in which no difference was found in the use of different questioning strategies with two learners over a nine-month period (Ellis, 1995).

Although there was no significant difference between the Referential and the Display Group, one unanticipated trend was found in the Display Group, whose performance somewhat declined in the middle of the experiment, whereas this decline was not seen in the Referential Group. This result may be considered to be within the margin of error; it could be argued that a further longitudinal study with a greater focus on displa learners' factors (e.g., willingness) needs to be undertaken.

Moreover, interestingly enough, the data from oral post-tests provided evidence of the emergence of different stages of question forms by each student in the whole classroom activities, in which the students tried to listen carefully to and mimic other peers’ utterances in the course of interactions, a process which is often overlooked by the teacher. The benefits of interaction through whole classroom activities require investigation in future studies. Additionally, research into the development sequence of question forms by low-level learners through classroom interaction is also called for.

Teacher questions and complexity, accuracy and fluency

With respect to the forth research question, which asked whether or not the different types of teacher question influence students' L2 task performance (complexity, accuracy, fluency) on the two tasks (Picture Difference, Personal Information Exchange), it was found that there was no significant difference between the Referential Group and the Display Group in terms of complexity, accuracy, or fluency. The results are consistent with those for written and oral task performance, which showed no difference in students’ performance. This finding might be related to the lack of time for teacher questions during a lesson. Given sufficient time for teacher questions as is available in a laboratory, differences between referential a la luenced students’ performance more or less as was assumed. However, the current study conducted in intact classes was limited in the amount of time which could be taken to examine a single phenomenon. Nevertheless, an alternative possible explanation is that, regardless of the teacher's preference for the use of referential or display questions, the variable which makes classrooms more communicative and meaning-focused may be the task rather than the nature of the teacher-led interaction phase of the classroom.

Task types and complexity, accuracy and fluency

Meanwhile, comparison between the two tasks, which were distinct from each other in terms of topic familiarity and procedural familiarity, showed a significant difference in terms of CAF performance regardless of the type of teacher question. The results seem to support the claim that task type influences how learners interact (Ellis, 2012). A number of studies have investigated planning time and task performance (Foster, 1996; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Skehan & Foster, 1997; Skehan & Foster, 2005; Mochizuki & Ortega, 2008), or task type and negotiation of meaning (Gass, Mackey & Ross-Feldman, 2005); however, this study made a distinction between the two tasks in terms of familiarity with topics and procedure. Picture Differences tasks were conducted in the form of a group race: that is to say, it was assumed that the game format might successfully push learners to produce a variety of words rapidly. It was assumed that the Personal Information Exchange task, on the other hand, might successfully enable fluent performance because of the familiarity of the topic to the students. As mentioned in Chapter 3, a familiar topic such as a personal topic accelerates the rate of negotiation of meaning and attention to language (Bygate, 2001; Gass, Mackey, Alvarez-Torres, & Fern ández-García, 1999; Lynch & Maclean, 2001; Mackey et al., 2007, Mackey, 2012). Therefore, it was hypothesized that a personal task would help students further personalize the task, producing L2 more easily than one with an unfamiliar topic. The findings showed that the values for fluency on the Personal Information Exchange task surpassed those on the Picture Differences task, which seems to support the initial hypothesis that a personal topic provides the best fit for adolescent learners, who are at a sensitive age in the process of establishing their own identities. It can thus be suggested that a personal topic is likely to generate more fluent language production. However, more research needs to be undertaken into the issues for different age-groups, since fluency in the current study was measured by the number of repetitions, false starts, and reformulations, which is insufficient for drawing conclusions.

The findings also seem to support the claim that various aspects of performance could often function very distinctly from one another (Skehan, 2014), which may suggest that attentional resources are limited in a communicative context (Van Patten, 1990). Concerning complexity, however, some studies (Foster & Skehan, 1996; Housen & Kuiken, 2009; Gass, Svetics & Lemelin, 2003) investigated a wide range of different structures, elaborateness and diversity of the learner's linguistic L2 system, while the current study focused only on lower-level lea lexical variety, which could be a token of willingness to use more challenging and difficult language (Skehan, 2001). Complexity as defined in the current study may not fully support these previous studies, whose data were collected for narrative tasks, and a more robust volume of data will be required for interpretation and measurement.

Performances for accuracy were fairly consistent across the four sets of data, in which they were higher than those for complexity and fluency across the terms and task types, except for one of the data collections for the Picture Differences task in the autumn session, where the relationship was reversed. It can be explained by the inherent problem in measuring accuracy, surmising that the more words are produced, the more errors take place. Although there was no significant difference, this trend may only suggest that the pictures in the task might require students to pay attention to the contents of the task rather than to accuracy, since the more the learners engage in the contents of the task, the less attention may be given to accuracy, as was suggested by the theory of Limited Attentional Capacity. However, to examine the Trade-off theory, more robust data collection and CAF measures are called for.

Moreover, the findings showed that students performed differently on the same type of task (Picture Differences) at different times (the spring and autumn sessions). These results are likely to be related to the pictures in the task: that is to say, even with the same type of task, different contents could influence L2 task performances in terms of complexity, accuracy, and fluency. In fact, Figure 5.6 showed significant differences in CAF performance in the spring and autumn sessions, even on tasks of the same type. A variety of words were produced on the Picture Differences task in the autumn session in particular, whereas the task in the spring session elicited a very limited number of possible outcomes because the task required students to use certain forms repeatedly in the conversation (e.g. 'Is there…?', 'Do they have…'), which would inevitably limit the variety of expressions produced. Clearly, this would suggest that complexity is more or less determined by the content. It is possible, therefore, that these pictures, which contained a variety of contents to describe, could facilitate students in producing different words. Indeed, it supports Skehan's (2014) claim that different aspects of performance can often function very distinctly from one another, and it is worth exploring the correlation between them in future studies.

Task types and the learners' perceptions

Finally, the retrospective questionnaires which were conducted at the end of the overall experimental period in order to provide supplementary data furnished some intriguing insights into the learners' perceptions of the tasks and L2 learning. The questionnaire asked 1) which activity was most interesting, 2) which activity was least interesting, 3) which activity was most helpful for English learning, 4) whether there were any activities which students would like to try again. There were twenty-five responses in total, and sixteen out of the twenty-five students (64%) responded that the Picture Differences task was interesting, while only six out of the total (24%) responded that the Personal Information Exchange task was interesting. Surprisingly, however, only five of the students (20%) answered that they thought the Picture Differences task was helpful for English learning; in contrast, ten of the students (40%) thought the Personal Information Exchange task helpful, despite their negative perception that it was not interesting. It is somewhat surprising that the teenage learners are inclined to believe that L2 learning does not take place through fun activities. These views were contrary to the common assumption that the more personalized the content is, the more language use is generated (Nunan, 1999), and to the prediction that young teenagers might find it interesting to engage with personalized topics. Nevertheless, both tasks were received positively in that they were each deemed worthy of trying again by several of the students (ten to eleven students out of the whole number, 40-44%). The questionnaire responses suggested that students tend to think that activities such as the Picture Differences task do not contribute to L2 learning, and tend to take for granted that L2 learning happens through activities which are not particularly compelling. Clearly, this perception may depend on the learner's age group; further investigation of learner perception and L2 development is needed.

5.5 Limitations

This study, which investigated the effects of referential questions and display questions commonly used by teachers in EFL classrooms on the development of question forms in written and oral tests and task performance in terms of complexity, accuracy and fluency, produced at least two significant findings. When it comes to teacher questions for lower-level learners who can hardly produce clauses, it could be argued that referential questions are not sufficient to elicit a number of responses from students, as was found in previous studies in ESL settings. However, more longitudinal and sustained research may be required to confirm whether or not this amount of responses relates to L2 acquisition. Additional studies with more focus on the development of question forms in relation to L2 acquisition order, for instance, will also be recommended.

As for students' task performance in terms of CAF varies from one task to another, as well as individual differences in the performance of the same task. These are shown as wide score distributions (e.g., fluency on Picture Differences, accuracy on Picture Differences, oral test performance compared with written one). Moreover, using multivariate data analysis for CAF, which has different constructs, and investigating the correlation between each performance is one possible approach. Future study with more robust data collection is required. Furthermore, these results need to be interpreted with caution, since the measurement of complexity in the current study permitted only limited collection of data from low-level learners' utterances in dialogues other than narrative tasks, which may allow learners to produce more words. Similarly, measuring the performance value of accuracy elicited from low-level learners has inherent problems in that the more they speak, the more errors might appear. In addition, the measure of fluency in the current study dealt only with hesitation fluency which was shown in repetition and reformulation, rather than in pauses, which may not have been a reliable measure of overall fluency. Despite all these limitations in measurement, investigating low-level lea ' data to understand what is happening in the classroom is a sizeable and worthwhile challenge. As Palloti (2001) suggested, CAF in various discourse-based measurements are a good starting point for the descriptions of linguistic performance in classroom research, in order to understand the process of linguistic development. Furthermore, there is some controversy regarding the standard measurement of CAF (Housen & Kuiken, 2009); more robust and varied measurements should be applied in research based in the classroom, where the dynamic process of learning could happen.

In order to maximize learners' motivation to become actively engaged with a task, we could infer that teachers need to organize and utilize a mixture of pedagogical tasks, taking into consideration the topics and interests of the target learners. In fact, one of the issues that emerges from these findings is the necessity for careful consideration, which takes into account the target learners' proficiency level, when choosing task types, as it is suggested that task type does interact with proficiency (Nunan, 1991) and individual learner variables (Julkunen, 2001). Further research will need to take into consideration more different learner variables, such as age and preference with reference to the task itself and to L2 development.

5.6 Conclusions

The first finding from the current study is that there were no significant differences between the effects of referential a lay questions on Japanese EFL students' written and oral development of question forms. The results found that the number of words produced in response to the teacher's referential questions suggested that students tended to economize on words to avoid making mistakes for communication breakdown, which is common in our real life conversations. In addition, neither referential nor display questions affected the written test scores or oral task performance. Thirdly, no difference between groups were found in the task performance in terms of CAF. However, significant differences were found between students' performances of accuracy and fluency on the Picture Difference and Personal Information tasks. Accuracy was generally the highest-scoring area of performance across the sessions and tasks; complexity seems to depend on the content or pictures provided; and personal topics could facilitate fluency, which seems to support the Trade-off Hypothesis. Nevertheless, more cautious research and interpretations are required.

Overall, the study revealed that the aspects of CAF performance are influenced by task types and their content. Finally, one of the issues that emerge from these findings is that the current study has important implications for the EFL classroom, in which accuracy seems to be consistently in greater focus than fluency; this is distinct from the findings in ESL classrooms. Further discussion with respect to this point is found in the next chapter.

CHAPTER SIX

Issues and Future Directions in Task Research and Pedagogy

6.1 Introduction

In this study, we have highlighted the arguments surrounding 'tasks' based on theoretical and methodological frameworks. At the same time, some of the research variables which might influence learners' successful engagement in tasks have been examined with the aim of identifying ways in which 'tasks' might be made to better accommodate the Japanese context. This chapter addresses some issues based on the findings of the current study and answers the research questions posed in Chapter 3: 1) Will Japanese teenage learners of English accommodate themselves to the meaningfulness of the task provided for L2 development? 2) What suggestions could be made for the application of tasks in the classroom for Japanese learners at a low level of English proficiency? The former question arises from a concern about the validity of SLA research on TBLT in Japanese educational contexts; the latter question deals with pedagogical issues and implications for the future direction of English language practice in Japan.

In the first place, in order to pursue the issue of meaningfulness for Japanese learners, we will recapitulate the findings about form-focused and meaning-focused tasks examined in this study. The table below (Table 6.1) illustrates what was discovered about tasks, irrespective of the research questions addressed in each study.

Table 6.1
Findings from Form-Focused and Meaning-Focused Tasks

Measures	Form-focused task	Meaning-focused task	
	Dictogloss	Picture Differences (PD)	Personal Information Exchange (PIE)
Attention	Lexical form	---	---
Complexity	---	CAF may be dependent on the materials (pictures) provided	Fluency in PIE was more produced than that in PD
Accuracy	---		
Fluency	---		
Written accuracy:			
Phrasal verbs	Unconfirmed development	Unconfirmed development	Unconfirmed development
Question forms			
Oral accuracy	---	Unconfirmed development	
Communication			
Computer	Negotiation for meaning	-----	
Type of Teacher Questions	-----	Unconfirmed differences	

As can be seen in Table 6.1, the two experiments in this study examined 1) how learners performed in their negotiations about language with other peers, 2) their attention to the language, 3) how frequently they negotiated for meaning and forms, based on the assumption that CMC may facilitate learners' task engagement due to the novelty of the method, 4) how they performed tasks of different types in terms of complexity, accuracy, and fluency, and 5) how they performed in teacher-led communication. In addition, the L2 development of daily language phrases such as phrasal verbs and question formations through the use of tasks was examined.

We now turn to the question of what a meaningful task is, with the following section devoted to a different aspect of meaningfulness in terms of learners' successful participation and L2 development. However, it would seem that defining successful participation is not easy, as the study did not directly measure participation. Thus, we will first attempt to account for meaningfulness from the standpoint of negotiation, attention to form, L2 development, communicative abilities, learners' L2 performance in terms of accuracy and fluency, and learners' perceptions of tasks.

6.2 Tasks for High-quality Participation and L2 Development

There is some concern about the successful use of tasks for high-quality participation among EFL learners, and in consequence, researchers have paid attention to linguistic form and the impact on acquisition of the role played by interaction (Ellis, 2012). In practice, it is considered that the more frequently L2 learners notice the gap between their output and knowledge or between their knowledge and that of others, the more they learn at a particular point in their language acquisition (Ortega, 2009), and such noticing of the gap facilitates intake and effective processing (Shmidt, 1990, 2001). Assuming the process of internalization of the language, we will first illustrate how negotiation took place in the study of the effects of CMC on negotiation during dictogloss tasks.

6.2.1 Tasks for Negotiatio*n*

Contrary to initial expectations that technology would help learners to engage more deeply in the task due to the visual aids and novelty, which might be expected to entertain the learner, there was no significant difference in engagement between the means of communication, which was in line with the findings of an earlier study (Lowen, 2005). What was interesting about the study results was that students actually negotiated for meaning and form, but it was revealed that there was a difference in terms of what they negotiated during the same task. The CMC group needed more time for negotiation for meaning in order to avoid communication breakdown. Nevertheless, there is not much evidence to support the view that this negotiation represented a high quality of participation which would facilitate L2 learning. It remains to be seen whether or not the negotiation was sufficient for language acquisition because of the lack of background language knowledge among participants. As Hawkins (1985) has suggested, it is doubtful whether learners always succeed in comprehension as a result of negotiation, since they fake comprehension when they are not ready for negotiation. Although it may be possible to support the claim that the dictogloss task caught learners' attention and improved their accuracy in the production of target forms (Swain & Lapkin, 1998), the question of how importantly negotiation is related to L2 acquisition (Ellis, 2012) still remains.

6.2.2 Tasks for Attention to Form

One of the questions I raised earlier was to what extent the learners really experienced form-focused dictogloss for L2 development. In this regard, the study examined learners' attention to various linguistic forms, asking to what extent learners paid attention to form and demonstrated subsequent self-correction and understanding of the forms during the collaborative task. The findings revealed that despite the limited degree of attention to linguistic form in the CMC group, both groups negotiated lexical aspects of the form more often than other aspects, which were rarely negotiated. It was somewhat interesting that these low-level learners tended to search for clues by identifying the meaning of the word in order to reconstruct a sentence, rather than by the sentence structure and other linguistic information. Does this happen because they do not have enough linguistic knowledge to make sentences other than by relying on a translation of the meaning of the sentence? It is still questionable whether such negotiation of form through searching for translated words demonstrates a high quality of participation in the task, since a task is supposed to require high-order brain work like cognitive work. Thus, there is still a question unanswered: to what extent would such a negotiation among low level learners be helpful for L2 acquisition?

Nevertheless, one interesting finding is that successful resolution of LREs, which suggest learners' high-quality of participation, took place in about 23%-25% of the total incidences, which was almost in line with previous studies. Also, the results of this study seem to fit with Nation's (2012) suggestion regarding the ratio of focus on form in the lesson, suggesting that it would work well when form-focused instruction is allocated about 25% of a meaning-focused L2 lesson. Further investigation on this issue in TBLT for different proficiency levels is called for.

6.2.3 Tasks for L2 Development

It was somewhat surprising that the studies were unable to demonstrate that the tasks facilitated L2 development in the target forms, phrasal verbs and question forms, in either written or oral tests. A simple question arises as a result: does the use of tasks actually facilitate L2 development? A main concern is that tasks may not necessarily be associated with immediate L2 development or the measurement of accuracy. These findings may help us to understand that the task, whether form-focused or meaning-focused, has its own significant place in the experience of language for communication rather than in the accurate use of language.

In this regard, in line with Prabhu's (1987) claim cited earlier in this paper, as language teaching embraces intellectual excitement, it is important for learners to engage in classroom activities which they perceive as experiences of personal growth. However, it is a challenge to identify what 'successful participation' is, since this experiment did not set out with the direct aim of measuring the degree of participation. Instead, the studies observed learners' participation in the task in the negotiation and task performance phase, with the audio-recorded data of beginner-level learners showing how they negotiated for meaning and form and co-constructed their consensus during the tasks in which they actually engaged in the classroom. Based on the transcribed data, it can be suggested that the Japanese teenage learners accommodated themselves to the task provided in the classroom; however, it is still questionable whether the task fully accommodated itself to the measurement of L2 development in the relatively short term.

It appears that there is still plenty of room to measure language development in more longitudinal ways or from a greater variety of perspectives other than accurate L2 production. Further research is required with a closer focus on the effective utilization of tasks depending on different proficiency levels and different aims of language learning (e.g., English for academic purposes), since there is a lively argument about the goal of learning foreign languages in each educational context.

6.2.4 Tasks for Communicative Abilities

What, then, is the significance of utilizing tasks in the classroom? Research into this question dates back to Widdowson (1978), who suggested that linguistic skills and communicative abilities had a close mutual association; meanwhile, Halliday (1973) and Wilkins (1976) emphasized that language was fundamentally social in that language users needed to perform certain functions, meaning that mastery of linguistic structure was not enough to be able to communicate. In addition, Lightbown and Spada (2006) have proposed that communicative competence is the ability to use language in a variety of settings. Tasks have been studied as a means of creating experience-based opportunities for language learning (Samuda & Bygate, 2008), and the theory of TBLT has been examined to respond to the growing demand for accountable communicative language teaching programs which are designed for learners who require functional L2 abilities for use in the real world (Long, 2015). These claims lead me to call into question the adequacy of assessing communicative abilities and the ways in which language functions work in communication via tests on which accuracy is the main focus of assessment.

It could be argued that tasks should be adopted as formative assessments to develop communicative skills, rather than summative assessments in which linguistic abilities are evaluated exclusively with multiple-choice questions, filling-the-gap questions and other written questions in an examination. If this is the case, it is obvious that it is necessary to strike a balance between tasks for developing linguistic abilities and the communicative abilities to be tested. Some may argue that it is easier to provide repeated drills and exercises to improve linguistic skills for accuracy and fluency. However, to avoid a return to traditional meaningless drills and repetitions, one thing that we should consider is providing task-repetitions to improve fluency (Préfontaine, Kormos & Johnson, 2015). The picture differences task in the current study, for instance, led learners to use repeated phrases like 'Is there…?', 'Do you have…?' enabling learners to produce repeated language forms within meaningful communicative activities.

Viewed in this light, there seem to be plenty of room for teachers to come up with ideas about when and for which purposes to use tasks in the lesson, striking a balance between communicative skills and linguistic skills. Future studies on the necessity or on the ways of L2 assessment are therefore suggested.

6.2.5 Tasks for Accuracy and Fluency

The findings revealed that greater fluency was measured in personal information exchange tasks than that in picture difference tasks. Unlike with a dictogloss task, which is collaborative and form-focused, picture difference and personal information exchange tasks are designed to elicit as much meaning-focused verbal communication as possible by having students ask each other questions. However, there was a tendency for the learners to be more fluent when engaging in personal information exchange tasks, provided that there was planning and rehearsal time before carrying out the task. The results seem to confirm that task planning, rehearsal, and repetition before a task on a personal topic are crucial for fluent speaking. On the basis of the evidence currently available, it also seems fair to suggest that personal topics help learners to produce more fluent speech (without hesitations), which may be of great benefit in developing fluency among mid-teenage learners at a beginner level.

On the other hand, the next problem requiring discussion is how to strike a balance between attentional resources in the light of accuracy versus fluency in EFL classrooms. The communicative approach argues that since language is not learned by the gradual accumulation of one item after another, it is better to encourage learners to develop 'fluency' before 'accuracy' in communication (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). As a result, a number of studies have investigated focus on form through communicative tasks where the primary emphasis is on meaning. However, "the widespread adoption of communicative language teaching in recent years has meant that […] it is very difficult to make comparisons with classrooms that are primarily form-oriented" (Lightbown & Spada, 2006, p. 141). In fact, one of the challenges of a meaning-focused classroom, such as those using immersion, content-based instruction (CBI), or content and language integrated learning (CLILL), is that accuracy tends to be one step behind fluency. On the other hand, in an EFL classroom in Japan, it seems that accuracy tends to be one step ahead of fluency even while students are engaging in meaning-focused activities.

Moreover, one interesting finding came out of the CAF performance results in the second study. The measurement of accuracy was analyzed by counting the number of error-free AS-units divided by the total number of AS-units; fluency was analyzed by the number of hesitation-free AS-units divided by the total number of AS-units. A closer look at the data indicates that the higher the accuracy, the lower the fluency. It is true that there is a difference in terms of construct validity in the two performances; however, the data appears to suggest that the learners tended to produce accuracy at the expense of fluency. Therefore, regardless of the fact that learners were provided with opportunities to perform meaningful activities, it is speculated that their attentional resources were primarily devoted to form in the two tasks. This may be explained by an inherent problem regarding accuracy, in particular for low-level learners who produce fewer words. That is to say, the lower the number of words produced, the fewer errors occur.

However, there is an interesting possibility that the students kept paying attention to accuracy to some extent during meaning-focused activities; in other words, what we need to consider may not be how to bring focus on form into meaning-focused communication, but rather, how to bring more focus on meaning into our classroom contexts. This is quite different from the assumption that learners' attention to linguistic forms arose incidentally while their focus was on meaning or communication in ESL contexts (Long, 1991). It might well turn out that students in EFL classrooms still tend to perceive and perform tasks as passive language learners rather than active language users; this appears to be the norm in our EFL classrooms. This may suggest that there is a tendency for Japanese students to be naturally ready to focus on accuracy without any external direction to pay attention to form.

So how can we change our views about L2 learning in the Japanese classroom from attention to form to a greater focus on meaning? It is possible to provide various contexts in which learners engage in more cognitive activities using L2 (Harada, 2016), which is in accord with what Prabhu (1987) claimed earlier: it is important to create an L2 classroom in which meaningful communication happens so that learners can engage in activities in which they perceive classroom lessons as 'experiences of growth for themselves'.

6.2.6 Tasks and Learners' Perceptions

Finally, considering the learners' perceptions of in-class interactive task activities based on their answers to the retrospective questionnaires which were provided to the students after the experiments, it was somewhat surprising that the communicative task itself may not necessarily correlate with the learners' sense of achievement of 'L2 learning' in spite of its potential benefits for L2 development. That is to say, the findings raise intriguing questions regarding the confusion between a meaningful task and an arduous task for L2 development. Apparently, there is a need for the learners as well as the teacher to recognize the change from a stereotypical teacher-fronted classroom to a learner-centered classroom for better language performance and L2 development. Indeed, the current study did not actually show a significant development in the target linguistic aspects (i.e., phrasal verbs, question forms) during six months, and more research into the issues around L2 development definitely needs to be undertaken. On the assumption that this will take place, we will next discuss ways of providing meaningful tasks for Japanese learners in the classroom.

6.3 Pedagogical Implications of Tasks for Japanese Teenage Learners

As we saw in the previous section, one of the issues which came out of the experiments is a concern about how to make the classroom communicative in EFL settings, in particular. How can we teachers teach language for communication without affluent input and exposure to the world in which the target language is used? L2 learners in Japan have insufficient input and lack appropriate contexts in which to use English in real communication (Harada, 2016), which is different from those ESL settings where learners need to use the target language in their daily life. In addition, a teacher-centered teaching style is still dominant in the majority of schools and universities, where class sizes are large (some school classes have more than 40 students, while there may be 60 students in a university class); consequently, most L2 learners in Japanese educational institutions are not accustomed to a communicative classroom with a learner-centered style in which they undertake tasks with peers. In fact, there is a strong expectation among some students and their parents that language learning will enable them to master the government-authorized textbook and pass written examinations.

Taking into consideration such circumstances surrounding L2 learning in Japan, we teachers have long been interested in putting forward ways of beneficially implementing tasks to make L2 classrooms more vital. We shall discuss below how the use of pedagogical tasks for Japanese teenage L2 learners worked through classroom interactions, how they handled accuracy and fluency, and how to strike the balance between focus on meaning and form in the classroom.

6.3.1 How to Provide Meaningful Tasks

One of the central concerns from a pedagogical point of view is what suggestions could be made concerning the meaningful use of tasks even for low-level English learners in Japan. To answer the question above, we will discuss possibilities and suggestions drawn from the current findings, which may lead to several practical applications. It is undoubtedly true that the task contributes to communicative interaction for L2 development, either in L1 or in L2, in our educational contexts. Providing a dictogloss task as "an occasion where the participants attend to some aspect of linguistic form while engaged in performing a communicative task" (Ellis, 2012, p. 205) is one approach. Giving an information gap task with a personal topic to enhance fluency is another. Teachers can manipulate the design and language focus of the task according to the classroom purpose, in such a way as to provide a kind of intellectual excitement for the students.

Nevertheless, the key issue for successful use of tasks in the EFL context is apparently the challenge of how to make the classroom more meaning-focused, which is not the case for most ESL settings. Technically speaking, provided a number of communicative activities are carried out in a lesson, it would ostensibly seem to be a meaning-focused classroom. However, as the two studies have suggested, unless a student uses the target language in concert with their cognitive skills and their commitment, the use of tasks may not contribute to meaningful interaction for L2 learning. For instance, in the investigation of negotiation for form, the amount of grammar-based LREs showed that students tended to pay attention to lexical form. It would seem that their attempts to search for a translated word in order to complete the task in their group may have helped them to notice the gap; however, successful L2 development led by attention would be a different story. Nevertheless, the teacher could come up with ideas about providing tasks in a different way when it comes to learning words. As English has distinctive language features which are often subject to the context in which people speak, giving tasks to develop the skill of guessing the meaning of an unknown word from the context or activities provided is more useful than letting students rely on translation. As Nation and Meara (2009) suggest, "[for] second language learners, learning from guessing is part of the meaning-focused input strand, and this should be complemented by direct learning of the same words, and for the higher frequency words, opportunity to use them in meaning-focused output".

Obviously, we need to reconsider whether or not it is enough to implement some isolated, short tasks in a classroom in which the teacher controls classroom discourse and keeps an eye on the accuracy of students' L2 production. Returning to Prahbu's (1987) emphasis on the importance of language teaching which provides learners with intellectual excitement, the kind of task chosen and the way in which it is implemented are among the key issues for effective L2 learning.

We now turn to discuss some of the pedagogical implications for using meaningful tasks in terms of the choice of appropriate tasks, teacher questions, and task implementation in the classroom, respectively.

6.3.2 Appropriate Tasks in the Classroom

The tasks used in this study were form-focused dictogloss and meaning-focused information gap tasks. The former task required collaborative negotiation to solve language problems among peers using L1; the latter tasks, on the other hand, made them use L2 for communication to get information from other peers. Among the information gap tasks, the Picture Differences task was carried out in the form of a race between students to complete the task (spot as many differences as possible), whereas Personal Information Exchange allowed them to ask about and listen to their peers' personal matters. The findings in this study revealed that the students performed more fluently on the Personal Information Exchange task than on the Picture Differences task, regardless of the different types of teacher question functioning as input. This appears to support the hypothesis that a less cognitively demanding task like a personal task could generate more fluency (Foster & Skehan, 1996; Skehan, 2001). However, the findings for the Picture Differences task, which was also supposed to be less cognitively demanding, suggested that students' performances were liable to change depending on the content of the task. That is to say, since the Picture Differences task required learners to spot the differences between pictures that they were given, the extent to which they were familiar with the words representing each item in the picture seemed to determine their performance in terms of complexity (the variety of words used) and associated accuracy and fluency.

Accordingly, it can be suggested that we teachers need to pay careful attention to the content of the task with variety of words and phrases to be elicited, rather than solely to the task type. In fact, low-level EFL learners' L2 performance appears to depend largely on the range of their vocabulary knowledge when it comes to measuring CAF performance, as it is rare that they use fillers and hedges in their speaking activity like ESL learners or native speakers often do.

Besides, it goes without saying that it is crucial to choose an appropriate topic depending on the learners' age and their classroom. For instance, a personal information exchange task could help students in their early teens to produce fluency, since adolescent students tend to be interested in finding their identities and they are familiar with each other in the classroom; however, the topic would not be ideal to facilitate L2 use for students in their late teens in university classes, who are likely to hesitate before revealing their personal information in an L2 class, which normally takes place just once a week. The results of a separate piece of research showed that their participation in such a task was unsuccessful.[12]

6.3.3 Exploiting Teacher Questions in EFL Classrooms

Contrary to the assumption which was made before undertaking the research, that as long as the teacher pays attention to form in communication with students, this might prevent meaning-focused communication from taking place in the classroom or at least might affect learners' performance on communicative tasks, the current study showed that the difference in teacher questions appeared to have little impact on learners' performance. It can be claimed that display questions, which are given to elicit a specific grammatical structure from the students, are still helpful for L2 learning (Ellis, 2012). Particularly, for EFL low-level learners, it is assumed that the teacher's discourse may still function as an input and a speech model in constructing sentences.

Therefore, it is noteworthy that even teacher-centered discourse in the classroom plays an important role as input for EFL students; thus the teacher should also carefully consider the English they use with their students in the L2 classroom. Although the way in which a priming model like teacher questions alone is associated with L2 development is not yet clear (McDonough & Mackey, 2008), it appears to be important from an EFL standpoint that

[12] The findings from another piece of research based on a personal information exchange task I conducted for late teens in university classes revealed low participation in the task, which was insufficient to collect oral data.

clearer input or priming of form be adopted. Otherwise, time for separate meaning-focused and form-focused conversational interaction, in each of which questions result in active learner participation, and tasks for meaning negotiation could be integrated to promote smooth communication. Again, in order to make the classroom more communicative as well as understandable for beginner-level L2 learners, it would be desirable to rethink the function of language which teachers use in a communicative classroom.

To make a classroom more communicative or to make it closer to real life, tapping online and virtual resources can be of help. The next section will discuss the use of technology and tasks in the classroom.

6.3.4 Online Tasks and the Classroom

The first study investigated the possible effects of classroom environment on the ways learners negotiated to complete a collaborative task. The findings showed that both synchronized CMC and FTF have positive impacts on L2 development (Lee, 2010; Ziegler, 2013), namely, FTF communication is not necessarily unbeneficial for second language acquisition. However, in recent years, as the rapid growth of technology has made research into how it intersects with tasks increasingly necessary, technology-mediated task-based language teaching has been productively integrated in the curriculum using various technological tools such as wikis, blogs, CMC, and ICALL (intelligent CALL) to help students engage in more realistic but virtual scenarios "which will definitely provide platforms for interesting tasks and TBLT curriculums" (González-Lloret & Ortega, 2014, p. 16). It would seem that the integration of technology and tasks can be of great help in 'learning while doing', as González-Lloret and Ortega (2014) point out. In fact, it is becoming much easier for students and teachers to utilize online dictionaries and a range of websites to expand their knowledge.

Nevertheless, it is worth recalling that L2 classrooms are the perfect setting for each individual to both absorb input from and influence their peers by imitating and discussing language, which facilitates the development of a bond with other learners. Under such circumstances, it is considered that the face-to-face classroom would be the site in which students could perceive 'experiences of growth for themselves', which would be a different experience from engaging in individual language exercises in front of computer screens.

In fact, there are a number of technology-based resources to utilize for L2 learning; however, what is important to note is the necessity of striking a balance between what we can do on online and in face-to-face communication, depending on our aims. For example, to support the creation of more meaning-focused interactive classrooms, providing assignments for individual exercise via computers could be another option. Ultimately, each classroom environment and set of conditions should be created by the interplay between the teachers and students concerned.

6.4 Concluding Remarks

By providing tasks which are suited to the target learners in terms of topics and design, it is possible to generate successful participation which will facilitate intake of language for EFL learners in the classroom. However, one of the greatest challenges is that in order to apply the theory of TBLT in such an EFL learning setting, creating a more meaning-focused classroom environment is necessary. The first section of this chapter (6.1) attempted to account for how successfully learners engaged in the task from the standpoint of their negotiation, attention to form and meaning, communicative abilities, and their perception of the tasks and L2 development. There was some evidence that they actually paid attention to form and accuracy on both form-focused and meaning-focused tasks. However, it remains uncertain how successfully they achieved L2 development in terms of phrasal verbs and question forms. Moreover, it seems that students actually experienced tasks for L2 learning; however, further investigation of this question with different age and proficiency groups and more longitudinal experiments to demonstrate L2 development are called for.

Nevertheless, it is undoubtedly important for L2 learning to provide tasks which let students interact in the classroom through sharing their stories using some cognitive skills. For these purposes, it is necessary to design tasks with topics which the learners can personalize, as well as language focus and classroom seating plans, which are an urgent necessity for teachers in Japanese educational contexts. It is a great challenge to allow students to experience communication for meaning and to strike the correct balance between accuracy and fluency in English language teaching in Japan. The experiments in this study have raised fundamental issues related to the rationale of TBLT research in our learning contexts.

As for the practical use of tasks in the classroom, there are widespread concerns about whether or not tasks, which go beyond output exercises and activities, work well for L2 Japanese learners who are accustomed to teacher centered traditional classrooms. The findings suggest that, despite the lack of evidence of significant L2 development within a half-year investigation, students' L2 performance is significantly influenced by the type, topic, and content of tasks. Therefore, provided that consideration is given to their appropriate use, it is suggested that tasks will allow meaningful interaction for L2 learning to take place and will promote L2 development, and that teachers can still play a primary role in a learner-centered communicative classroom.

The last chapter summarizes what we have seen in task research in terms of theoretical and methodological frameworks, to 1) recapitulate the findings of the present two experiments, including methodological limitations, and 2) summarize the main points and draw conclusions.

CHAPTER SEVEN

Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

This paper has argued to what extent and how a 'task' is successfully utilized as a meaningful task for language development in the classroom in Japan. Prior to presenting the research, we have considered the background of the task; how the task-based language teaching approach emerged in English language teaching; how a pedagogical task is defined in the theory of SLA; how a task is implemented for L2 development in the classroom; and how the benefits of utilizing a task are explained in terms of one's cognitive process of L2 learning as well as of interactive communications. Concurrently, we have addressed the question of which task variables should be targeted in the current study and surveyed the measurement issues surrounding task research in the classroom, considering which measurement approach could be used to measure L2 development and performance in the classroom settings through different types of tasks.

Prior to investigation of some task variables, this paper has first discussed what a "task" means based on arguments over the task definition among researchers. In general, it seems that a task involves 1) a communicative activity including negotiations, 2) cognitive processes (e.g., obtaining, and storing knowledge, thinking, predicting, researching, planning, solving, and so forth), and 3) pedagogical purposes which correspond with the target learners' needs and proficiency levels (e.g., providing opportunities to learn how or what to say or write if required).

From these points of view, a task is considered to be a perfect device to make learners use L2 in meaningful communication in the classroom, and TBLT is an approach which provides a sequence of tasks in the continuum from input to output for task completion or L2 assessment and in which the role of teacher is to instruct learners rather than teach knowledge. Therefore, some examples of tasks that can be used in the classroom are 1) a task which serves as a rehearsal for the real world (e.g., activities related to job hunting), 2) a communicative task, 3) a narrative task, 4) a picture sequencing task, 5) a descriptive task, 6) map completion, 7) argumentation, 8) role-play, 9) information gap, 10) problem solving, 11) decision making.

Moreover, the main theoretical premise of SLA which lies behind TBLT is explained in the light of attentional mechanism and interactional perspectives. The consensus view is that L2 learning takes place when learners notice the gap between their knowledge and some new information while using L2 in the course of L2 learning. Therefore, a high quality of participation involving small group work is required to help with 'noticing the gap'.

On these grounds, the two pieces of research in the study took measures to identify some of the variables and investigate these through empirical analysis. The first research examined the task delivered via computer-mediated and face-to-face communication in the development of phrasal verbs. Audio-recorded transcription data, which investigated the effects of the different means of communication, aided the interpretation of what students uttered in their communications with peers. The study has shown that there were no significant differences in terms of the means of communication when it came to learning phrasal verbs; however, there were differences in the ways in which learners negotiated for meaning and form while learning phrasal verbs via CMC and FTF communication. The results of this investigation show that technology as a variable may affect the ways learners interact for L2 learning, though we do not have solid evidence of L2 development. Moreover, the evidence suggested that students in the face-to-face classroom had more opportunities to talk about language problems when compared with those in the computer-mediated classroom, in which students did not necessarily focus on language problems but on the negotiation for meaning. In addition, the findings revealed that students in both groups rarely paid attention to the target item, i.e., phrasal verbs, during a dictogloss task.

Since no significant difference was found between the two classroom settings, the subsequent research focused on the face-to-face classrooms, a setting in which the role of the teacher and students' task performance interacted, in order to investigate L2 development and task performance using some different ways of measurement. In this investigation, the aim was to examine the impact of different types of teacher question frequently provided in the classroom, which mostly have the form of referential or display questions as seen in an Initiation–Response–Feedback (IRF) pattern. The second research study used measurements including transcription, coding, and calculation to demonstrate how students performed differently in terms of accuracy and fluency, while the empirical analysis of pre-/post- and delayed-post test design showed how their scores changed within six months of the experiment. Additionally, the course-end questionnaires supplemented the interpretation of the findings. The study found that the difference in teacher questions had no particular impact on L2 development in either written or oral modes, or on subsequent student task performance during lessons in terms of complexity, accuracy and fluency. However, the research also showed that task performance was rather influenced by the topic or contents of the task in which they were included than merely by the task type. These findings suggest the need for a careful consideration of tasks that will fit the learners' profiles in aspects such as age groups, proficiency levels, interest, and pedagogical goals. The findings of this research provide insights into the challenges of measuring task activities that are meaningful to the learners and for L2 development. That is to say, the assessment of task activities has to resort to unorthodox methods which are different from the ones in which learners' output is examined to determine the degree to which it corresponds to what they have received as input. Therefore, task research has also investigated task repetitions and rehearsals to develop aspects of L2 learning in terms of complexity, accuracy, and fluency (e.g., Bygate & Samuda, 2005; Lynch & Maclean, 2000, 2001) and has shown the benefits of these. However, there are challenges involved in examining the effects of tasks in the classroom, the venue in which the dynamic process of language learning happens (Philp, Adams, & Iwashita, 2014) and in which some uncontrollable variables might affect the measurement of L2 performance.

To bring this paper to a close, I summarize the arguments from the following main standpoints: the challenges of task research in the classroom and the findings related to tasks applied in Japanese contexts.

7.2 The Challenges of Task Research in the Classroom

One of the great challenges of task research is that the beneficial role of tasks has been mostly demonstrated in a number of laboratory-based studies. Therefore, a primary interest of the current study was to investigate how tasks worked in the actual classroom. Would a task help Japanese students to successfully take part in interaction in the classroom? Would they collaboratively negotiate with each other for L2 learning? What would they actually negotiate when they encountered language problems? How often or how would they notice the gap in their knowledge and modify errors or mistakes? Which topics would motivate students to become engaged in the task? Which types of task would promote students' engagement? These questions arose from the fundamental issue of whether or not the beneficial findings from laboratory-based research or in ESL contexts can be applied to the Japanese educational context, in which students are familiar with traditional passive L2 lessons where they are given activities in order to perform output exercises. The main goal of the current study was to ascertain the role of the task and L2 learning process in order to examine the ensuing L2 development.

Taking the nature of the classroom into account, the present two studies were designed to determine the effects of some classroom variables: means of communication, task designs including topic familiarity, teacher discourse, and language features. In the course of this process of establishing the ways in which Japanese EFL learners do or do not accommodate themselves to participation in task activities, the supplemental reflective questionnaires were also provided. Since the findings in the current study is based on a small sample of participants, and each classroom had distinct characteristics, the degree to which these results can be generalized is subject to certain limitations. However, a key strength of the present classroom study is its exploration from multiple directions within the dynamic process of learning in order to gain insight into ongoing L2 learning. It is suggested exploring the process of L2 development by means of a combination of different measurement methods to provide information about how language is learnt in the light of EFL learners' interlanguage, as studied in the SLA discipline. Continued efforts are needed to make task research in the classroom more accessible for teachers, allowing them to make the most suitable use of it for their learners.

7.3 The Application of Tasks for L2 Development in Japanese Contexts

Despite the advantages of tasks for L2 acquisition shown in a considerable volume of literature, another challenge in this study was to determine whether the same gains were observed in Japanese classroom settings, where the majority of beginning-level English learners study mainly for the purposes of language examinations rather than out of a need to communicate with people from other countries. The role of tasks in instructed second language acquisition is to motivate learners to use and perform the target language through activities in which they engage in the meaningful use of language (Van den Branden et al., 2007); in ELT practice and methodology, on the other hand, specific tasks are actually set in relation to the curriculum with the goal of using a selected target feature of language discourse and raising learners' awareness with regard to specific linguistic items through exchanging information (Bygate & Norris, 2009; Ellis, 1999; Long, 1985, 2014; Nunan, 1989; Van den Branden, 2006). Nevertheless, the findings from these two pieces of classroom research suggested ways in which tasks should be applied in the EFL educational context, as follows.

7.3.1 Negotiation in Tasks Performed via CMC Communication

The first study investigated how learners negotiated in CMC communication compared with FTF communication. The findings observed in this study demonstrated no significant difference in the development of phrasal verbs; however, it may be argued that the difference between the media did significantly affect how learners negotiated in carrying out the dictogloss task. What was clear was that students in the CMC group needed to spend a significant amount of time on negotiation for meaning in order to avoid communication breakdown, whereas those in the FTF group did not have the same need, since they could rely on non-verbal communication for clarification. It is somewhat surprising that the participants in the computer-mediated group, who had to use a headset for communication, concentrated mainly on negotiation over the sounds they had heard, rather than negotiation over lexical and other grammatical forms. This was contrary to the findings in the face-to-face group, who had available to them gestures, eye contact and scribbling to confirm the content of their negotiations.

These results may likely to be related also to the participants' proficiency level: thus, further research should be carried out into low-level learners' L2 task performance. In addition, since there are few studies which focus on phrasal verbs through tasks, it would be worthwhile to explore the acquisition of phrasal verbs, which are commonly used in communication yet not easy to acquire for EFL learners, through interactive learning.

A further implication of the findings may relate to the existing potential for the integration of new technologies into task-based language teaching, a well-theorized approach to language education (Van den Branden et al., 2009). As González-Lloret and Ortega (2014) claim, if task-and-technology integrations are properly motivated by TBLT theory which fosters "learning by doing" (Dewey, 1963), we would argue that they can raise students' motivation to take risks and be creative while using language to create meaning. Considering in particular the benefits of TBLT in foreign language classrooms such as those in Japan, where both input-providing (e.g. reading and listening tasks) and output-prompting for '*use*' are required for beginners to develop their proficiency (Ellis, 2009), it can be assumed that the use of more innovative technologies, instead of traditional textbooks, might shed more light on the process of L2 learning. In t

that there were no significant differences between the three groups studied (those using textbook only, using tasks only, and using tasks and technology) in the development of narrative tenses, and student satisfaction depended on the task design itself rather than the digital tools. Thus, more research on this topic needs to be undertaken. There is abundant room for further investigation of the effectiveness of TBLT in EFL classrooms, which is widely criticized as being less effective for beginners, who may need organized instruction in the new language (Solares, 2014; Swan, 2005), as well as for the exploration of the association between tasks and technology in L2 learning.

7.3.2 Attention to Form and Meaning

Unlike the first study, in which a form-focused task (dictogloss) was undertaken in a CMC setting, the second study investigated face-to-face classrooms where the teacher-student interaction phase and learner-learner interaction phase of the task were each planned. The study examined the role of teacher questions in the former phase: those used for meaningful conversation related to the real world (referential questions) and for ostensible conversation to check students' understanding based on the authorized textbook (display questions). It was initially assumed that teacher questions might serve as a model or input for EFL learners and could also be reflected in the learners' L2 production. For EFL learners who have limited exposure to the language in their daily life, it is understandable that they tend to pay attention to 'learning' language in order to make progress rather than to 'using' language for communication, and expect to benefit even from the teacher's oral input. Interestingly enough, the results showed no significant differences between the different types of question. In addition, the findings showed that the Referential Groups economized words in their responses in order not to disrupt ongoing meaningful communication through unnecessary language errors, which is the way we naturally communicate in our daily life. The results further lead us to consider the different ways to develop accuracy and fluency respectively in language learning. Would it be too much to ask for simultaneous development in terms of accurate and fluent language use?

7.3.3 Accuracy and Fluency

The most significant finding that stemmed from the study was that task performance in terms of complexity, accuracy and fluency supported the Trade-off Hypothesis (Skehan, 1998). Interestingly, the most salient difference found between the two tasks was in the area of fluency. The personal information exchange task apparently enabled learners to speak more fluently, since they were willing to speak about themselves and to get to know each other. That is to say, the results suggest that language emerges when speakers become interested or feel a necessity for 'meaningful' conversation.

However, these data must be interpreted with caution because the participants were low-level English beginners and their output performance was very limited in terms of lexical complexity; consequently, accuracy scored highly, which eventually supported Skehan's (1998) Hypothesis that complexity and accuracy trade off against each other. Besides, it is questionable whether the fluency measured in their performance actually represented genuine fluency, since the current study used breakdown fluency for measurement purposes due to the students' low proficiency level. Further research focusing on the relationships between various proficiency stages and learners' task performance is therefore called for.

7.4 Concluding Remarks

Task research in the classroom is valuable in making the most of L2 learning in this context "not because it tells teachers how to teach but because it serves as a resource for raising awareness about teaching and, thereby, for developing reflective practice" (Ellis, 2012, p. 348). Most importantly, it is indispensable in bridging the gap between theory and practice.

I have been concerned about this gap since I started studying the SLA discipline because without substantive data from teachers and learners, the theory seems to run the risk of becoming an armchair theory, divorced from investigations which seek to discover the processes of language learning.

Meanwhile, the most challenging aspect of SLA research is that language development is a dynamic process of acquiring abstract rules while, at the same time, the emergence of language abilities is elusive in real time, as was noted by Larsen-Freeman (2012). Indeed, language learning ta

outcomes are necessarily associated with L2 development. In fact, the findings showed that the students who engaged in referential questions with the teacher produced a significantly greater total number of words despite giving one-word responses, yet this did not translate into any negative impacts on their written or oral performances when compared with those of

main clause

reproduction. It may be necessary to pay greater attention to what is happening in the

l as the oral outcome. Since language is thought to be related to the

meaningful, cognitive learning processes, in the sequence of input, intake and output plus feedback, may be happening in individuals. Besides, with respect to interactions in the lassroom, students try to listen carefully to and mimic other peers' utterances, which is often overlooked by the teacher. Further investigation is required to identify classroom dynamic interactions beneficial for L2 development.

Lastly, there were inevitable operational limitations on the implementation of the experiments and on the generation of concrete findings on a scale sufficient to permit generalization. As is often the case with classroom research, in which various variables cannot be fully controlled like those in laboratory-based studies, there is no clear-cut distinction between the input phase with a teacher, which usually takes place separately from task engagement to impart knowledge of language as a system, and the output phase during task engagement. However, the particular value of these studies is that they permit practitioners and researchers to know and understand what happens in the process of language learning in real classrooms day by day. It is important to take into account that the quality of the input to the learner is generated within a dynamic whole lesson, which can be a central variable in second language outcome, and the findings must be interpreted cautiously (Gass & Selinker, 2008).

From the educational point of view, there is a conflict in research between the aim of providing positive evidence that learning occurrs in a classroom (e.g., some long-term effects) and the aim of examining the impact of specific instructional practices on language learning to get a better understanding of how instruction works and how it facilitates learning. Although the two experiments in this study aimed for the latter, classroom research always has to admit an educational perspective and operational limitations to meet the demand of each institution, thus trade-offs had to be made between research design and research operation in controlling for some other variables.

Notwithstanding these operational limitations, the findings from this study provide insights for language research and pedagogy. Obviously, they do not solve pedagogic problems and cannot be simply applied to every teaching situation; rather, they provide evidence obtained in specific teaching contexts and indicate possible benefits for further exploration (Widdowson, 2003). It is eventually up to teachers themselves to decide whether or not these findings are relevant to their own teaching contexts (Ellis, 2012).

Overall, this study has undoubtedly contributed to the understanding and future development of English language teaching in the Japanese educational context, which is distinct from ESL settings in terms of a number of conditions and factors. In particular, this study has confirmed that it is necessary to make greater use of meaningful activities for L2 learners in a classroom in which dynamic interactions take place in order to generate more creative language use, striking a good balance between meaning and form. Ultimately, providing motivational grounds for the use of English in real communication (Harada, 2016) depends largely on the creation of contexts in which students can embrace intellectual excitement as well as experiences of personal growth (Prahb, 1987). For these reasons, pedagogical tasks play a significant role in making language learning more exciting for teenagers in L2 classrooms in Japan, provided that such tasks are carefully considered from the standpoint of growth through the mental exercise of learning languages (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011).

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Appendix A: Priming Task Sheet for phrasal verb quiz -Dictogloss Exercise

Dictogloss Exercise

1. That tie____________________that shirt.

2. This wine ________________________ seafood.

3. Are you__________________anyone?

1. Please close the door as you__________.

2. How about _______________for a meal after work?

3. From that day we began_____________ together.

Appendix B: Priming Task Sheet - “Wordle”

Camel Riding and Multi-tasking

[Part 1]

Oliver: Hi, Mum.

Sophie: Hello, love, what are you doing?

Oliver: I'm studying, Mum. I've got a big exam tomorrow.
What about you?

Sophie: Oh Ollie, I just had to phone you. I'm riding a camel at the pyramids!

Oliver: Cool.

Sophie: I'm with a tour group. We're having a great time! We're all riding camels and the sun's shining. Oh, it's fantastic, Ollie!

Oliver: Lucky you!

[Part 2]

Sophie: So, are you working hard for the exam?

Oliver: I'm ______________________________, Mum!

Sophie: What's Daisy doing now? Is she at home?

Oliver: No, she's at tennis practice.

Sophie: Of course she is. OK, I've got to go.
____ the phone! Bye, love.

Oliver: Bye, Mum.

The swimming hat

Daisy: Hi, I'm home!

Oliver: Hi there, I didn't know you were out.

I thought you were still in bed.

What have you got that bag for?

____?

Daisy: I've been swimming!

This is the new me.

No more lying in bed on Sunday mornings.

I want to get fit again.

It's been a long, lazy summer!

Oliver: Oh yeah? What's all that about?

Or rather ....

____?

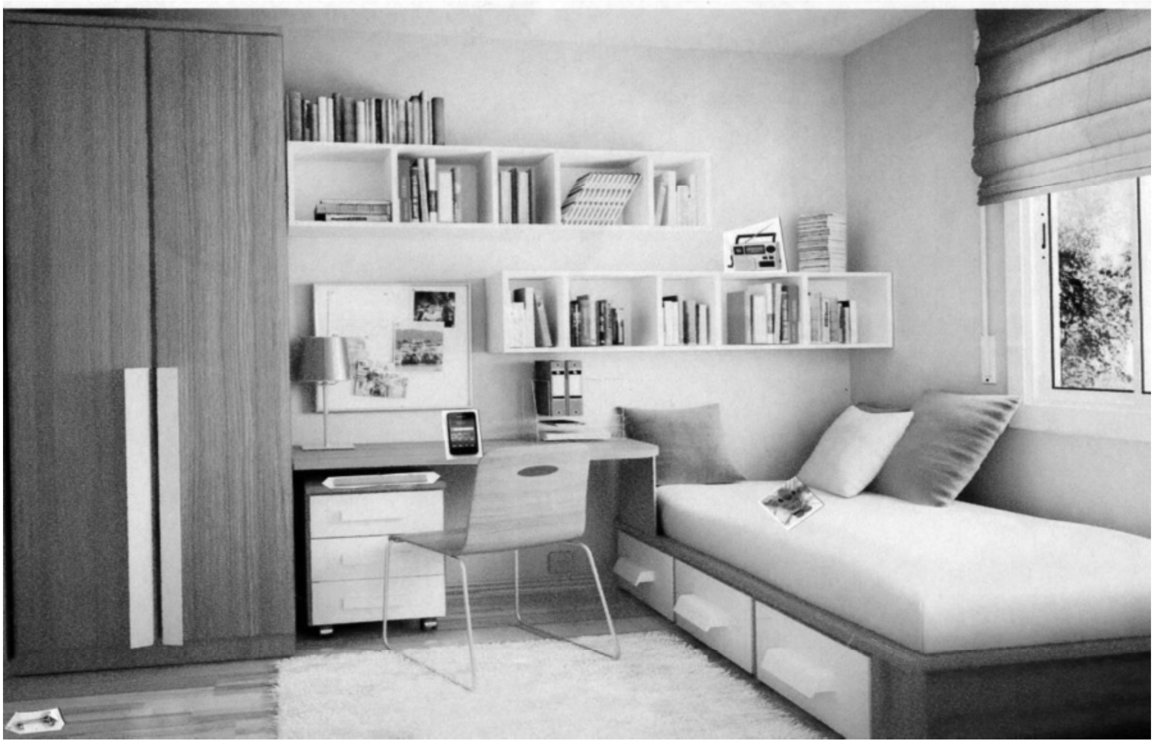
Daisy: No one! I went with a new girl in my class – Amy. She's cool.

Anyway, ______________________________________ ?

____so late?

____ last night?

Appendix E: Picture Differences Task in spring - “Study Room”

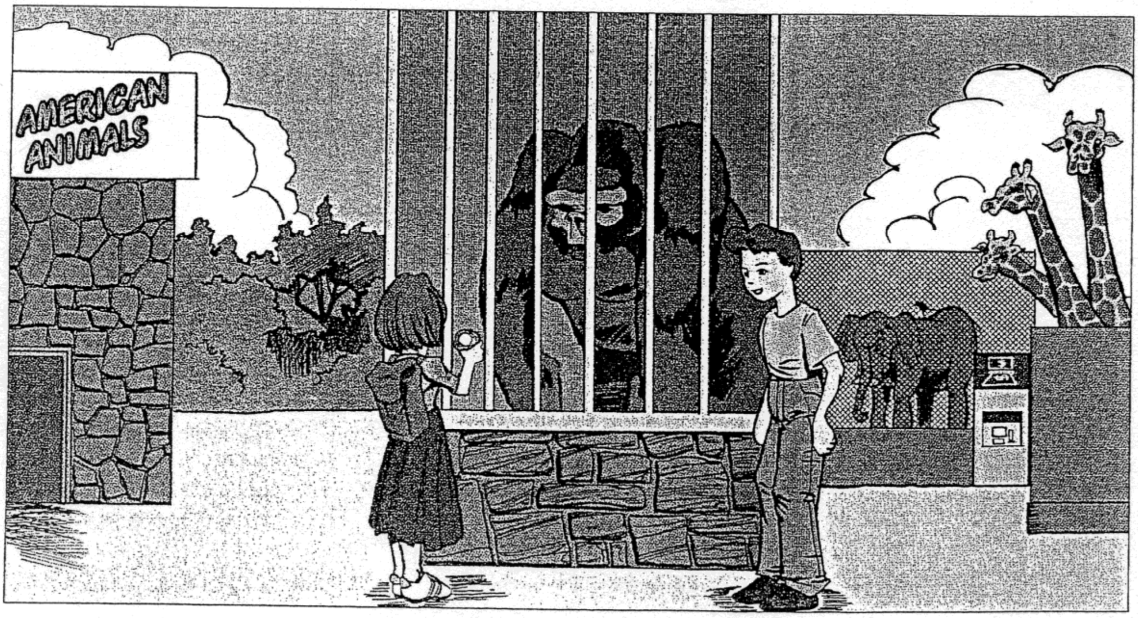


Appendix F: Picture Differences Task in spring - "Zoo"

Communicative activity 4

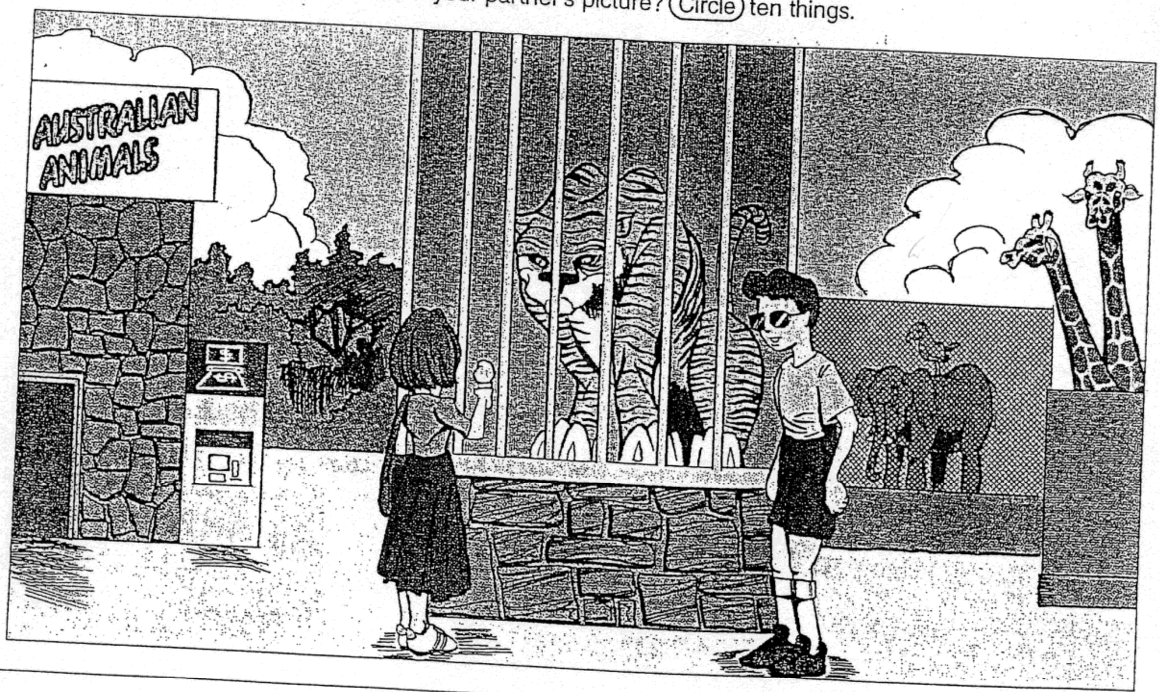
Different pictures

Talk to your partner. What's different in your partner's picture? Circle ten things.

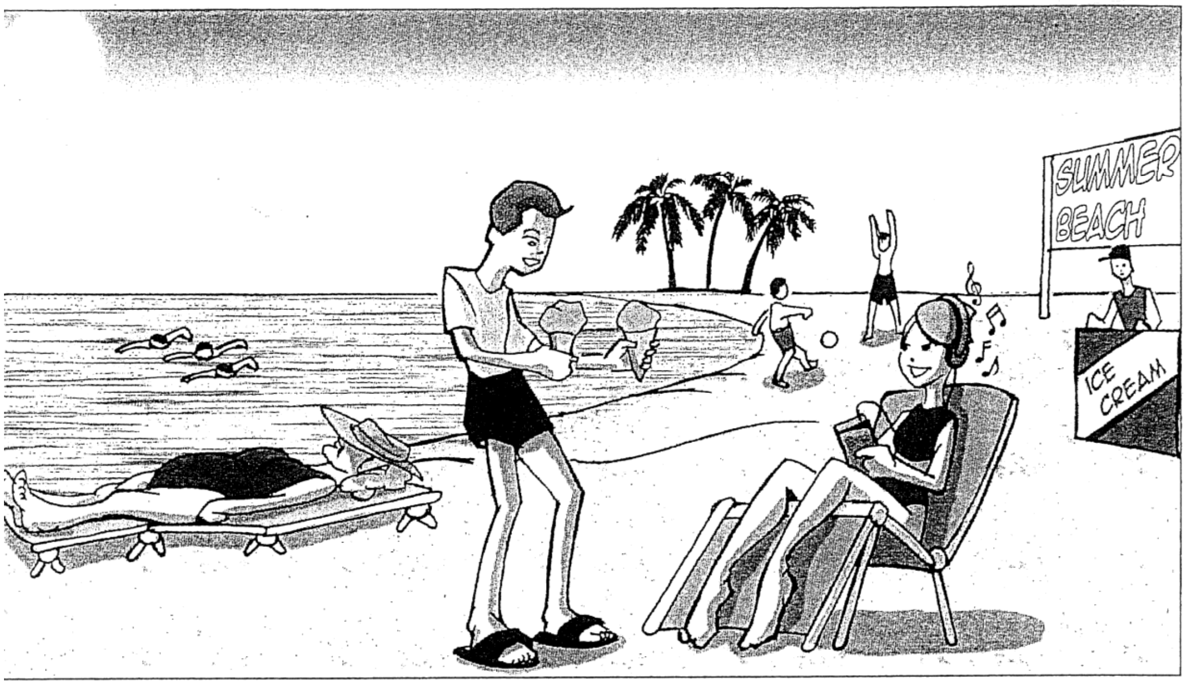


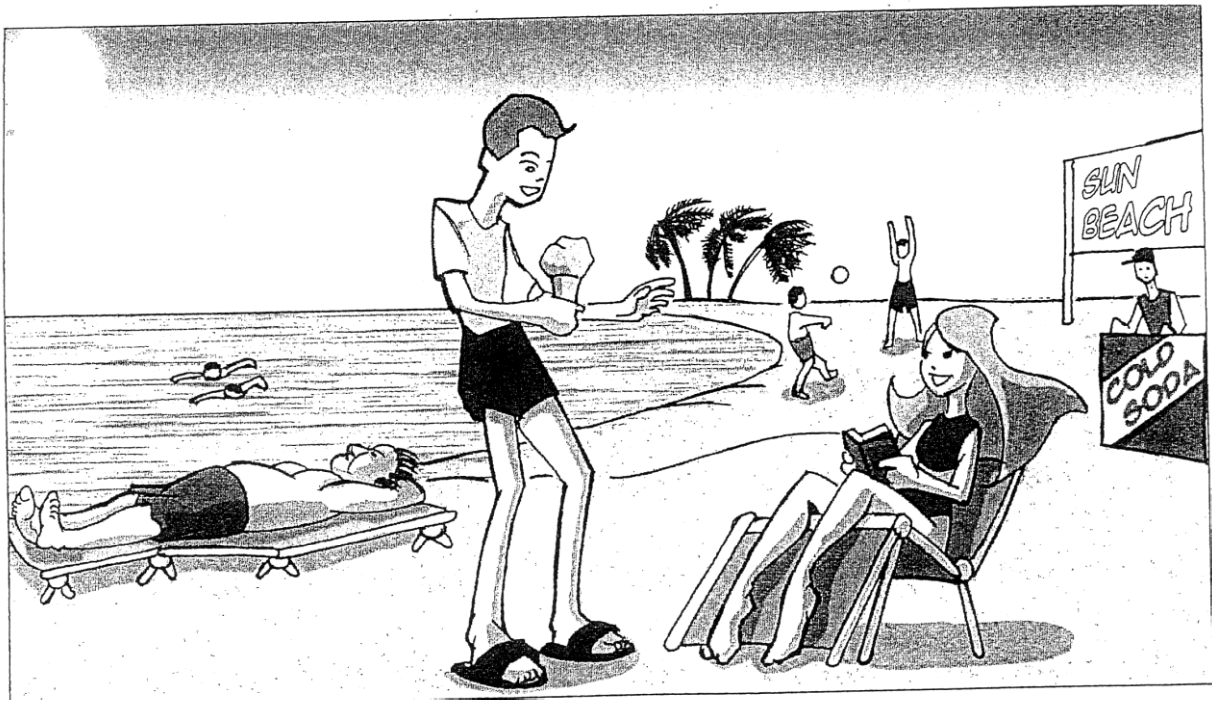
Different pictures

Talk to your partner. What's different in your partner's picture? Circle ten things.



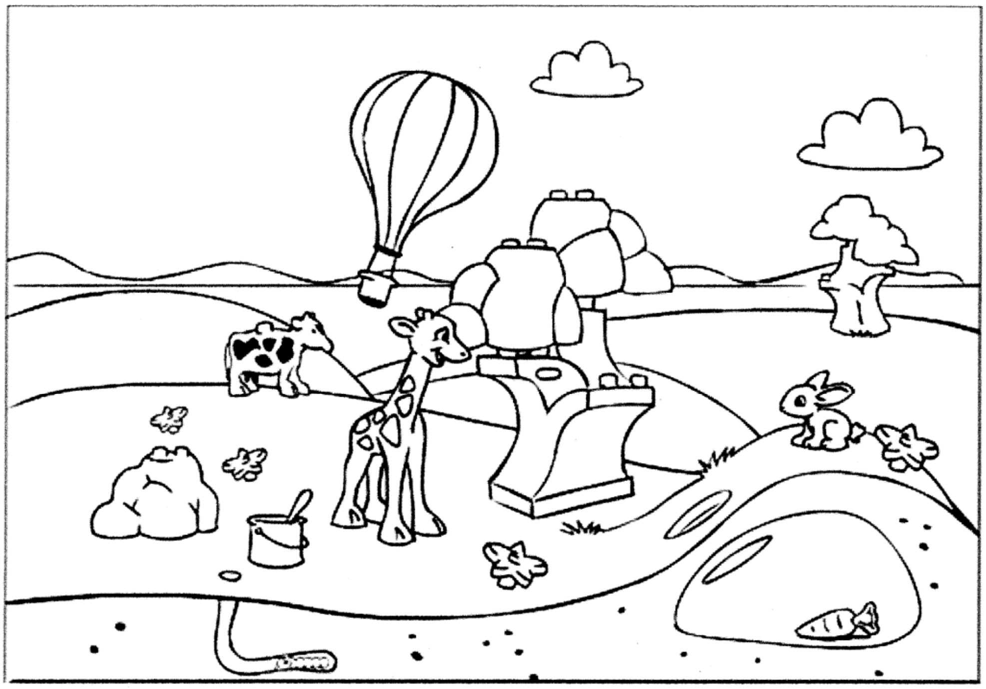
Appendix G: Picture Difference Task in spring - "Beach"

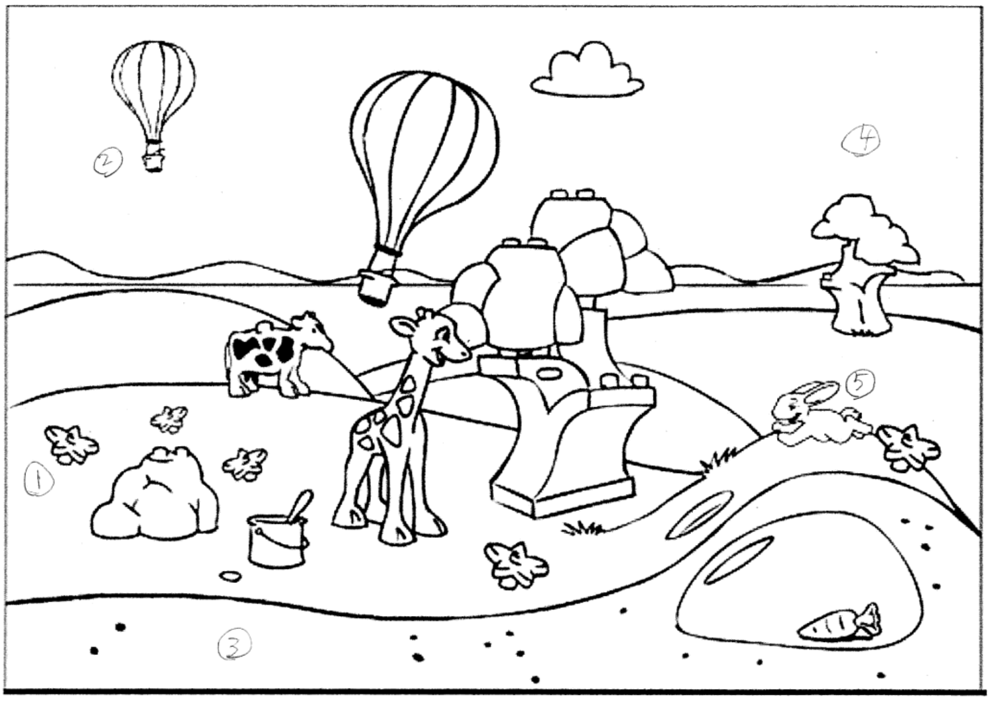




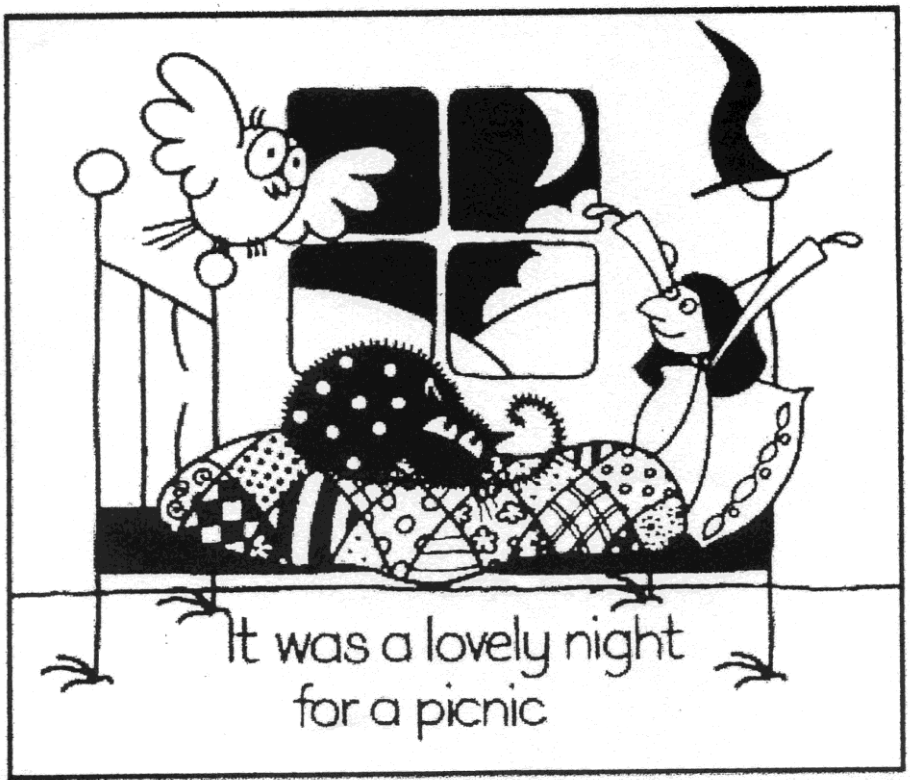
Appendix H: Picture Differences Task in autu mn - “Animal”

SPOT 5 DIFFERENCES!

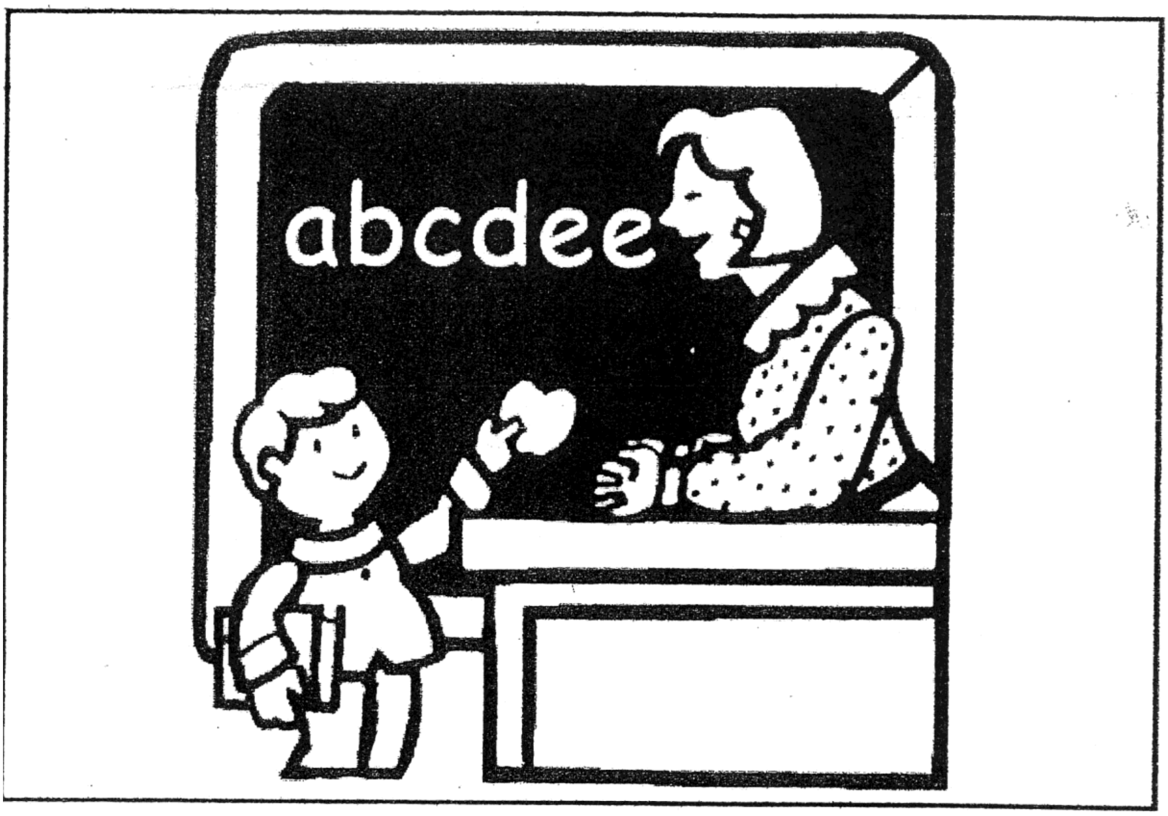


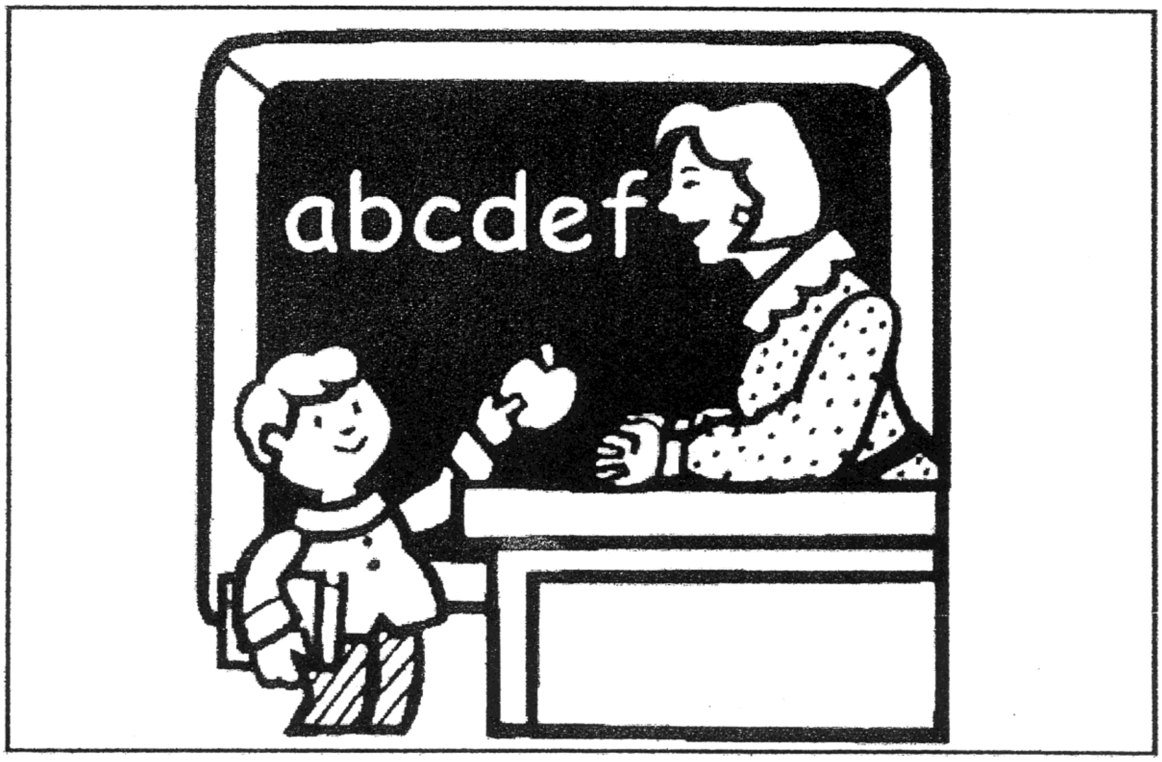


Appendix I: Picture Differences Task in autumn session - “Bed room”

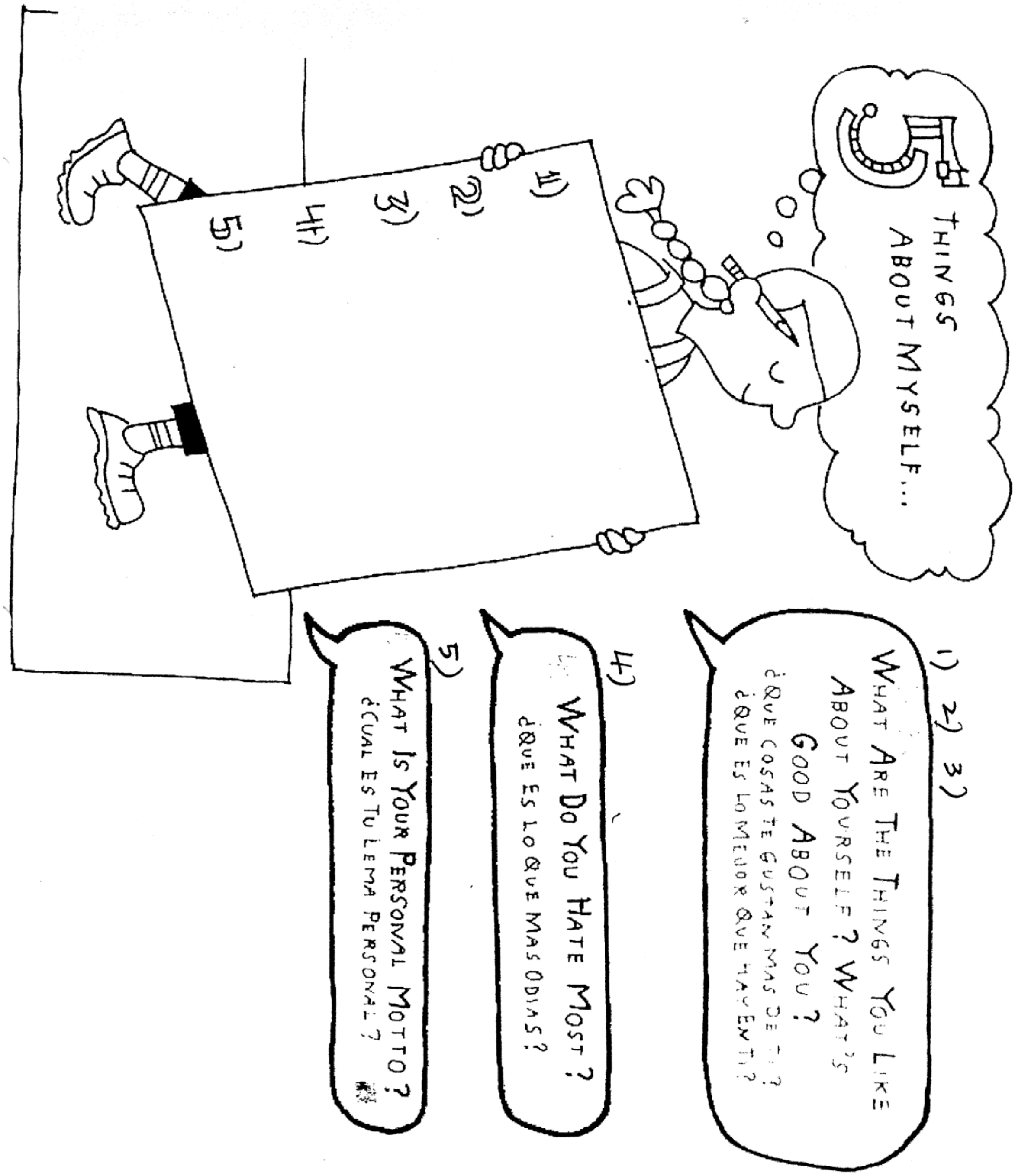


Appendix J: Picture Difference Task in autumn - “A Teacher & a Student”

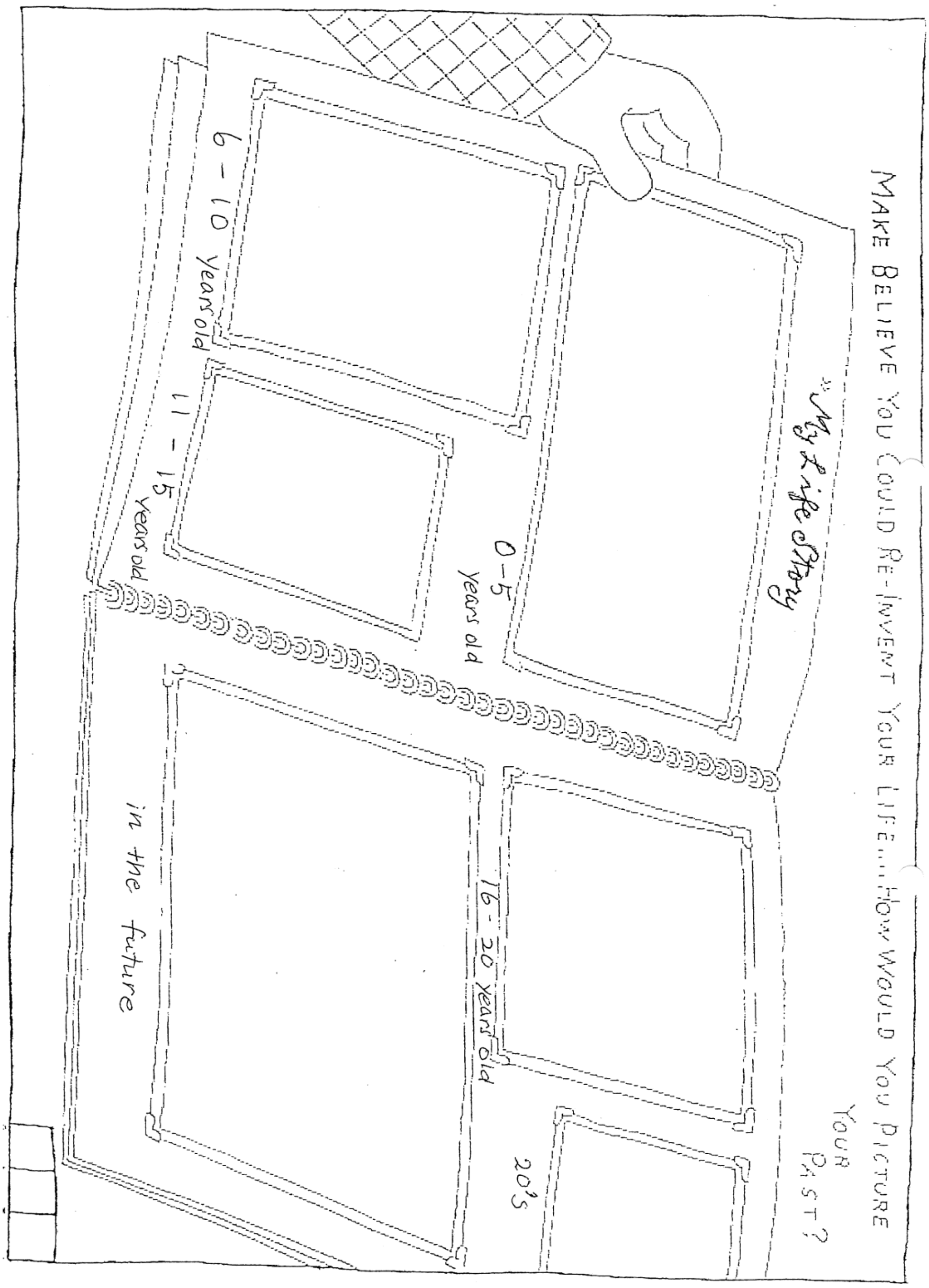




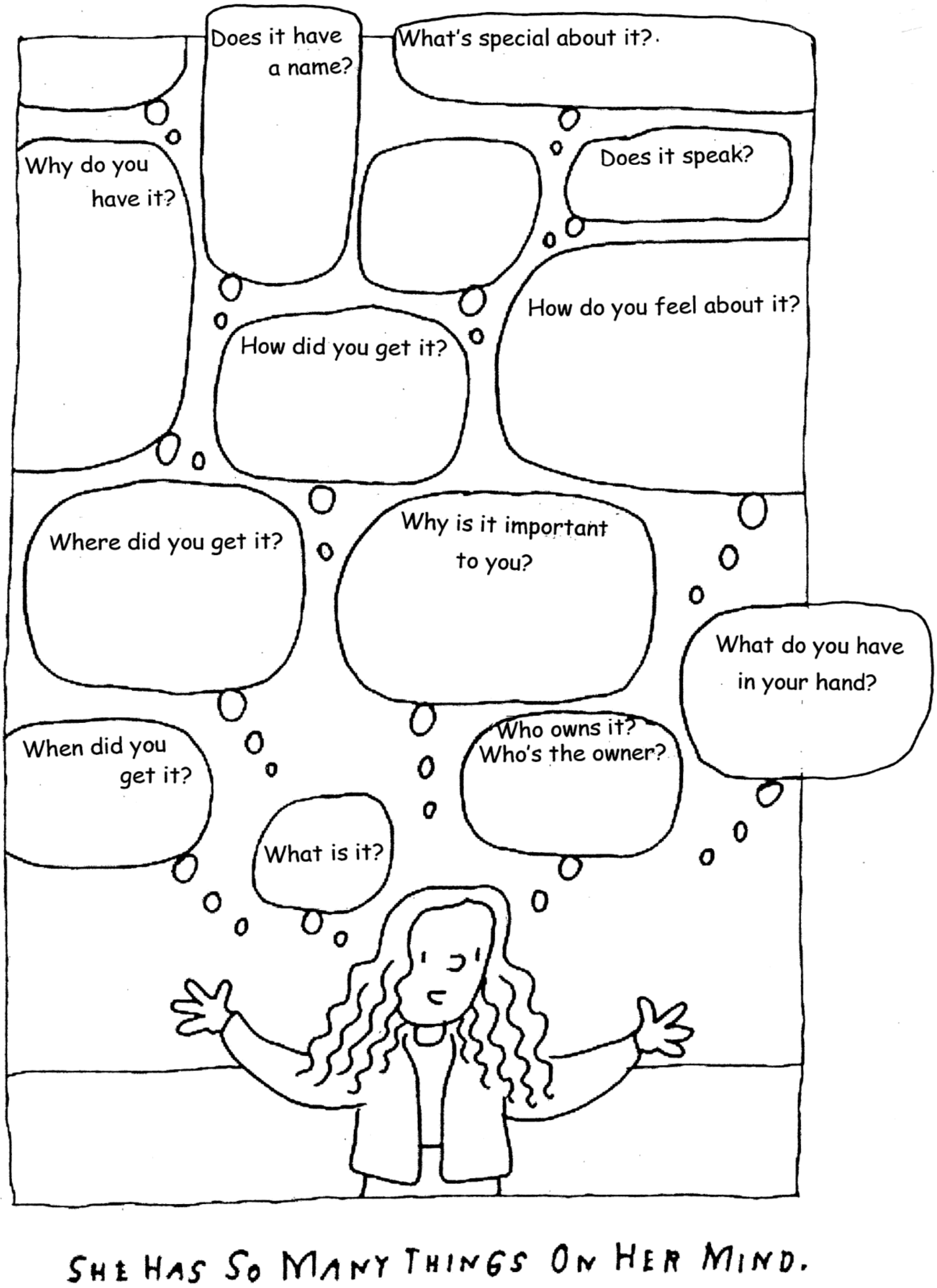
Appendix K: Personal Information Exchange Task in spring - "About Myself"



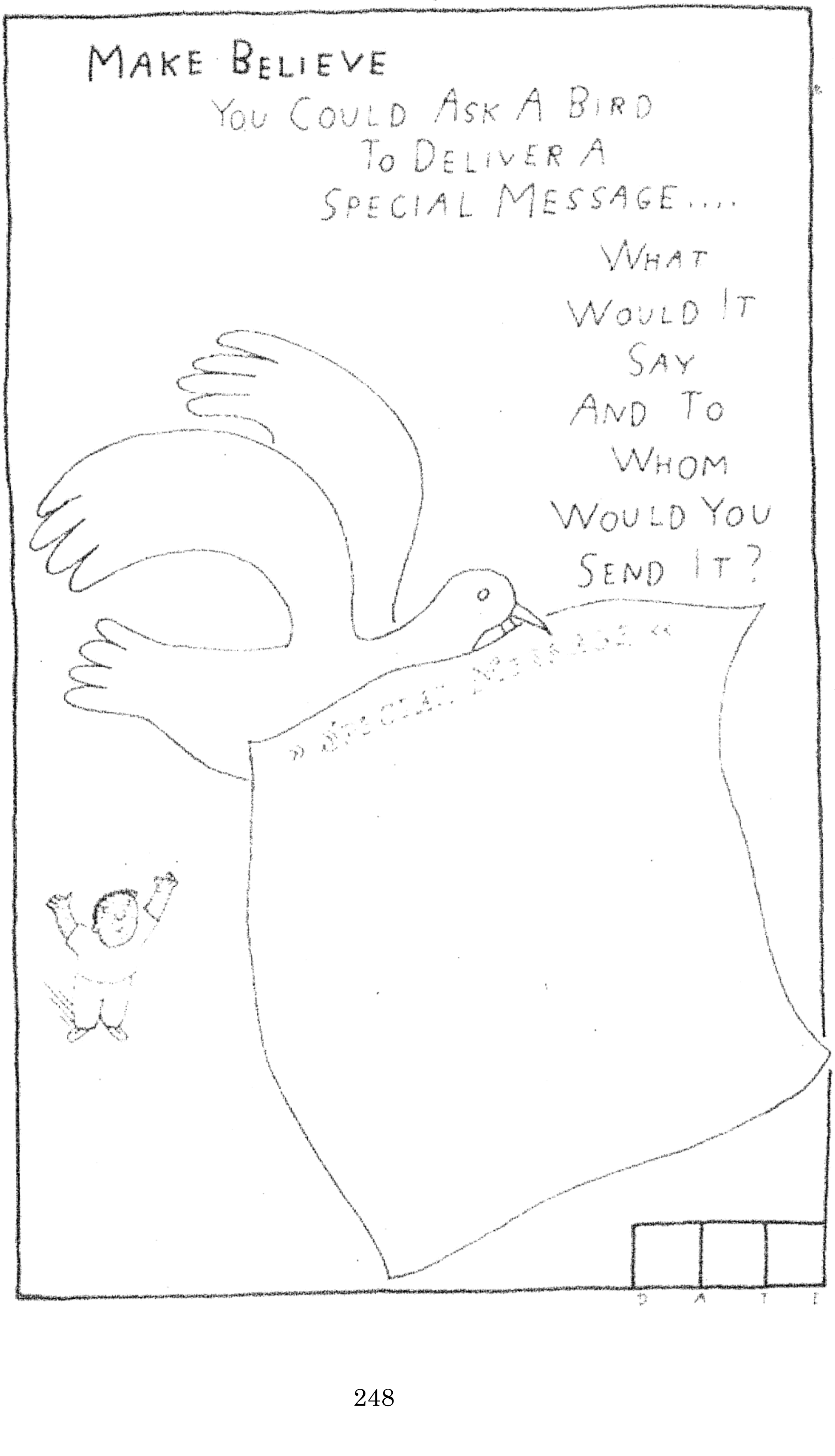
Appendix L: Personal Information Exchange Task in spring - “My Life Story”



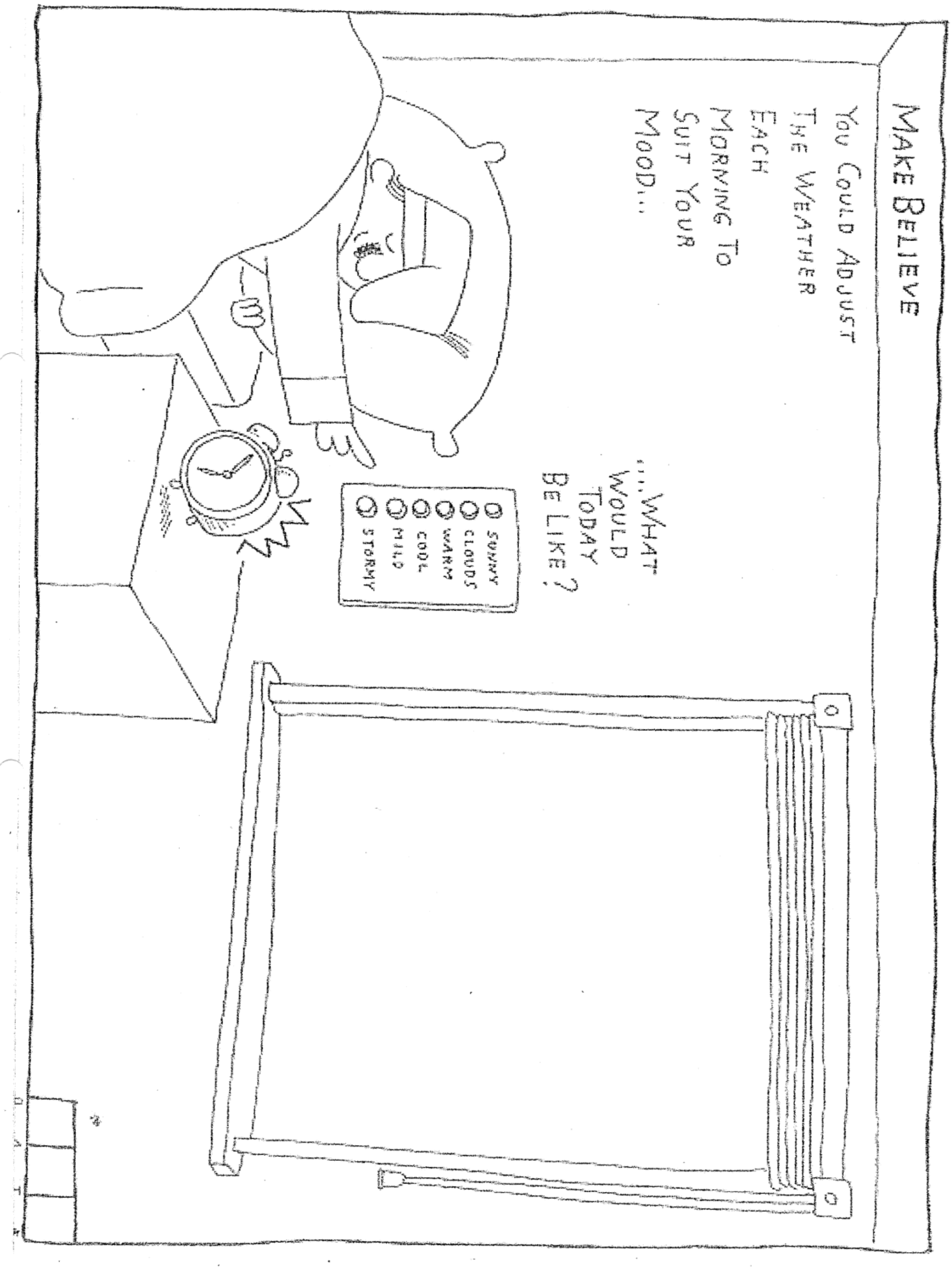
Appendix M: Personal Information Exchange Task in spring - “Things on the Mind”



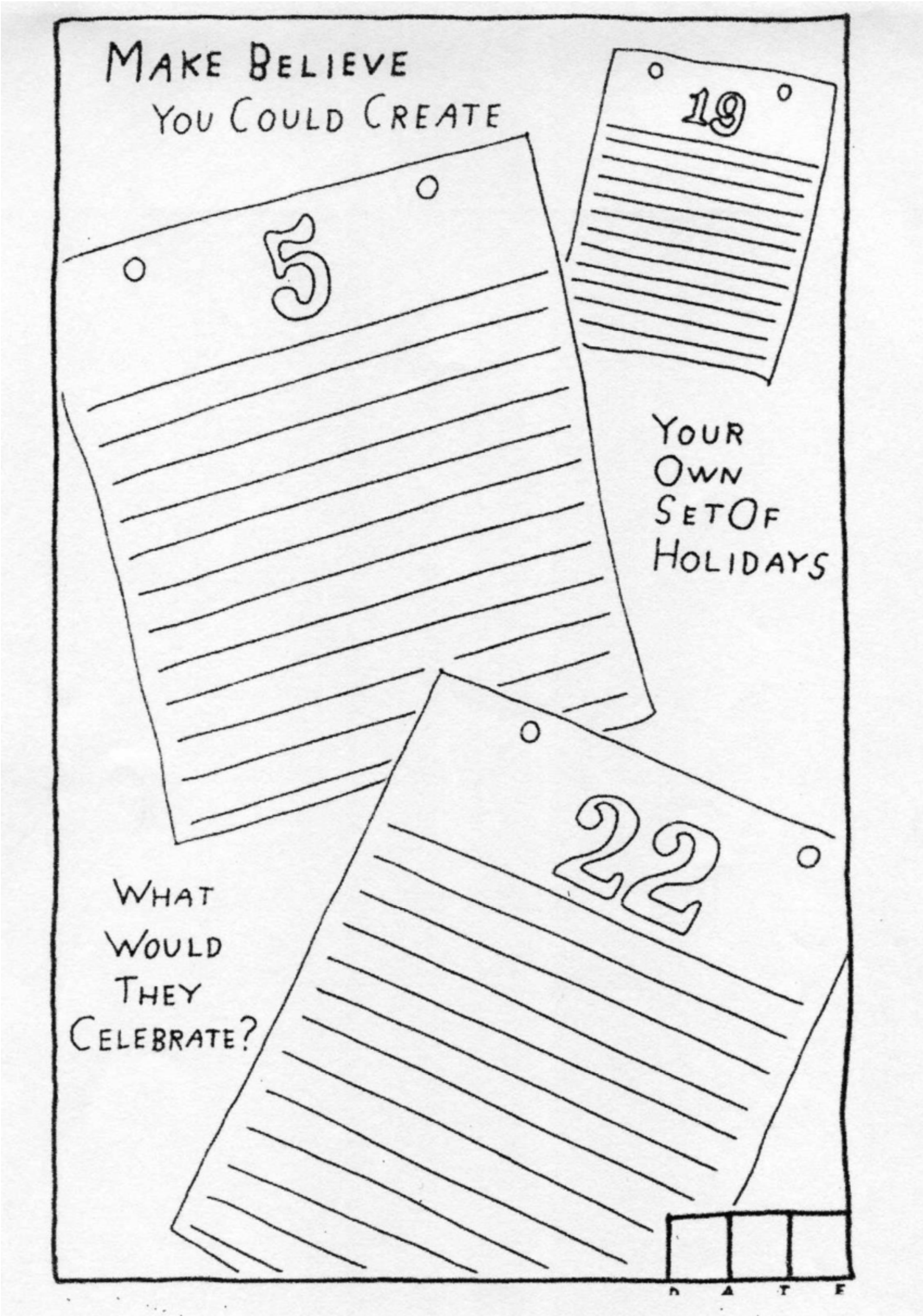
Appendix N: Personal Information Exchange Task in autumn - "Make Believe"



Appendix O: Personal Information Exchange Task in autumn - “Make Believe”



Appendix P: Personal Information Exchange Task in autumn - "Make Believe"



Appendix Q: Oral Test Task Sheet - “All about myself”

All about myself   Name:____________________

Favorite word:____________________________

Least favorite word:____________________________

When I grow up, I want to be:____________________________

Favorite snack:____________________________

Favorite book:____________________________

Favorite holiday:____________________________

Favorite food:____________________________

Least favorite food:____________________________

Favorite memory:____________________________

Things that describe me: ____________________________

Appendix R: Written tests for phrasal verbs

The first semester term-end exam

Student ID Name

以下の文の下線部が適切だと思うものには○、適切でないと思うのには×をしてください。

1. If you work hard here you can really get ahead.
2. My parents didn't earn much money when I was a child, but we got about. earn:稼ぐ
3. The train from Osaka gets on at 9 am.
4. Now I have a car I can get by much more easily.
5. I really get along with my boss. She's wonderful!
6. The opportunity to work there came about because I was lucky. opportunity:機会
7. He doesn't like the idea now, but he'll come around eventually. eventually:結局は
8. I don't feel very well. I think I'm coming across a cold. a cold:風邪
9. I've just come up with an amazing idea! amazing:驚くべき
10. I come down with this ring when I was cleaning the house. Is it yours?
11. He robbed three banks, and was put away for fifteen years. rob banks: 銀行強盗をする
12. They don't have a good marriage. He puts her up a lot. marriage:結婚
13. When you go camping, you need to know how to put down a tent. go camping:キャンプに行く
14. Lots of business went under during the economic recession. economic recession:景気後退
15. I could never do you job! How do you put up with working so early in the morning? job:仕事
16. Do you want to come over for a cup of tea?
17. When you go camping, you need to know how to set up a tent.
18. Hang in a minute. I'll be with you in a moment!
19. How was your weekend? ---I was hanging on at home.
20. You should back up your computer.

1

The first semester term-end exam

21. The business didn't take over until we published an advert in the newspaper. an advert: 広告
22. My football club has been taken after by a rich businessman.
23. John takes after his father much more than his mother.
24. I've taken up the guitar so that I can play some good songs.
25. Toyota is about to open a new factory and take on 2000 new workers. factory:工場
26. The police are looking into the murder. murder:殺人
27. If you're not sure, look it up on Wikipedia.
28. That little girl really looks down on her elder brother.
29. Older students look up to us just because we're younger than them.
30. Don't worry --- I'll look after you if you're not feeling well. not feel well: 具合が悪い
31. Could you go to the convenience store? We've run out of milk. convenience store: コンビニ
32. Switch off when you're not using it, or the batteries will run up. batteries:バッテリー
33. I'm afraid we've run through a problem. I'm afraid:ではないかと思う problem:問題
34. Okay everyone, let's just run up against the plan one last time. one last time:最後にもう一度
35. I ran into my old friend on my way home today. on my way home:帰宅途中
36. They're waiting for me to get off the phone!
37. Sophie goes out amazing trips.
38. The airline was so nice, put me on Business Class.
39. The cat jumped of a tree and onto the car.
40. You two are crazy! Come in, I can't stay long. I've got swimming practice at 7:00.

2

Appendix S: Written tests for question forms

会話が成立するように､1から20の答えに対する問いを正しく並べかえてください。
（文頭は大文字で!）

1 (your birthday is when) ? — It' s October 24^{th}.

2 (what do you time get usually up) ? — At 6:00.

3 (is the where pet shop)? — It's on the next street.

4 (his birthday is in July?) — Yes, it is.

6 (is that who girl)? — She is Betty.

7 (have do good you news)? — Yes, I do.

8. (he for the concert have tickets does)? — No, he doesn't .

9 (go to school did yesterday you)? — Yes, I did.

10 (the pencil case is on the table) ? — Yes, it is.

11 (your pencil case is much how)? — It's 1000yen.

12 (like *okonomiyaki* mother your does)? — Yes, she does.

13 (are how today you)? — I'm fine, thank you.

14 (you do like music why)? — Because it makes me happy

15 (do feel what you) when you win the concert? — I'm so happy!

16 (you think do what about Mozart)? — I think he is great

17 (many days how there are in a week)? — There're 7days.

18 (kind of music do you what like)? — I like classical music.

19 (do you which like , blue or pink)? — I like blue.

20 (the weather today is how)? — It's cloudy.

I 会話が成立するように、左の質問に対する答え(a から j)を選んでください。

1____ When's her birthday?	a. No, it's on the 6^{th}.
2____ When are their birthdays?	b. It's in the bag.
3____ Are their birthdays in October?	c. Yes, it is.
4____ Is his birthday in July?	d. Their birthdays are in June.
5____ Is your birthday on September 5^{th}?	e. No they aren't. They're in November.
6____ Where's the pet shop?	f. It's next to the book shop.
7____ Where's the gym?	g. It's on the second floor.
8____ Are there any movie theater?	h. They're on the table.
9____ Where are the pens?	i. No there aren't any.
10____ Is the pencil case on the table?	j. It's in May.