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THE TIMING OF EXPLICIT FORM-FOCUSED INSTRUCTION AND ITS IMPACT ON TASK OUTCOMES

MARTIN LESLIE HAWKES

Doctor of Philosophy

Aston University

March 2018

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Thesis summary

This thesis reports a descriptive classroom-based study which directly investigated the impact which the position of an explicit instruction stage had on aspects of task performance. Audio recordings of interaction were collected for two different tasks from four intact Japanese university classes of English learners. Classes received the explicit instruction of useful forms either before, during, or after a communicative task. A repeat task was conducted one week after the initial session to look for any lasting effects of the instruction. The audio data were transcribed and primarily analysed using inductive qualitative techniques within a cumulative case study approach which allowed for the quantification of certain features of interest.

The findings indicated that the explicit teaching stage impacted the orientation of participants, which was manifested in the presence of certain features of task interaction including minimalisation, self-correction, disfluency markers, and mining. The position of the instruction had a strong influence on task performance: Participants who received pre-task instruction tended to orient towards target form production during the main task, while the post-task participants appeared more oriented towards meaning and task completion. However, these effects were not universal, and the true influence of the instruction was somewhat more nuanced. Orientations were dynamic, shifting from one focus to another as interactions evolved. In addition to the apparent influence on orientation, there was also some evidence of an impact on medium-term acquisition, indicated by the continued accurate use of target forms during the repeat task.

While the cumulative data revealed some general patterns that existed within classes, there was a great deal of individual difference between participants and groups of participants. It seems that it was the individual learner, rather than the teaching approach, that dictated for the most part how the tasks were undertaken.

The findings of this study suggest that instead of aligning ourselves with one, often dogmatic, approach to language teaching, practitioners should remain flexible and pragmatically adjust their teaching methods and techniques according to the inherent features of specific tasks, as well as individual learners and groups of learners.

Key words: task-based language teaching; task interaction; explicit teaching; orientation; minimalisation.

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank my supervisor Dr. Sue Garton for her invaluable advice and encouragement over the five years of this project. Whenever the research reached a dead end or existential crisis (i.e. data meltdown), Sue could always manage to get me back on track. Doing a PhD by distance can be a lonely endeavour, but it was made a little easier by chats over chai and coffee with my friend and fellow Aston PhD student Richard. Thanks must also go to Tomoko, Leon, and Louis for their patience and understanding in giving me time to complete this thesis. It has been a long wait, but, as promised boys, let's get started on that new Zelda game...

LIST OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	12
1.1 BACKGROUND	12
1.2 AIMS OF THE STUDY	13
1.3 THESIS STRUCTURE	14
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	16
2.1 THE DEVELOPMENT OF TASK-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING	16
2.2 DEFINING TASK	18
2.3 FRAMEWORKS FOR TASKS IN LANGUAGE TEACHING	21
2.3.1 Approaches with a strong focus on meaning	21
2.3.1.1 <i>Minimalisation and indexicality</i>	22
2.3.2 Interaction and focus-on-form	23
2.3.2.1 <i>Empirical studies of interaction and focus-on-form</i>	24
2.3.2.2 <i>Issues with TBLT and focus-on-form</i>	26
2.3.3 Explicit attention to form in TBLT: Pre-task approaches	27
2.3.4 Explicit attention to form in TBLT: During-task approaches	31
2.3.5 Explicit attention to form in TBLT: Post-task approaches	33
2.4 RESEARCHING TEACHING APPROACHES INVOLVING TASKS	35
2.4.1 Product-oriented studies	36
2.4.2 Process-oriented studies	36
2.5 INHERENT FEATURES OF PEDAGOGICAL TASKS	38
2.6 CONCLUSION	40
CHAPTER 3: METHODS	41
3.1 SITUATING THIS RESEARCH	41
3.1.1 Classroom research	41
3.1.2 From research paradigm to methodology	43
3.1.3 Approaches to analysis: Investigating learner-learner task interaction	46
3.2 PARTICIPANTS AND CONTEXT	47
3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN	50
3.4 SELECTING TASKS AND TARGET FORMS	52
3.4.1 Task 1: <i>Cinema trip</i>	55
3.4.2 Task 2: <i>Describing people</i>	58
3.5 DATA COLLECTION METHODS	59
3.5.1 Collecting spoken interaction	59

3.5.2 Uptake reports	61
3.6 DATA PROCESSING AND ANALYSIS	62
3.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS	69
3.8 CONCLUSION	71
CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS — CLASS A	72
4.1 CINEMA TRIP TASKS	72
4.1.1 Holistic analysis	73
4.1.1.1 <i>Frequency of target form use</i>	73
4.1.1.2 <i>Target form types</i>	76
4.1.1.3 <i>Distribution of target form uses</i>	77
4.1.1.4 <i>Summary</i>	78
4.1.2 Interaction analysis	78
4.1.2.1 <i>Metatalk</i>	79
4.1.2.2 <i>Co-constructions</i>	81
4.1.2.3 <i>Disfluency markers</i>	82
4.1.2.4 <i>Self-correction</i>	86
4.1.2.5 <i>Mining from the task model</i>	89
4.1.2.6 <i>Group case analyses</i>	90
4.1.2.7 <i>Summary</i>	101
4.1.3 Repeat tasks	102
4.1.3.1 <i>Holistic findings</i>	102
4.1.3.2 <i>Case analyses</i>	104
4.1.3.3 <i>Summary</i>	106
4.2 DESCRIBING PEOPLE TASKS	106
4.2.1 Holistic analysis	107
4.2.1.1 <i>Frequency and accuracy of target forms</i>	108
4.2.1.2 <i>Minimalisation</i>	110
4.2.1.3 <i>Summary</i>	111
4.2.2 Interaction analysis	111
4.2.2.1 <i>Metatalk</i>	111
4.2.2.2 <i>Disfluency markers</i>	114
4.2.2.3 <i>Self-correction</i>	115
4.2.2.4 <i>Mining from the task model</i>	118
4.2.2.5 <i>Case analyses</i>	120
4.2.2.6 <i>Summary</i>	125
4.2.3 Repeat tasks	125
4.2.3.1 <i>Holistic findings</i>	126

4.2.3.2 <i>Case analyses</i>	127
4.2.3.3 <i>Summary</i>	129
4.3 UPTAKE REPORTS	130
4.4 CLASS A FINDINGS REVIEW	132
 CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS — CLASS B	 133
5.1 CINEMA TRIP TASKS	133
5.1.1 Holistic analysis	134
5.1.1.1 <i>Frequency of target form use</i>	134
5.1.1.2 <i>Target form types</i>	135
5.1.1.3 <i>Distribution of target form uses</i>	136
5.1.1.4 <i>Summary</i>	137
5.1.2 Interaction analysis	138
5.1.2.1 <i>Group case analyses</i>	139
5.1.2.2 <i>Topic discussions</i>	144
5.1.2.3 <i>Summary</i>	148
5.1.3 Repeat tasks	149
5.1.3.1 <i>Holistic findings</i>	149
5.1.3.2 <i>Case analyses</i>	151
5.1.3.3 <i>Summary</i>	154
5.2 DESCRIBING PEOPLE TASKS	154
5.2.1 Holistic analysis	155
5.2.1.1 <i>TFO distribution over phases</i>	155
5.2.1.2 <i>Frequency and accuracy of target forms</i>	156
5.2.1.3 <i>Minimalisation</i>	157
5.2.1.4 <i>Summary</i>	158
5.2.2 Interaction analysis	158
5.2.2.1 <i>Metatalk</i>	158
5.2.2.2 <i>Mining</i>	159
5.2.2.3 <i>Self-correction</i>	160
5.2.2.4 <i>Group case analyses</i>	160
5.2.2.5 <i>Summary</i>	169
5.2.3 Repeat tasks	170
5.2.3.1 <i>Holistic findings</i>	170
5.2.3.2 <i>Case analyses</i>	172
5.2.3.3 <i>Summary</i>	175
5.3 UPTAKE REPORTS	175
5.4 CLASS B FINDINGS REVIEW	176

CHAPTER 6: FINDINGS — CLASS C	177
6.1 CINEMA TRIP TASKS	177
6.1.1 Frequency of target form use	177
6.1.2 Interaction analysis	178
6.1.2.1 <i>Use of target forms</i>	179
6.1.2.2 <i>Use of alternative forms — a group case analysis</i>	181
6.1.2.3 <i>Summary</i>	183
6.1.3 Repeat tasks	183
6.1.3.1 <i>Holistic findings</i>	184
6.1.3.2 <i>Case analyses</i>	185
6.1.3.3 <i>Summary</i>	187
6.2 DESCRIBING PEOPLE TASKS	187
6.2.1 Holistic analysis	188
6.2.1.1 <i>Frequency and accuracy of target forms</i>	188
6.2.1.2 <i>Minimalisation</i>	189
6.2.1.3 <i>Summary</i>	190
6.2.2 Interaction analysis	190
6.2.3 Repeat tasks	192
6.2.3.1 <i>Holistic findings</i>	192
6.2.3.2 <i>Case analyses</i>	194
6.2.3.3 <i>Summary</i>	200
6.3 UPTAKE REPORTS	200
6.4 CLASS C FINDINGS REVIEW	201
 CHAPTER 7: FINDINGS — CLASS D	 200
7.1 CINEMA TRIP TASKS	200
7.1.1 Frequency of target form use	200
7.1.2 Interaction analysis	202
7.1.3 Repeat tasks	203
7.1.3.1 Holistic analysis	204
7.1.3.2 Interaction analysis	204
7.1.4 Summary	206
7.2 DESCRIBING PEOPLE TASKS	206
7.2.1 Holistic analysis	206
7.2.1.1 <i>Frequency and accuracy of target forms</i>	206
7.2.1.2 <i>Minimalisation</i>	207
7.2.2 Interaction analysis	208
7.2.3 Repeat tasks	209

7.2.4 Summary	212
7.3 UPTAKE REPORTS	212
7.4 CLASS D FINDINGS REVIEW	213
CHAPTER 8: DISCUSSION	218
8.1 EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION, TASKS, AND ORIENTATION	222
8.1.1 Claim one	222
8.1.2 Claim two	223
8.1.3 Claim three	224
8.1.4 Claim four	225
8.1.5 Other findings	225
8.1.5.1 <i>Enduring effects of explicit instruction in the repeat task performances</i>	225
8.1.5.2 <i>Implications from uptake reports</i>	226
8.2 EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION, TASKS, AND MINIMALISATION	227
8.3 EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION, TASKS, AND MEDIUM-TERM ACQUISITION	228
8.4 EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION, TASKS, AND PRACTICE	229
8.5 INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AND TASK OUTCOMES	230
8.5.1 Impact of individual differences	230
8.5.2 Impact of social factors	231
8.6 PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS	232
8.7 LIMITATIONS AND AVENUES FOR FURTHER RESEARCH	235
8.8 CONCLUSION	236
REFERENCES	237
APPENDICES	
APPENDIX 1: INFORMED CONSENT	248
APPENDIX 2: LESSON MATERIALS	251
CINEMA TRIP TASK MATERIALS	252
DESCRIBING PEOPLE TASK MATERIALS	257
APPENDIX 3: UPTAKE REPORTS	261
APPENDIX 4: TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS	263
APPENDIX 5: TRANSCRIPTION SAMPLES	265

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CA	Conversation analysis
CLT	Communicative language teaching
CT	Cinema trip
DP	Describing people
EFL	English as a foreign language
FFI	Form-focused instruction
LFS	Language focus stage
P-P-P	Presentation practice production
SCT	Social-cultural theory
SLA	Second language acquisition
TAP	Transfer appropriate processing
TBLT	Task-based language teaching
TESOL	Teaching of English to speakers of other languages

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER THREE

3.1: The composition of the four classes involved in this investigation	48
3.2: The course and data collection	49
3.3: The eight tasks that were piloted for use in the main investigation	53
3.4: Results of the task piloting	54
3.5: Results of error analysis for the CT task	56
3.6: Results of error analysis for the DP task	58
3.7: An overview of the complete data set	63
3.8: The colour coding scheme used to illustrate orientation in task transcripts	69

CHAPTER FOUR

4.1: Target form use by Class A in the CT main task	74
4.2: Target suggestion phrases used in the CT main task by Class A	76
4.3: TFO distribution over different topics in the CT main task for Class A	77
4.4: Forms supplied in TFOs across the main and repeat tasks by Class A	102
4.5: Class A participants' use of the targets forms over the main and repeat CT tasks	103
4.6: Suggestion phrases used in the Class A CT repeat task	104
4.7: Class A participants' use of the targets forms in the DP main task	109
4.8: Target forms use in the main and repeat DP tasks for Class A participants	126
4.9: TFUs and accuracy for the main and repeat DP tasks for individual Class A participants	127
4.10: Types and sources of items from the Class A uptake reports	130
4.11: Individual target forms reported by Class A for the CT task	131
4.12: Individual target forms reported by Class A for the DP task	131

CHAPTER FIVE

5.1: Target form use by Class B in the CT main task	135
5.2: Target suggestion phrases used in the post-LFS phase of the CT main task by Class B	136
5.3: TFO distribution over different topics in the CT main task (post-LFS) for Class B	136
5.4: Topics discussed in the pre-LFS phase of the CT main task for Class B	139
5.5: Forms supplied in TFOs across the main and repeat tasks by Class B	150
5.6: Class B participants' use of the targets forms over the main and repeat CT tasks	150
5.7: Suggestion phrases used in the Class B CT repeat task	151
5.8: Distribution of picture descriptions and TFOs over the two task phases	155
5.9: Class B participants' use of the targets forms in the DP main task	157
5.10: Target form use in the main and repeat tasks for Class B participants	170
5.11: TFOs and accuracy for the main and repeat tasks for individual Class B participants	171
5.12: Types and sources of items from the Class B uptake reports	175

CHAPTER SIX

6.1: Target form use by Class C in the CT main task	178
6.2: Forms supplied in TFOs across the main and repeat tasks by Class C	184
6.3: Suggestion phrases used in the Class C CT repeat task	185
6.4: Class C participants' use of the targets forms in the DP main task	189
6.5: Target forms use in the main and repeat tasks for Class C participants	193
6.6: TFUs and accuracy for the main and repeat DP tasks for individual Class C participants	194
6.7: Types and sources of items from the Class C uptake reports	201

CHAPTER SEVEN

7.1: Target form use by Group D in the CT main task	204
7.2: Forms supplied in TFOs across the main and repeat tasks by Class D	207
7.3: Class D participants' use of the targets forms in the DP main task	210
7.4: Target form use in the main and repeat tasks for Class D participants	213
7.5: TFUs and accuracy for the main and repeat DP tasks for individual Class D participants	213
7.6: Types and sources of items from the Class D uptake reports	216

CHAPTER EIGHT

8.1: A summarised comparison of the study's key findings	220
8.2: A comparison of target form related and peer-sourced items in the uptake reports	226
8.3: Accuracy changes over the two task performances for all classes	229
8.4: The difference in the proportion of TFO contributions between dyads for the DP task	232

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER TWO

2.1: Willis' (1996) framework for TBLT	33
2.2: Reimagining unfocused and focused tasks as a continuum	39

CHAPTER THREE

3.1: The instructional sequences of the four participating classes	51
--	----

CHAPTER FOUR

4.1: How the TFOs were filled during the CT task for Class A	78
--	----

CHAPTER FIVE

5.1: How the TFOs were filled during the CT task for Class B	137
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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND

Since task-based language teaching (henceforth, TBLT) emerged as a distinct branch of communicative language teaching sometime in the 1980s, there has been much, sometimes passionate, discussion and debate regarding how tasks can best be implemented in language pedagogy. One aspect that has received attention over the years is the question of whether there is a place for form-focused instruction, and, if so, where in a sequence of classroom activities it should be placed. In the 1990s, several publications described both specific classroom procedures (Long, 1991) and clear frameworks (Skehan, 1996; D. Willis, 1996; J. Willis, 1996a; 1996b) for TBLT, which dictated that in no way should there be any focus on language forms prior to learners performing a task. A common target of criticism was the much maligned presentation-practice-production (P-P-P) approach to language teaching, which had the pre-teaching of forms before a communicative activity at its heart. The authors of these papers argued vehemently that any pre-task instruction of preselected form(s) would adversely affect the main task, driving learners' attention away from meaning, a fundamental tenet of TBLT for many experts in the field. However, as Seedhouse (2004) warned, the kind of interaction that emerges as the result of a strong orientation to meaning is full of minimalised structures and indexicality with learners tending to take the most efficient route through a task at the expense of form.

At the same time, there were other voices that were taking an opposing view with regard to sequencing. With the application of J. R. Anderson's (2010) seminal work on skill acquisition to language teaching, some researchers were arguing that explicit teaching of linguistic forms before a task is highly desirable for language development (DeKeyser, 1998; Johnson, 1996). To complicate the matter further, a seminal paper by Samuda (2001) described classroom procedures where explicit instruction was given *during* the task proceedings; this *third way* has also been widely discussed in the TBLT literature (Bygate, 2016; Little & Fieldsend, 2009).

These contrasting views on the use of tasks have persisted to the present day, and over time there have been numerous publications that have tackled the subject. Two influential book-length treatments aimed at practicing teachers, by Nunan (2004), and Willis and Willis (2007), took opposing positions in their recommended frameworks; Swan (2005a) attacked TBLT orthodoxy in a widely cited piece in *Applied Linguistics*; other researchers have continued to present a case for tasks to be used as vehicles to practise specific predetermined forms (DeKeyser, 2010; Lyster & Sato, 2013), while Samuda and Bygate (2008) claimed that the "Willis and Willis" approach has become a kind of accepted wisdom on teacher education courses. However, it might be argued that the pendulum is swinging back towards a kind of P-P-P based on skill acquisition theory (J. Anderson, 2017), evidenced by the approach adopted in a significant recent teacher education book (Arnold, Dörnyei, & Pugliese, 2015). The question of the best place for language instruction in a task sequence is one that is seemingly as relevant as ever. There is a substantial body of research suggesting that the processes involved in a task-based approach can lead to acquisition (Keck, Iberri-Shea, Tracy-

Ventura, & Wa-Mbaleka, 2006; Mackey & Goo, 2007). However, there is also empirical support for viewing language acquisition as being no different to other skills (DeKeyser, 1996), and it has been demonstrated that explicit teaching may be more effective than implicit types of form-focused instruction (Norris & Ortega, 2000).

To the best of my knowledge, there have been no empirical studies that have systematically investigated the effects of different positioning of an explicit teaching stage within a task sequence. How does the pre-teaching of forms impact the processes of subsequent task interaction? Does pre-teaching divert learner orientation towards form, and, if so, how does this manifest itself? Might this not have a positive effect on minimalisation and provide vital practice opportunities that lead to acquisition? These are questions that have yet to be thoroughly investigated. Nor have there been studies that have done the same for during- and post-task approaches. There is a clear need for empirical studies to investigate the question of explicit teaching and sequencing so common in TBLT pedagogical discourse. Furthermore, it has been suggested that there is an urgent need for classroom-based studies to add a crucial element of ecological validity to the current body of language teaching research (Bygate, 2016; Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Samuda & Bygate, 2008).

1.2 AIMS OF THE STUDY

This thesis looks at how the position of an explicit instruction stage within a sequence of classroom activities affects the processes of a communicative task. Specifically, it seeks to answer the following research question:

How does the position of explicit instruction within a sequence of classroom activities affect task outcomes?

Data were collected over four sessions from each of four intact classes of Japanese university students. These students were non-English majors taking compulsory English communication classes. Each of the four classes received the same set of classroom activities for two different tasks with the only difference being the position of an explicit teaching stage in which instruction was given for specific language forms deemed helpful to perform the tasks. The explicit instruction was given to three of the classes before, during, or after the main task, and these participants repeated the task one week later. The fourth class only received the instruction after the data collection in order to not deprive them of a potentially useful learning opportunity. Audio recordings were made of all the main and repeat task performances.

The study adopted a mixed methods approach throughout, though the analysis was primarily qualitative. After transcribing the task interaction, a cumulative case study approach was taken to the micro-analysis of interaction using techniques commonly employed in conversation analysis and the micro-genetic analysis of some socio-cultural studies. This level of delicacy allowed the identification of certain features in the task interaction, which helped to shed light on three facets of task outcomes

— orientation, minimalisation, and medium-term acquisition. To investigate orientation, I examined features such as the use of target forms, the presence of disfluency features, and the extent of correction. Learners also revealed the language points they noticed from the classes through *uptake reports*, which provided further evidence of their likely orientation. For minimalisation, I looked at both the frequency of minimalised target forms, as well as the extent to which certain elements were omitted. Finally, for medium-term acquisition, I looked at the repeat task interaction data for qualitative evidence of learning.

1.3 THESIS STRUCTURE

In the literature review of Chapter 2, I give some background to TBLT and provide a definition of a task. Next, I detail the various pedagogical approaches incorporating tasks which have been proposed over the past two decades and more, with reference to benefits and possible limitations of relying on only interaction and focus-on-form for language development. Through this discussion, I describe how the concepts of noticing and minimalisation apply to TBLT. I then explore those views of TBLT that incorporate some kind of explicit instruction within a task sequence. I particularly focus on three possible sequencing decisions that teachers can make if they choose to implement a TBLT approach that contains a dedicated stage for the explicit instruction of certain linguistic forms. In the final section of the chapter, I look at some of the intrinsic properties of tasks — notably task-essentialness — which are relevant to this study.

Chapter 3 outlines the research methods that were employed in this study. First, I situate this study within the area of classroom research and explain the eclectic, mixed-methods approach adopted throughout the project. And, as this study primarily used audio recordings and transcripts as data, I describe approaches to analysis from the fields of conversation analysis and socio-cultural theory. Next, I provide details of the participants and procedures, the preliminary findings from pilot studies, the research design, and the tasks which were used. Finally, I describe how the data were processed and analysed, with particular reference to the key constructs of orientation, minimalisation, and medium-term acquisition.

Chapters 4 to 7 outline the main findings of the study. I have dedicated one chapter to each of the four classes in the study. In Chapter 4, I describe the data collected from the participants of Class A, who received instruction before they did the main tasks. Chapter 5 presents the findings from Class B, whose main tasks were interrupted so that they could receive during-task instruction. In Chapter 6, I show the data from Class C, whose instruction came after the main tasks. Chapter 7 describes the data from Class D, who did not receive any instruction until after the period of data collection was completed.

In Chapter 8, I attempt to tie the data together from the disparate classes and consider certain themes that emerged through the analytical process. In order to answer the research question posed in this introductory chapter, I address the concepts of orientation, minimalisation, and medium-term acquisition and describe how these constructs were manifested in the data. This chapter concludes

with a discussion of the pedagogical implications of this study, along with avenues for further research, while recognising certain inherent limitations. Based on the findings of this study, I contend that the position of an explicit instruction stage relative to a corresponding communicative task can have a notable impact on task outcomes, particularly in terms of learner orientation. However, it may not be as important as the complex dynamics of individual learner differences and social factors.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

The area of task-based language teaching has grown greatly over the past few years with academic journals related to language teaching often filled with articles relating to TBLT in some way (Newton, 2016). In this chapter, I attempt to summarise the literature most pertinent to this thesis. In section 2.1, I begin by reviewing the background of TBLT and how it emerged from communicative language teaching (henceforth, CLT). Next, in section 2.2, I tackle the question of what exactly a task is, and how it was operationalised in this study. In section 2.3, I detail how tasks have been used in classrooms with reference to findings in second language acquisition (henceforth, SLA) research. It is here where I outline the different proposals for the position of a language focus within teaching approaches containing tasks. Finally, in section 2.4, I describe some of the inherent features that different tasks possess and the effect that this may have on task interaction.

2.1 THE DEVELOPMENT OF TASK-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING

In the 1970s, the behaviourist-based teaching methods that had hitherto prevailed began to be sidelined in favour of approaches that placed more emphasis on communication. These developments took place in both Europe and North America. In Europe, this move was at least partly influenced by the greater emphasis placed on meaning in the description of language put forward by Halliday (1979). Lists of what learners ought to be able to actually *do* with language were compiled by the Council of Europe, which led to the creation of functional-notional syllabuses (Savignon, 1991). Indeed, the main focus of the communicative approach in Europe generally was towards methodology and syllabus design (Hiep, 2007). At around the same time, on the other side of the Atlantic, accounts of *communicative competence* were being proposed which placed emphasis on language use in social contexts (Hymes, 1972, as cited in H. Brown, 2000). These concurrent developments gave rise to a broad approach to language teaching which was ultimately realised in various guises under the umbrella term CLT, which not only possessed a growing theoretical underpinning, demonstrated in collections such as Brumfit and Johnson (1979), but was also supported by more practitioner-oriented guides (Littlewood, 1981). H. Brown (2000), while acknowledging the difficulties involved in giving a definitive description of CLT, outlined the following four characteristics which are present in the various interpretations that evolved:

1. Classroom goals are focused on all of the components of communicative competence and not restricted to grammatical or linguistic competence.
2. Language techniques are designed to engage learners in the pragmatic, authentic, functional use of language for meaningful purposes. Organizational language forms are not the central focus but rather aspects of language that enable the learner to accomplish those purposes.
3. Fluency and accuracy are seen as complementary principles underlying communicative techniques. At times fluency may have to take on more importance than accuracy in order to keep learners meaningfully engaged in language use.
4. In the communicative classroom, students ultimately have to use the language, productively and receptively, in unrehearsed contexts. (pp. 266-267)

To fulfil the goals of these basic principles of CLT, *communicative activities* became a vehicle to target and practise language forms or to simply develop fluency. Strong versions of CLT developed which eschewed any explicit focus on language forms, but, as these proliferated, there was recognition by some that they were still not succeeding in producing proficient speakers (Hummel, 2015). Other *pseudo-communicative* approaches, that essentially still prioritised accurate production of specific grammar structures, were also causing disaffection among some practitioners (Norris, 2009).

Consequently, a new version of CLT evolved, one in which communicative activities came widely to be known as *tasks* (Skehan, 2003). These tasks were seen as central to this new method, which took the name *task-based language teaching*. Several rationales for the implementation of TBLT have been suggested, with perhaps the most common being findings from SLA research. According to Long (2015), instruction is simply more efficacious if the primary focus is on meaning rather than discrete forms. This is indeed a common argument, with Willis and Willis (2007) also claiming actual language use to be essential for effective language learning. In addition, tasks also act as vehicles that promote attention to formal aspects of language. This can occur as learners' negotiate meaning during communication breakdowns, a central tenet of Long's (1983; 1996) interaction hypothesis. Tasks can also provide opportunities where a teacher's corrective feedback is given (Long, 1991), or they may even be used to focus on pre-specified forms (Ellis, 2003). A second rationale for TBLT is its compatibility with findings from general education research. The kind of experiential learning and the principle of learning-by-doing that are fundamental to TBLT have their basis in the proposals made by educationists such as John Dewey and Célestin Frienet over 100 years ago through to Jerome Bruner and David Kolb in the latter half of the 20th century (Samuda & Bygate, 2008). Similarly, other essential features of TBLT such as learner-centredness and the desire for a more equal teacher-student power balance are based on the educational philosophy of *l'éducation intergrale* (Long, 2015). A third rationale for TBLT is that of relevance. Long (2015) has argued that a true TBLT syllabus is based on a thorough needs analysis. As a result, tasks will possess an intrinsic relevance that will help learners prepare for when they encounter similar situations in the real world. Finally, Willis and Willis (2011) have proposed that task-based learning is simply more interesting, enjoyable and therefore motivating for learners than more form-focused teaching approaches. Many language teachers around the world, especially those working in secondary and tertiary education, are constantly looking for new ways to motivate their students, and if TBLT is truly more motivating, this is a strong rationale for its use.

Since the late 1980s, interest has increased in TBLT for both research and pedagogical purposes (Ellis, 2009). What originated as a branch of CLT has grown into its own discrete area of interest with an extensive literature in academic journals related to the fields of language teaching and SLA. TBLT has also been the subject of several book length treatments (East, 2012; Ellis, 2003; Long, 2015; Nunan, 2004; Samuda & Bygate, 2008; J. Willis, 1996; Willis & Willis, 2007); edited collections (Bygate, 2015; Edwards & J. Willis, 2005; Thomas & Reinders, 2015; van den Branden, 2006); and international conferences run by special interest groups such as The International

Association for Task-based Language Teaching (IATBLT) and the Task-based Learning Special Interest Group (TBSIG) of The Japan Association For Language Teaching (JALT). So, it seems the idea of TBLT has become well established in the field of applied linguistics, and more specifically TESOL, but, what exactly do we mean when we use the word *task*?

2.2 DEFINING TASK

Within the broad umbrella term of TBLT, a number of different definitions of *task*, and frameworks within which these tasks are utilised, have been proposed. Because of the diversity that exists, it is first necessary to define both *task* and the methods for their implementation.

As has been previously discussed extensively in the literature, there have been several influential definitions that have been used in both research and pedagogy. The first to be considered here is the following widely cited definition offered by Long (1985), who defined a task as follows:

a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward. Thus examples of tasks include painting a fence, dressing a child, filling out a form, buying a pair of shoes, making an airline reservation, borrowing a library book, taking a driving test, typing a letter, weighing a patient, sorting letters, talking a hotel reservation, writing a cheque, finding a street destination and helping someone across a road. 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)

Although Long may not have been attempting to define a pedagogic task for use in the classroom, his definition is probably too broad to be very useful for language teaching. It is unlikely that actions such as "painting a fence" have much to do with using language. However, this definition shows a task to be something that has real-world meaning and some kind of goal — a theme that runs through many later attempts to describe the essence of a task.

A widely quoted attempt to define tasks for the language classroom is the following by Breen (1987), who defined them as:

any structured language learning endeavour which has a particular objective, appropriate content, a specified working procedure, and a range of outcomes for those who undertake the task. 'Task' is therefore assumed to refer to a range of workplans which have the overall purposes of facilitating language learning — from the simple and brief exercise type, to more complex and lengthy activities such as group problem-solving or simulations and decision-making. (p. 23)

The problem with Breen's definition is that it could apply to almost any kind of classroom activity. Here, Breen did not seem to consider there to be a significant difference between a form-focused exercise and a meaning-focused decision-making task as long as the goal is to facilitate learning. However, surely everything a teacher does in the language classroom should aim to facilitate — directly or indirectly — language learning in some way, so the relevance of Breen's definition in contemporary discussion of TBLT is questionable.

A more refined definition which emphasised the exchange of meaning was proposed by Skehan (1998), who suggested that tasks are classroom activities that must possess the following five characteristics:

1. Meaning is primary
2. Learners are not given other people's meaning to regurgitate
3. There is some sort of relationship to comparable real-world activities
4. Task completion has some priority
5. The assessment of the task is in terms of outcome. (p. 95)

Skehan's definition is widely cited in the literature; however, Widdowson (2003) has argued that the sense of 'meaning' in the first characteristic is vague. He disputes the underlying implication that previous approaches to language teaching were devoid of meaning, suggesting that what Skehan is actually referring to is *pragmatic meaning*.

Ellis' (2003) attempt at providing a description of task listed the following six "criterial features":

1. A task is a workplan
2. A task involves a primary focus on meaning
3. A task involves real-world processes of language use
4. A task can involve any of the four language skills
5. A task engages cognitive processes
6. A task has a clearly defined communicative outcome. (pp. 9-10)

Ellis is eager to stress that while collaborative speaking tasks are the type most commonly found in discussions of TBLT, they are not only the kind. TBLT can also be practiced with reading, writing and listening tasks, either individually or with peers. Also, the idea of the outcome(s) of a pedagogic task being to meet some communicative, as opposed to linguistic, goal is a significant addition to previous descriptions.

Both Skehan's and Ellis' lists are widely cited in the introductions to much of the literature on tasks. These descriptions seem to be closer than Breen's to the broadly held notion of what a classroom task is, with the primacy of meaning being crucial. They also incorporate the central *real-world* theme that was so prominent in Long's definition.

Another often cited definition has come from Nunan (2007) who, like Ellis and Skehan, placed emphasis on the focus on meaning but also stressed the importance of grammatical resources being utilised to convey these meanings:

a task is 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, and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form.

In their book-length treatment of the area, Samuda and Bygate (2008) again tackled the issue of definition. They made the distinction between broad definitions which encompass all possible

activities that could be considered a task and other narrower definitions which dictate that tasks must possess a few key characteristics. Taking Ellis' six criteria as a base, they made modifications to refine and polish their own definition, including a suggestion that it is more useful to look at *task-as-process* as opposed to *task-as-workplan*. It was Breen (1989) who proposed the distinction between "task-as-workplan", which is the intended path a task will take (by the teacher or materials designer), and "task-as-process", which is the interpretation of the task by learners, and the actual strategy they use to complete it. (In this thesis, I also take the view that if one is interested in how a task or the task conditions affect learner performance, then it is better to view the actual task processes instead of the plan.) In an attempt to provide as narrow a definition as possible, Samuda and Bygate (2008) proposed the following amendments to Ellis' proposal:

1. A task is a holistic pedagogical activity
2. A task involves language use
3. A task has a pragmatic, non-linguistic outcome
4. A task is used in such a way as to create some challenge aimed at language development
5. A task is aimed at promoting language learning through process or product or both. (p. 69)

Integrating these five features, Samuda and Bygate (2008) proposed a task to be "a holistic activity which engages language use in order to achieve some non-linguistic outcome while meeting a linguistic challenge, with the overall aim of promoting language learning, through process or both" (p. 69). The final attempt to characterise a task which will be considered here, and is typically pedagogically based, was put forward by Willis and Willis (2007) who, while drawing on previous definitions, suggested using the following questions when designing an activity to determine how *task-like* it is:

1. Does the activity engage learners' interest?
2. Is there a primary focus on meaning?
3. Is there an outcome?
4. Is success judged in terms of outcome?
5. Is completion a priority?
6. Does the activity relate to real world activities? (p. 13)

Since Skehan's (1998) definition was proposed, it is arguable that there have not been any fundamental changes in how tasks are being characterised by researchers and informed practitioners. The tweaks that have been made perhaps merely highlight small differences in interpretation and likely research agendas. Because of the various interpretations of what a task can be, it is important in TBLT research to state the definition of task that the investigation is following. With reference to the proposals made above, I considered the following points to be most significant when describing tasks in this study:

1. Tasks are conducted in learner-learner dyads, or in groups of three or four
2. The main focus is on the exchange of meaning through spoken interaction
3. Specific forms to be used are not explicitly predetermined
4. The primary goal is successful task completion.

An important point about TBLT is that, despite the central place they command, tasks do not exist in isolation. They are usually situated within a sequence of other activities, which are designed to either prepare learners for an upcoming task or reflect on one that has been completed. Tasks are also used as entities with inherent linguistic features that can direct learners' attention to form, and it is towards this area that I now turn.

2.3 FRAMEWORKS FOR TASKS IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

There have been a variety of proposals regarding the way tasks should be implemented in the classroom, particularly with respect to a focus on language form. These views fall along a continuum that, at one extreme, call for a strong focus of meaning and eschew any attention to form. At the other end, a polar opposite view exists, which maintains that language learning is done best when it is based around the mastery of individual, sequenced grammatical forms, and tasks are the perfect vehicle for practice. Naturally, between these extremes, there exist approaches to TBLT that seek to find a balance between meaning and form. In this section, I will outline some of the most significant classroom approaches to TBLT, and their relevance to this investigation.

2.3.1 Approaches with a strong focus on meaning

Perhaps as a consequence of Krashen's (1982) prominent non-interface position, which argued that explicit L2 knowledge cannot become truly internalised, an approach to CLT which was wholly focused on meaning, and eschewed the explicit teaching of linguistic points, became popular in some circles and was manifested most purely in Krashen and Terrell's (1983) *Natural Approach*. This kind of zero-grammar approach (Ellis, 2005a), which relies entirely on *implicit* learning through input, in time led to some versions of CLT, and subsequently TBLT, that had little regard for form.

Although there may have been some who have advocated such a strong version of TBLT, it was never significantly adopted by teachers (Larsen-Freeman, 2015), and most researchers seem to be in agreement that some kind of focus on language is necessary for interlanguage development (Burrows, 2008; Doughty & Williams, 1998a), grammatical accuracy (Spada, 2014), and to prevent fossilisation and pidginisation (Johnson, 1996; Willis & Willis, 2007). This is especially relevant when task-based instruction relies on learner-learner task interactions. Long (2015) made a psycholinguistic-based case against wholly meaning-focused approaches like this by identifying four fundamental problems related to the over reliance on implicit learning. First, the kind of implicit learning that is seen in children with their first language cannot be replicated with complete success for learners beyond a critical age. Second, implicit learning is inefficient and takes a great deal of time. Third, the issue of L1 interference necessitates some kind of explicit learning and teaching to be able to gain an understanding of certain morphosyntactic features in instances where positive input alone will not suffice. Finally, there is an abundance of evidence showing the effectiveness of instruction, and this cannot be ignored. Norris and Ortega's (2000) seminal meta-analysis of 49 studies looking at the effectiveness of instruction reported that "not only does focused L2 instruction

make a consistent observable difference that is very unlikely to be attributable to chance, but it also seems to make a substantial difference" (p. 193). Studies have consistently shown that although instruction may not be able to change the order in which forms are acquired, it can speed up the process; moreover, instructed learners are more likely to reach higher levels of proficiency, especially with regard to grammatical forms (de Graaf & Housen, 2009). A study by Scheffler and Cinciala (2011) showed that for those grammatical forms which learners could produce accurately, they could usually also describe a metalinguistic rule for their use; conversely, there were few instances where the accurate use of a form could not be explained by a learner, indicating that implicit knowledge alone determining accurate production was rare. This seems to suggest that *explicit* knowledge is beneficial for accurate L2 production, something that can be clearly provided through instruction.

2.3.1.1 *Minimalisation and indexicality*

One immediately observable consequence of a strong meaning focus in TBLT is the impact it has on learner orientation, which in turn leads to the twin phenomena of *minimalisation* and *indexicality* (concepts that become increasingly relevant and prominent as this thesis proceeds). These phenomena have been identified as pervasive, and undesirable, features of task interaction. The former describes the use of incomplete interlanguage-like structures, while the latter refers to the context-dependent nature of task-based communication. Seedhouse (1999; 2004) identified these characteristics and illustrated them using the following example of task interaction, in which learners are describing how to label a geometric figure in order to draw it.

L1: What?
 L2: Stop.
 L3: Dot?
 L4: Dot?
 L5: Point?
 L6: Dot?
 LL: Point point, yeah.
 L1: Point?
 L5: Small point.
 L3: Dot.
 (Lynch, 1989, p. 124; cited in Seedhouse, 1999)

It is clear that learners are using the minimum language possible to convey their message, and their focus appears to be solely on completion of the task. As Seedhouse (1999) commented, in task-based interaction "linguistic forms are treated as a vehicle of minor importance" (p. 154). This kind of impoverished language is unlikely to stretch the interlanguage of learners, and may lead to fossilisation, the state where simplified language forms become permanent features of a person's speech (Selinker, 1972; although see Long (2015) for an alternative view that fossilisation is a misnomer and is not permanent). Such lexicalised communication, which is devoid of complex structures (Kim, 2015), may help learners perform a specific task more efficiently but may not stretch their current L2 knowledge and push them towards further development (Groom & Littlemore, 2011; Skehan, 1996). Indeed, this kind of impoverished learner-learner task interaction was Prabhu's (1987)

justification for not using group work in the groundbreaking Bangalore Project. It is thought to be a universal property of task-based interaction and has also been reported recently in the Japanese university context (Parsons, 2017). Japanese learners are already known to be prone to omitting subjects from their utterances due to negative transfer from their L1 (Thompson, 2001), which may exacerbate the minimalisation in the task interaction of Japanese learners.

However, Ellis (2006) suggested that Seedhouse overplayed the negative impact of minimalisation and claimed it can be alleviated through task design and the appropriate use of pre-task activities. Shintani (2016) concurred, claiming that "careful designs and implementation of tasks can engage learners in authentic conversations" (p. 96). Seedhouse and Almutairi (2009) returned to the issue of minimalisation and presented evidence that the task type can influence the extent of minimalisation: *Convergent* tasks, those which require learners to share information to reach a common goal such as information gap and jigsaw tasks, tend to result in typical minimised exchanges; however, the extra freedom afforded to learners in *divergent* tasks, such as discussion activities, leads to less minimised language.

The more recent discussions of minimalisation suggest that it is possible to reduce it through careful planning and design of teaching materials. Nonetheless, it undoubtedly remains a risk in approaches where there is no explicit attention paid to language form to orient learners in that direction, and practitioners ought to be mindful of the possibility of lexicalised learner language.

2.3.2 Interaction and focus-on-form

In response to the concerns about a strong focus on meaning, Long (1991) proposed that a *focus-on-form* is necessary, which he defined as when a teacher "overtly draws students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication" (pp. 45-46). Because the teacher feedback is *reactive* and given at the time that the difficulty arises, it is said to be easier for the learner to see its relevance and create new form-meaning mappings. Research into corrective feedback has convincingly shown its role in acquisition (Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Russell & Spada, 2006), which adds empirical weight to the Long proposal. Focus-on-form can be contrasted with what Long (2015) has termed *focus-on-forms*, that is, instruction that centres around the teaching of isolated grammar forms.

The focus-on-form approach is an integral strand of Long's (1983) influential *interaction hypothesis*. This proposal — which built on the research by Hatch (1978) concerning the effects of interaction on language acquisition, and Krashen's (1982) hugely influential *input hypothesis* — argued that interaction is crucial for language learning. Long claimed that the communication breakdowns that arise in conversation lead to acquisition. These negotiation and repair sequences are signalled in a variety of ways such as through recasts, comprehension checks and clarification requests. These moves lead to reformulations which may convert previously incomprehensible language into comprehensible input, which is posited to facilitate acquisition. Later versions of the interaction hypothesis (Long, 1996; 2015) argued that feedback from negotiation provides crucial negative evidence to the learners that all was not well with their utterance, and helps them notice a

gap between the target language and their own emerging interlanguage. According to Schmidt (1990; 2001), learning through input without paying attention to forms is not likely to be successful, and it is *noticing* that is critical, claiming "noticing is the necessary and sufficient condition for the conversion of input to intake" (Schmidt, 1990, p.129).

A further dimension to the interactionist approach was put forward by Swain (2005), who argued with the *output hypothesis* that input alone is not sufficient and that output is a fundamental part of the path to language acquisition. Swain used the example of learners in immersion programmes who received vast quantities of input. After several years of such rich input, learners had near native comprehension ability, but their production ability was lacking, and they were prone to making linguistic errors. Swain concluded that input is not sufficient, and learners need to be provided with opportunities for output. The type of output that Swain emphasised is "pushed output", which she described as "an improved version of an earlier version in terms of its informational content, and/or its grammatical, sociolinguistic, or discourse features" (2005, p. 472). Triggered by moves such as clarification requests, pushed output serves three functions that facilitate learning: a *noticing/triggering function* where learners become aware that they are unable to (accurately) produce a particular form; a *hypothesis testing function* in which learners attempt to reformulate their original utterance to produce something more target-like; and a *metalinguistic function* where learners have an opportunity to reflect on their production (Swain, 2005). The benefits of output alone have been demonstrated recently, with Philp and Iwashita (2013) reporting that learners tap into their explicit knowledge during task interaction.

2.3.2.1 Empirical studies of interaction and focus-on-form

There have been a significant number of studies in the area of interaction since the early 1980s, looking at different kinds of learners and learning contexts. Mackey (2007) listed over 75 empirical studies looking at the effect of interaction on the acquisition of a range of linguistic forms involving a variety of participants. Significantly, many of these studies (31 out of the 75) were conducted in classroom settings. To understand the consensus of such studies, valuable examples of research synthesis have been conducted. First, in Keck et al.'s (2006) meta-analysis, 13 empirical studies were analysed to determine whether interaction was effective for the acquisition of targeted forms. The results of their investigation showed that interaction did indeed have an effect on acquisition (although this was shown to only last for up to 29 days). They also found that tasks which required the use of a certain form (*task-essential* tasks, see below) had a greater long-term impact than tasks where the use of form was merely facilitative (*task-natural* or *task-utility* tasks). The findings from a second meta-analysis by Mackey and Goo (2007) concurred with Keck et al., also showing that interaction had a positive effect on the acquisition of both grammar and lexis. However, their results showed that although the impact of learning lexis seemed to be rather short-term, grammar showed longer term gains. While these meta-analyses are certainly welcome, such findings must be treated with a degree of caution, as conceded by Keck et al. (2006), due to the fact that they include only published studies and not the "fugitive literature" which has only been reported through conference

presentations or in unpublished dissertation research. Therefore, they possess a certain bias towards published papers that tend to feature statistically significant findings.

Nevertheless, the case for interaction having a significant facilitative effect on acquisition processes appears to be strong and is supported by a substantial body of evidence. However, since the beginnings of this area of inquiry, the focus has largely been on how learners, as non-native speakers (NNS), can benefit through interaction with native speaker (NS) interlocutors. For instance, Long (1996), in his influential update of the interaction hypothesis, mentioned only NNS-NS exchanges in his discussion. Among empirical studies, Mackey (1999) — which is widely cited and was included in both meta-analyses discussed above — is a typical example of a study which shows a beneficial effect of interaction on acquisition. In Mackey's investigation, each learner had a native speaker interlocutor trained to offer the kind of feedback thought to help with acquisition. This, of course, is very different to the vast majority of classroom language learning contexts, and may only be directly applicable to learners that take private one-to-one lessons with a trained and/or experienced native speaking teacher. Therefore, there are understandable claims that such studies lack ecological validity for those interested in concrete pedagogical implications (Samuda & Bygate, 2008).

From the relatively few studies investigating learner-learner pairings, mixed results have been reported. Fernández García (2007) found that beginner NNS dyads, who were engaged in task interaction in a Spanish as a foreign language context, were able to provide modified input and feedback for each other that conformed to the target language use. Adams (2007) conducted a study in which the task interaction of learner-learner dyads was analysed for the occurrence of a wide variety of feedback episodes. The specific (grammatical or lexical) targets of the feedback were used to create tailor-made post-tests to judge whether the interaction had led to learning of these forms. Adams reported positive results with learning occurring in just under 60% of feedback episodes, a figure consistent with a similar study by Loewen (2003) which looked at feedback episodes between learners and teachers. Adams concluded that "interaction between learners, like interaction between learners and native speakers, is beneficial for second language development" (p. 43). However, Adams, Nuevo, and Egi (2011), in a study involving learner-learner dyads in intact classes, found little significant effect on L2 learning through learners' implicit feedback and modified output. Conversely, they actually found explicit corrective feedback to have an overall negative effect, a result of non-target corrections which made up around a third of the total feedback items. Fujii and Mackey (2009) also reported that learners often gave incorrect implicit feedback through recasts, although the effect of this on learning was not investigated in their study. Both Adams et al. and Fujii and Mackey concluded that there may be a need for teachers to direct learners' attention to specific target forms to supplement the often inadequate feedback provided by peers. All in all, while there is some degree of support for a task-based approach that looks to develop second language knowledge solely through interaction, there is also some concern about interlocutors learning mistakes from each other.

2.3.2.2 Issues with TBLT and focus-on-form

With Long's (1991) approach to TBLT and focus-on-form, there is an argument that learners may simply become accomplished with language that they already have some grasp of, at the expense of learning new language. Bruton (2007) asked the pressing question of where new language comes from in TBLT, and he expressed scepticism that it can be generated by learners during tasks. Swan (2005a) talked at length about the inherent problem of a task-based approach being its failure to introduce new language forms to learners, stating that it merely succeeds at "promoting more accurate, fluent and complex use of what has already been learnt — at the expense of a principled focus on new linguistic material" (p. 388). While it seems plausible that a lower level learner may acquire new forms through interaction with a more advanced partner, it is less clear how the more proficient learner can be exposed to a sufficient amount of new language input.

With reactive focus-of-form, frequent and extensive feedback from teachers may indeed help, but in many classrooms around the world where student numbers are high, these exchanges will be few and far between. For example, in many Japanese university contexts, where class sizes are often large, and teachers may need to adhere to a pre-determined syllabus, it is difficult to see how reactive focus-on-form could be effectively implemented. In my own experience, often the 90-minute oral communication classes I have been asked to teach may consist of over 40 students. Even in a class within extensive periods of learner-learner interaction, it is often difficult to provide feedback to more than a few of them. Delayed plenary corrective feedback is one often utilised technique, and one which I employ regularly in my classes. While this may seem an appropriate procedure, there are some drawbacks that need to be considered. For instance, Doughty (2001) claimed that there exists a 40-second cognitive window for mapping meanings to form, suggesting that focus-on-form should be immediate, and providing delayed feedback may not be as effective as it is sometimes assumed to be. Further, Nassaji (2013) found that the effectiveness of focus-on-form was greater in smaller groups rather than during whole-class interaction, and it has been suggested that individual attention may be important for giving corrective feedback (Han, 2002; Nabei & Swain, 2002). Even in smaller classrooms, which may be more conducive to reactive focus-on-form, not all teachers might be able to recognise and seize the opportunities to do so. For example, Mackey, Polio, and McDonough (2004) reported that inexperienced teachers used fewer reactive focus-on-form moves, even after an awareness-raising session. Medgyes (1992) pointed out that for non-native speaking teachers, it is difficult to respond successfully to every language problem that may occur in the classroom. It seems that focus-on-form may be biased towards experienced native speaking teachers practicing in contexts amenable to giving each learner extensive feedback. Therefore, I would argue that this does not serve the majority of language teachers around the world who may not be highly proficient users of the target language and may be working in contexts less amenable to providing frequent individually tailored feedback to learners.

Because of these drawbacks, planned attention to specific forms may be necessary, which may even include explicit instruction (Ellis, 2016a). VanPatten (1996) defined explicit instruction as "planned and organized teaching designed to inform learners of how the second language works" (p.

9). Although explicit instruction does not seem to attract the same attention as focus-on-form, there have been several studies that have consistently demonstrated the effectiveness of explicit teaching of specific forms (Norris & Ortega, 2000), and some that have shown it to be beneficial even for spontaneous production (Housen, Pierrard, & Van Daele, 2005; Pawlak, 2007; Scheffler, 2012).

Ellis (2001) suggested that three types of form-focused instruction are possible. In addition to Long's view of *focus-on-form* and *focus-on-forms*, Ellis proposed that a third way exists — planned focus-on-form — which keeps a primary focus on meaning but also has a pre-determined linguistic target. I am arguing that in teaching contexts where class sizes are large, a pre-planned focus-on-form might be the optimum approach. First, it allows for the introduction of new language. Also, if forms are systematically selected for specific classes, some approximation of which linguistic targets the learners might be developmentally ready for can be made. How this can be done practically is discussed below (see section 3.5). Once a specific linguistic form has been selected, there remain a number of pedagogical choices as to how it can be explicitly taught, along with the method of incorporating the form-focused instruction into an instructional sequence that contains a task. A crucial aspect that has received much attention is the timing of a language focus with proposals for its inclusion before, during and after the main task. I will now outline these three broad frameworks along with their more notable advocates.

2.3.3 Explicit attention to form in TBLT: Pre-task approaches

The approach that has probably received the most attention, much of it negative, is the widely practiced P-P-P approach. Although most advocates of TBLT would not consider P-P-P as being a form of TBLT, the fact remains that modern interpretations of P-P-P embrace the use of communicative tasks as part of the methodology. As Ur (2012) explained "PPP stands for 'Presentation, Practice, Production'. This is a component of a methodology, or a description of suggested stages in a lesson, rather than a whole methodology." (p. 8). Harmer (2007) described the typical approach to a P-P-P lesson as follows:

the teacher introduces a situation which contextualises the language to be taught. The language, too, is then presented. The students now practise the language using accurate reproduction techniques such as choral repetition[...]individual repetition[...]and cue-response drills[...]Later, the students, using the new language, make sentences of their own, and this is referred to as production. (p. 64)

Lightbown and Spada (2013) have placed P-P-P within a group of approaches to language teaching which falls under a proposal they call *Get it right from the beginning*. These approaches include grammar translation and audiolingual instruction, but they also subsume ostensibly more communicative techniques that require learners to produce accurate, error-free target forms from the start, as in a P-P-P lesson. In the early 1980s, even when the influence of Krashen's monitor model was at its peak, there was also the view that the pre-teaching of forms was essential. Higgs and Clifford (1982), for example, argued that learners should not be allowed to take part in freer conversation without first internalising the necessary grammatical forms. More recent proponents of

P-P-P have cited findings from the area of skill acquisition theory to support this sequencing of classroom activities. It has been argued that contextualised practice covers areas that input and interaction alone cannot and is vital for L2 development (DeKeyser, 2007a; 2010; Lyster & Sato, 2013). J. R. Anderson (1990; 2010) described three stages of skill acquisition which lead to expertise. The first is the *cognitive stage* in which people memorise certain facts which allow them to perform a particular skill. When performing the skill, the person consciously uses the memorised facts synchronously with the actions. The key concept here is that the knowledge being used is *declarative*. Next, in the *associative stage*, errors are reduced and knowledge begins to move from declarative to a *procedural* form. As J. R. Anderson points out with reference to second language learning, "the two forms of knowledge can coexist side by side, as when we can speak a foreign language fluently and still remember many rules of grammar" (p. 244). The third and final stage is the *autonomous stage* which, as the name suggests, is the stage when the performance of the skill "becomes more and more automated and rapid" (p. 244), and procedural knowledge fully takes over from declarative knowledge.

It is not difficult to see why J. R. Anderson's skill acquisition theory is attractive to proponents of P-P-P. His three stages of skill development — cognitive, associative, and autonomous — fit very neatly with the three stages of presentation, practice and production. Johnson (1996) saw the applicability of J. R. Anderson's ideas to language teaching and P-P-P specifically, stating "the first P (presentation) is largely concerned with the process of declarativisation, while the other two (practice and production) are associated with proceduralization" (p. 103). DeKeyser (1998), while never affiliating himself to any method or mentioning P-P-P specifically, advocated the sequencing of classroom activities in a teaching unit to follow J. R. Anderson's view of skill acquisition. He claimed that findings from the field of cognitive psychology suggest the following sequence of activities for second language pedagogy: "explicit teaching of grammar, followed by FonF [focus on form] activities to develop declarative knowledge, and then gradually less focused communicative exercises to foster proceduralisation and automatisisation" (p. 58). DeKeyser (1997) demonstrated that the learning of grammar rules is very similar to other cognitive skills. In a study involving 61 participants who learned four different morphosyntactic rules of an artificial language, DeKeyser showed that practice not only led to the learning of these structures but that the pattern of learning followed the same learning curve as other cognitive skills. DeKeyser argued that this is strong evidence that language is not acquired in a fundamentally different way to other skills. In a quasi-experimental study, Spada, Jessop, Tomita, Suzuki, and Valeo (2014) found that learners who received explicit instruction of the passive before a communicative task performed better over time on an oral production test. They suggested that this is supportive evidence for the view that proceduralisation, and ultimately automatisisation, can be realised through practice. Indeed, DeKeyser (2007b) saw the use of tasks as being compatible with skill acquisition theory; that is, he envisaged tasks to be ideal vehicles for the freer practice that is necessary for automatisisation. Again, this looks similar to a fairly typical P-P-P approach, and both J. R. Anderson and DeKeyser's work have been referred to by recent

proponents of P-P-P (Sato, 2010), who have drawn on their research when proposing a theoretical underpinning for P-P-P.

Although Nunan may not see his proposed TBLT framework as being congruent with P-P-P and skill acquisition theory, for the purposes of this research, it is an approach that positions a focus on language form *before* learners have the chance to perform a communicative task. Nunan (2004) put forward the following six-step procedure for TBLT, which sees learners doing both controlled practice (Step 2) and language focus (Step 4) before doing more contextualised practice (Step 5) and finally a communicative task (Step 6).

- Step 1: Schema-building tasks
- Step 2: Controlled practice of target language
- Step 3: Listening
- Step 4: Language focus
- Step 5: Freer practice
- Step 6: Pedagogical task (pp. 31-35)

Nunan seems to have no reservations with targeted practice before the main "tasks" in his recommended sequence for TBLT. He describes how students "should be encouraged to extemporise, using whatever language they have at their disposal to complete the task" while acknowledging that "Some students may 'stick to the script', while others will take the opportunity to innovate" (2004, p. 33). It is difficult to see how Nunan's proposal is significantly different to the traditional approaches that have been practiced for many years (Feeney, 2006); the only notable difference would seem to be that learners are not explicitly directed to use the target forms in the task. It would be interesting to see what proportion of learners do indeed "take the opportunity to innovate" as opposed to "stick(ing) to the script". As far as I am aware, there has been no empirical study looking specifically at Nunan's framework and the choices learners make regarding which forms they use to complete tasks. However, Muller (2006) reported that students in his classroom-based study tended to ignore target forms introduced through pre-tasks. Indeed, for those learners (whatever the proportion may be) that do not choose to experiment with alternative forms, the Nunan framework is an approach that practises language forms before the communicative activity in a similar manner to the much maligned P-P-P approach.

For several years now, P-P-P has been the target of attack by leading figures in SLA and language teaching research. A rather dismissive account of the P-P-P procedures has been put forward by Long (2015):

The standard Presentation-Practice-Production (sic) (PPP) formula consists of student exposure to "simplified" dialogues and reading passages written using a limited vocabulary and "seeded" with the structure(s) of the day, intensive practice of the structure(s) via drills and written exercises, followed by gradually "freer practice"— in reality, usually pseudo-communicative language use. Lessons are primarily teacher-fronted. Courses typically cover all four skills, whether or not students need all four. Tasks are employed in some cases, but chiefly as an alternative vehicle for practicing the linguistic items on the day's menu, not because they relate to identified student needs to be able to perform such tasks outside the classroom. (p. 20)

Advocates of TBLT have rejected P-P-P with Skehan (1996) — a decidedly vocal critic — outlining two major objections to it. First, Skehan described how despite P-P-P being widely used in classrooms for a number of years, the number of successful language learners has remained low, with only a few particularly talented individuals reaching target proficiency. Skehan's second reason, and perhaps the most commonly cited shortcoming of P-P-P — and the structural syllabuses with which it is associated and most commonly implemented — is its incompatibility with what is known about developmental sequences and how new language forms are acquired. There is an inherent assumption that whatever structure is taught on a given day will be learned. However, Skehan (1996) strongly attacked this view, arguing that "the belief that a precise focus on a particular form leads to learning and automatising (that learners will learn what is taught in the order it is taught) no longer carries much credibility in linguistics or psychology" (p. 18). Lewis (1996), writing in the same edited collection, was in a similarly belligerent mood, stating that P-P-P "is, and always was, nonsense" (p. 11). Learners follow their own internal syllabus, and instruction has been shown to have little or no effect on the order in which forms are acquired (Klapper, 2003; Ortega, 2011), and any match between the form-of-the-day and what learners are ready to acquire is entirely coincidental (Thornbury, 1997); consequently, any attempt to isolate a particular form and expect learners to internalise it, as is the theoretical basis for P-P-P, is futile. Even in an isolated lesson, Larsen-Freeman (2009) pointed out that "what learners do bears no resemblance to what has been presented to them or practiced" (p. 524). Moreover, Long (2000) claimed that an approach that bases lessons around pre-determined forms taken from a structural syllabus "produce(s) boring lessons, with resulting declines in motivation, attention, and student enrolments" (p. 182), whereas Willis and Willis (2011) asserted that TBLT actually fosters motivation in language learning. Widdowson (2003) also chose to focus on the inherent lack of engagement or interest that a P-P-P cycle provides. He argued that the tedious nature of the first two stages is the real weakness of the approach, with learners becoming bored of the repetition involved. Widdowson saw that success is dependent on "having already learnt the code as a meaning potential" in the presentation and practice stages, which can then be "pragmatically realised" (p. 119) in the final production stage. However, because they are not engaged by the presentation and practice stages, learners will not be able to apply the form-meaning links during production. While more recent versions of P-P-P may employ more meaningful drills in the practice stage(s), and a greater focus on meaning in the production stage(s), the very fact that the sequence has specified target forms at its core leaves it vulnerable to the same objections that have been repeated over several years.

Despite the criticisms of the P-P-P, it is still widely practiced and preferred by many teachers (Carless, 2009; Long & Kurzweil, 2002; Viet, Canh, & Barnard, 2015). It might be wise to listen more to those practitioners who have found success with its use and not simply dismiss their instructional choices as outdated or inferior. P-P-P is also a staple of some introductory teaching training texts (Scrivener, 1994; Ur, 1996 although Ur's (2012) later edition leans towards a post-method eclectic approach to language teaching) and teacher training programmes (Harris, 2015, cited in J. Anderson, 2017). Swan (2005a) addressed many of the criticisms levelled at P-P-P. Regarding

the accusation that traditional approaches have failed (e.g. Skehan, 1996), he suggested that "foreign languages are too hard for most people to learn well in classrooms in the time available" (p. 387), a simple point that is difficult to refute and should perhaps be considered more by critics. The vast majority of language learners around the world are in foreign language settings, often taking compulsory classes in primary, secondary, and tertiary educational contexts. With the myriad of challenges facing learners and teachers in these contexts, it seems a little too much to put all the blame at the door of P-P-P. Swan (2005a) also argued that a grammatical syllabus is still the best approach, especially in foreign language contexts with minimal exposure to the L2 outside the classroom, and he dismissed the frequently used criticism that the order in which language forms are presented is rather random or haphazard, stating that "traditional structure grading is informed by pedagogic experience and expertise" (p. 394). Some have suggested that the relative failure of P-P-P is not due to a problem with the approach, but with teachers not paying enough attention to the final P — the production stage (Johnson, 1996; Sato, 2010). Furthermore, recent SLA research has actually started to show empirical evidence in support of more explicit instruction and especially P-P-P (Spada & Tomita, 2010; J. Anderson, 2017). These findings are starting to weaken the initial vocal criticisms made by Skehan and others, who attacked the lack of empirical support for P-P-P.

The opposing position is held by proponents of a different set of methods for second language learning, which Lightbown and Spada (2013) have labelled *Get it right in the end* proposals. Advocates of such approaches argue that languages are best learned when students are engaged in meaning-focused instruction, but which allow for periods where learners "also have access to some form-focused instruction" (Lightbown & Spada, 2013, p. 182). Along with content-based teaching and others, the kind of TBLT recognised by most in the field fits into this group. Learners' attention is not drawn towards specific forms before the task but is placed somewhere later in the instructional sequence.

2.3.4 Explicit attention to form in TBLT: During-task approaches

The idea of a during-task reactive focus-on-form certainly has its supporters (Long, 2006), and a substantial body of research supports the effectiveness of corrective feedback (Li, 2010); nonetheless, for the reasons detailed above in section 2.3.2.2, it may only be appropriate for a minority of language teachers. Samuda (2001) proposed an alternative, more explicit, pre-planned approach to integrating a during-task form-focused activity into TBLT. Arguing for a third way to lead attention towards form, Samuda claimed the following:

While pre- and post-task approaches have the advantage of leaving task performance intact, they both pose pedagogic challenges. A post-task approach, for example, brings with it the risk that certain aspects of certain forms may escape focus altogether[...]On the other hand, a pre-task approach that directs attention to language features before learners experience the need to use them which[...]risks dislocating language form from language use. (pp. 121-122)

Samuda contended that learners' attention should be drawn to form during the task after they have realised that their linguistic resources are insufficient to satisfactorily convey the meanings they wish. There is a meaning → form → meaning progression that makes the links between meaning and form

clear, while avoiding the *structure trapping* (Skehan, 1998) which can occur with a pre-task approach. Samuda operationalised her framework using a task that targeted epistemic modality in which learners had to speculate on a person's identity by examining the contents of their bag. As the learners embarked on the pre-language focus phase of task, several opportunities for the use of modal verbs arose and were filled both by the mining of pre-task input and by the learners' existing resources. After some time had elapsed, the learners presented their ideas, and at this point the teacher intervened with initially implicit, then later explicit, form-focused instruction that appeared quite thorough (although the time that was taken for this stage was not reported). Samuda claimed that the language focus was not really a separate stage but more of a "time out" from the task, and, once completed, the learners turned their attention back to meaning in the post-language focus phase. Little and Fieldsend's (2009) exploratory study also operationalised Samuda's framework using a task focusing on object locations and prepositions of place. They reported that the pre-language focus phase of the task helped learners to notice a gap in their linguistic knowledge, which was filled by the contents of a five-minute period of explicit instruction. In the post-language focus phase, Little and Fieldsend claimed the learners oriented back to meaning while simultaneously producing the taught target forms.

Bygate (2016) described this kind of approach as a "discovery based element to TBLT" (p. 9). According to Bygate, as learners work through the task proceedings, they will attempt to convey meanings only to find that they may lack some of the language knowledge to do so. While this is happening, the teacher can monitor the learners and offer linguistic support as necessary. From focus-on-form research, there is also the argument that when feedback is given at the moment of need, it will be more effective (Skehan, 2003), lending some support to the idea of delivering form-focused instruction *during* the task.

Spada and Lightbown (2008) proposed yet another dichotomy into the SLA field — that of *isolated* and *integrated* form-focused instruction (FFI). The key distinction between these two types of instruction is that of timing. While isolated FFI certainly incorporates the pre-task and post-task (see below) approaches detailed in this literature review, integrated FFI is closer to the during-task approach. In fact, Spada and Lightbown used Samuda's study as an illustration of integrated FFI; that is, when instruction or feedback is given during classroom tasks that are directed towards meaning. Spada et al. (2014) expanded on the isolated/integrated distinction by relating it to the cognitive psychology theory of Transfer Appropriate Processing (TAP). TAP theory predicts that an item that is learned in a certain situation or process will be more easily recalled at a later time if the person is in a similar situation or process. Following this, Spada et al. showed that different timing of instruction might lead to different kinds of learning, with the integrated FFI helping the learning of implicit L2 knowledge, and isolated FFI contributing more to explicit L2 knowledge. However, the main upshot of their study was to show that provided learners receive a balance of form and meaning in a task cycle, the timing of the FFI does not seem to affect the degree of acquisition.

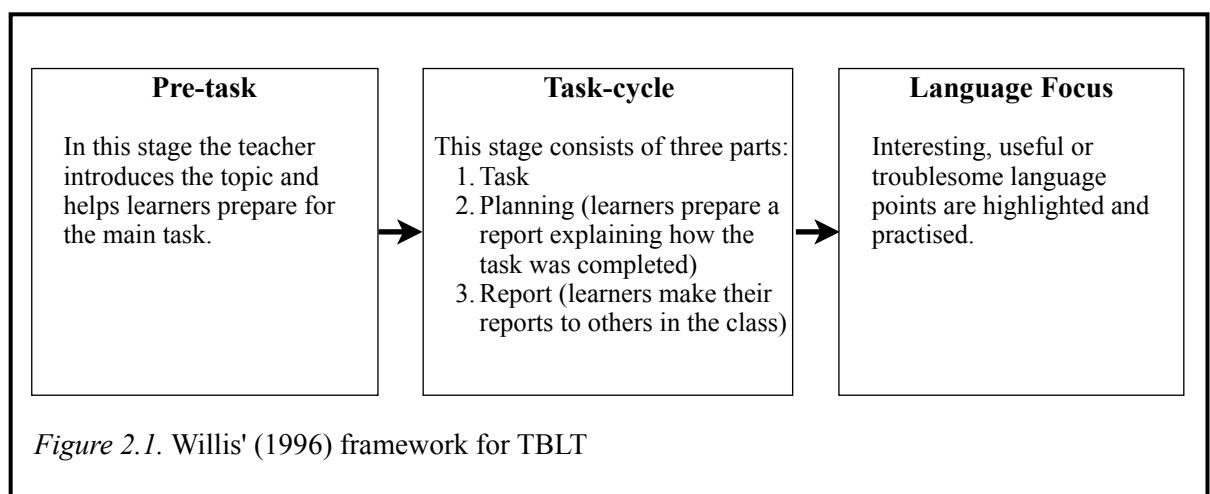
One criticism that has been levelled at this kind of approach is that learners do not like to be interrupted in the middle of communication and that this kind of classroom procedure could lead to a

decrease in motivation (Spada & Lightbown, 2008). Indeed, Raimes (1991) argued that correction during communicative speech is intrusive and that it is only in writing feedback that teachers should provide form-focused instruction. For these reasons it may be more appropriate for tasks of a longer duration where learners do not feel the interruption to be too disruptive.

In both Samuda's and Little and Fieldsend's studies described above, the task phase that preceded the language focus was certainly meaning-centred. However, the learners actively used the target forms in the phase of the tasks that followed the language focus. Therefore, extent to which it can be confidently asserted that structure trapping has been avoided in the latter phase in a significantly different manner to that found in a pre-task instruction approach seems, to me, questionable. The main benefit of this approach is that it provides at least a two-phase progression from meaning to form, a feature also shared by post-task approaches to explicit instruction in TBLT.

2.3.5 Explicit attention to form in TBLT: Post-task approaches

The framework initially proposed by J. Willis (1996), and later developed by Willis and Willis (2007), has been described as "a model — sometimes *the* model — of TBLT in pre- and in-service teacher education" (Samuda & Bygate, 2008, p. 206). Central to this model for task-based teaching are the ideas laid out in Lightbown and Spada's (2013) *Getting it right in the end* approach, which highlights the issue of the timing of form- and meaning-focused classroom activities. Figure 2.1 illustrates the framework set out by J. Willis (1996).



Willis and Willis (2007) discussed at length the problems with beginning a language lesson by isolating forms to teach. When forms are highlighted and practised prior to the main task, it is "very difficult for learners to think about both form and meaning at the same time" (p. 16) in the task-like *production* stage. They claim that learners will follow one of two paths in this situation. The first sees learners trying to produce the target form(s), but their resulting language will be "halting and stilted" (p. 17) as they concentrate on regurgitating the forms prescribed to them. Instead of any focus on meaning, the final stage "is likely to become a 'further practice' of form activity" (p. 113). The second possibility sees learners ignoring the target form(s) and focusing on meaning, thus rendering

the "declared aim of helping learners incorporate the target form in their spontaneous language use" (p. 17) a failure, a view shared by Larsen-Freeman (2009). For Willis and Willis, language development is unlikely to occur through P-P-P, but it can through a task-based approach while learners focus on understanding and conveying messages. While performing tasks, learners can choose whatever form they wish to communicate their meanings, which Willis and Willis claimed to lead to the following outcome:

Learners are then more likely to use a far wider repertoire of language to express themselves during the task; they will deploy whatever language they have already learnt from earlier lessons, and experiment with language they are not sure of in order to get their meanings across. (p. 113)

Language will develop through self-correction, the use of resources such as dictionaries, and, of course, teacher feedback. This view is largely compatible with the ideas of the interaction hypothesis and reactive focus-on-form. Learners can also be encouraged to attend more to form when they anticipate having to do some kind of post-task public performance or transcription activity (Skehan, 2013) (although Skehan (2016) cautioned that the extent to which this helps to foster acquisition may be limited).

Willis and Willis (2007) also advocated an explicit post-task language focus (rather confusingly Willis and Willis refer to this as *focus on form*, although it is quite different to the more common usage devised by Long), in which isolated forms are selected and explicitly taught. These forms may be in response to a language point that proved problematic during the task performance, or they may be pre-planned and taken from texts used in the task sequence, known as a *pedagogical corpus* (D. Willis, 2003). This is also a position supported by Skehan (2014), who proposed that language points arising in task performances can be recorded either by using audio-recording devices, or simply by relevant notes being taken by the teacher or learner(s). These recordings can then be used to select specific language points that proved troublesome or particularly relevant to the task. This language may be completely new to the learners, or it might be partially learned and found in their developing interlanguages. The crucial point for Skehan is that it is the learners themselves who "announce" the forms which are to be studied in detail. Further, Shintani (2017) suggested that providing explicit teaching following a task (although her discussion was limited to writing tasks) "may lead to better internalization of information" (p. 133).

At first glance, this post-task approach seems to contradict the earlier assertion that P-P-P is inadequate because of its selection of specific forms which may not be compatible with the learners' developmental level. Indeed, Swan (2005a) made the following point:

If it is pointless to give a lesson on, say, relativisation on Tuesday morning because we cannot tell who is developmentally ready for it, then surely it is equally useless to draw students' attention to an instance of relativisation that arises during a task on Thursday afternoon. (p. 381)¹

¹ Swan's criticism is equally applicable to during-task approaches with preselected linguistic targets.

However, Willis and Willis (2007) cited three reasons to justify this post-task form focus. First, such a stage "helps learners make sense of the language they have experienced" (p. 25), meaning that learners can try to analyse any new language they encountered during the task sequence. Second, it helps learners notice the studied forms in the future (which would, of course, include those new forms they met during the task). The third claim is that learners are motivated by the study of language forms. The first two of these claims seem to indicate a belief in a weak form of the *interface hypothesis*. While a strong interface position proposes that forms can be converted from declarative knowledge to procedural knowledge through practice (DeKeyser, 2009), Willis and Willis' approach is compatible with a weak interface position (Ellis, 2005b), which holds that explicit linguistic knowledge gained from instruction cannot directly become implicit knowledge, but it may make certain forms more salient in future input for the kind of *noticing* that Schmidt (2001) claimed is necessary for learning. Recognising fundamental developmental sequences, advocates of a weak interface position claim that the noticing of a particular form occurs when the learner is developmentally ready, and this creates the conditions suitable for acquisition to occur.

While Willis and Willis' account of task-based learning may make intuitive sense to many practitioners, there are very few examples of empirical studies to support their assertions (Bruton, 2002). In many instances, they make reference to their classroom experience as the only basis necessary to justify their claims. However, the research discussed above in section 2.3.2.1 shows that, while being far from unanimous or conclusive, there is a good deal of indirect empirical support from studies of interaction, and also some theoretical rationale from the area of noticing, to give grounds for a post-task language focus stage. In addition, the most important benefit of this approach over the pre- and during-task options is the full, sustained, and unambiguous attention to meaning during the task procedures. The potential benefits of mapping forms onto meaning or practice can still be realised in future similar communicative encounters, most easily operationalised using task repetition.

2.4 RESEARCHING TEACHING APPROACHES INVOLVING TASKS

For a debate that has been ongoing for some time, there are relatively few empirical studies that have attempted to compare different approaches to language-focused instruction in TBLT. Perhaps this is because it is so difficult to show the superiority of one approach over another with all the possible variables involved (Foster, 2009).

There are two broad approaches to investigate the effect of a variable in a teaching approach: product or process-oriented studies. A product-oriented approach might look at whether one instructional technique leads directly to acquisition, measured using an experimental or quasi-experimental research design that compares any gains from a pre- to post-test for specific linguistic features. A process approach focuses more on the influence which an instructional technique has on the ways learners perform the tasks and the presence of interactional features that might foster acquisition processes.

2.4.1 Product-oriented studies

Despite the challenges involved, there have been some attempts to compare different interpretations of TBLT and P-P-P approaches. Sheen (2005), a particularly vocal critic of TBLT, conducted an eight-month longitudinal study between a group of learners following a task-based approach which incorporated a reactive focus-on-form, and an experimental group which used a more traditional, albeit somewhat communicative, approach with a focus-on-forms. Sheen reported that the latter group showed a significant improvement in the use of certain grammatical structures compared to the TBLT group. Unfortunately, the reactive focus-on-form that was provided to the learners in the TBLT group did not necessarily include the target forms covered by the traditional approach, so the strength of Sheen's claims is limited.

Conversely, Beretta and Davies' (1985) battery of tests used to evaluate the Bangalore Project (Prabhu, 1987) tentatively suggested that TBLT was more effective overall when compared to a more traditional approach, while Shintani (2011; 2013) and de la Fuente (2006) reported that TBLT was more effective than P-P-P for vocabulary learning. After a review of such studies from a focus-on-form versus focus-on-forms perspective, Ellis (2016b) argued that comparison studies are not very helpful, that the actual classroom processes deserve more attention, and that the way in which different approaches "direct or attract learners' attention to form and[...]impact[...]learning" (p. 422) warrants further investigation.

2.4.2 Process-oriented studies

There is really a dearth of research that has addressed the effects of instructional decisions on task interaction. Some of the product-oriented studies described above had components that looked to some degree at the task processes. For example, Shintani (2011) described how a P-P-P style lesson in which forms were pre-taught and practised resulted in qualitatively different discourse features when compared to a task-based lesson, with more negotiation of meaning occurring in the latter. Similarly, in the de la Fuente (2006) study, learners in the TBLT group were seen to produce more negotiation in their task interaction.

There is, however, another interesting line of research relevant to this thesis that has emerged from the fields of conversation analysis (henceforth, CA) and socio-cultural theory (henceforth, SCT). While such studies have not sought to compare different learners performing tasks in the same way that the product studies have, the fine-grained analyses typically employed by researchers working in these areas have revealed much about learners' goals, actions and orientations when performing pedagogical tasks. In SCT research, *orientation* to a task has been defined as "the way in which individuals view a task and the means they devise to fulfill it" (Tocaimaza-Hatch, 2015, p. 492), and there have been several illuminating studies looking at learner orientation and tasks. Brooks' (1990) case study of a dyad performing an ostensibly meaning-focused task showed how learners switched their orientation towards form, apparently as a result of the teacher's previous attention to correction. Platt and Brooks (1994) reported how some groups of learners performed tasks in a different way to that intended by the teacher, although they did not speculate on what external

factors may have caused this. Coughlan and Duff (1994) described how different learners interpret the same task in quite different ways depending on the context in which the task was set up; they found that some learners approached a task as an opportunity to converse in a meaningful way while others saw the objective as being simply "speaking for the sake of speaking, listening for the sake of facilitating further speech, or, in other words, language production as an end in itself" (p. 189). Roebuck (2000) discussed how learner orientations to tasks are far from static. Some of the orientations Roebuck described were directed towards linguistic forms to a greater or lesser degree for different learners and even for the same learner at different periods during the task. Recently, Tocaimaza-Hatch (2015) also showed that learners actually change their orientations dynamically as a task proceeds, shifting from concern about form to simply task completion.

Some studies have shown that orientation is susceptible to external influence. Philp, Walter, and Basturkmen (2010) found that both the intrinsic properties of a task, along with the way it was implemented by a teacher, could affect the orientation of EFL learners. Ellis and He (1999) reported that the kind of input and output opportunities that learners were exposed to affected both the way in which they approached the task and the resulting task interaction. This difference between the intended task flow and the actual task that learners create for themselves has long been described in the field of TBLT as *task-as-workplan* and *task-in-process* (Breen, 1989), and it has been shown that classroom learners do not always perform the task in the way it was planned by the teacher (Seedhouse, 2005a; 2005b).

These studies show that tasks are not constant and how learners approach them can be influenced in a number of ways. The kind of classroom setting and the decisions a teacher makes regarding classroom activities — before, during, or after a task — are likely to have an effect on the orientation of learners towards that task: Will they see the task primarily as an opportunity to focus on meaning and communicate their ideas, or might they view it as simply an exercise during which they can practise some pre-determined target form(s)? Those researchers working within the SCT tradition account for the different approaches to task as being shaped by the past and current relationship with the context and their interlocutor. More relevant to the current study, this approach to task research has shown how instructional choices can influence task interaction, which may, in turn, affect L2 acquisition opportunities.

With the apparent interest in this topic and the lack of empirical studies which describe the impact of task sequencing and explicit language instruction, there is clearly a need for further research in this area. The existing product-oriented studies have not really addressed the effects of timing of an explicit language focus, while the process-oriented research has not attempted to observe the impact of different teaching techniques or strategies on task interaction and orientation. This investigation looks to make a contribution to the body of knowledge in this important and fundamental domain of foreign language learning and teaching.

The final section of this chapter addresses some of the intrinsic features of tasks that require consideration when embarking on empirical study of TBLT, with the issue of task essentialness being particularly relevant to this thesis.

2.5 INHERENT FEATURES OF PEDAGOGICAL TASKS

There are a number of characteristics of pedagogical tasks which have been shown to affect the resulting interaction of language learners. Ellis (2003) identified the following six task variables:

- Information exchange: required or optional
- Information gap: one-way or two-way
- Task outcome: open or closed
- Topic
- Discourse mode
- Cognitive complexity

For the first variable of *information exchange*, a task may necessitate learners to provide hitherto unknown information to their interlocutor(s) in order to successfully complete a task. These might include a picture dictation task, a spot the difference task, or a guessing game in which learners have to guess a word (e.g. a job) after listening to a description or a series of clues. A task that does not require information exchange would include discussion activities such as where learners are required to choose candidates for a prize or scholarship (Ur, 2015).

Information gap tasks can require only one learner to provide information, or it may be necessary for two or more of their partners to also do so, hence a one-way/two-way distinction in the flow of information. When devising their influential task taxonomy, Pica, Kanagy, and Falodun (1993) used this distinction to separately classify information gap (one-way) and jigsaw (two-way) tasks. However, Willis and Willis (2007) argued that few tasks are truly one-way, as the learners that do not hold the information are still likely to ask clarification and other questions.

Task outcome describes the ultimate goal of the task: is there a single solution that the collaborators must work towards as in a closed task, or do the learners not have such constraints as in an open task? Closed tasks would include many common pedagogical tasks such a map task where one learner is directed to a specific location by their partner, while open tasks include the kind of discussion tasks often used in L2 classes.

Regarding topic, the notion that a task topic's familiarity, relevance, and level of interest affecting learner interaction would be well appreciated by most practitioners, but Ellis (2003) focuses on the possibility of whether topic influences the amount of the negotiation of meaning that a task might prompt.

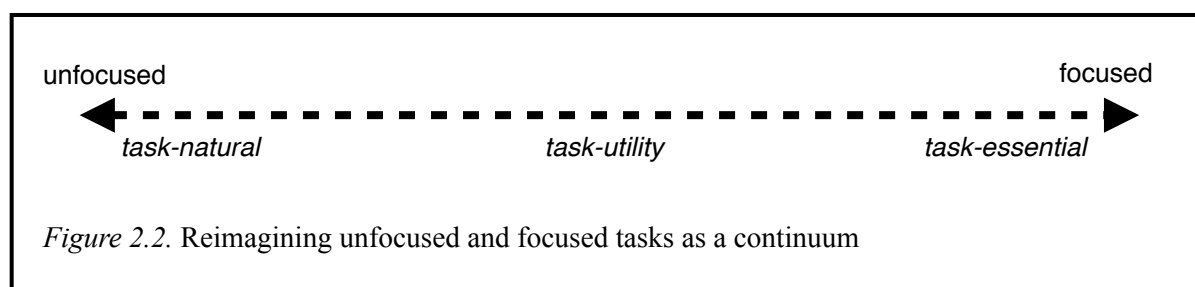
The latter two of Ellis' variables have perhaps received less attention in the discussion of TBLT practice, but it is clear that *discourse mode* (how does the discourse type influence the language produced?), and *cognitive complexity* (how much cognitive load does the task put on the learner?) all have an impact on the task interaction that results from a given task, and have been the focus of SLA research.

Another way of viewing tasks is to look at the extent to which they require learners to use specific linguistic forms. Nobuyoshi and Ellis (1993) described how tasks can be *unfocused* or *focused*. Unfocused tasks are the kind of pure tasks that do not focus on linguistic forms in any way;

learners are completely free to choose the language they feel is necessary to successfully complete the task. Discussion and decision-making tasks would tend to fall into this category. Conversely, focused tasks are designed to elicit specific target form(s) by providing obligatory occasions for their use; for example, a narrative task may be employed to prompt learners to use past tenses. Although some proponents of TBLT (e.g. Long, 2016), would oppose the use of focused tasks on the grounds that they weaken the focus on meaning, Ellis (2003; 2016a) has advocated for their place in a more eclectic approach to TBLT. Certainly, focused tasks could be used alongside unfocused ones, within the same course or possibly in a parallel stream of a coordinated curriculum.

One issue with focused tasks is that it is difficult to make a learner use a specific form. A situation which will be recognisable to many teachers is of learners using alternative language forms to those that a task was intended to stimulate the use of. It is also important to recognise that tasks differ in their *focusedness*. Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) described three levels of necessity for specific structures in task design. "Task-naturalness" describes the situation where the use of a specific form may not be necessary for task completion, but it may appear naturally as a consequence of the task interaction. "Task-utility" is a design in which specific structures will definitely help with the successful completion of the task. Finally, "task-essentialness" is the situation where a specific form is necessary for successful task completion.

It may be helpful to think about the *focused/unfocused* dichotomy, and the *task-naturalness/utility/essentialness* trichotomy as a continuum, and that tasks all sit somewhere along a cline between two extreme points (Figure 2.2). Even unfocused tasks are likely to require a higher than average use of certain forms due to, for example, the topic or discourse mode that is used. One imagines that topic alone would lead learners to use certain topic-specific vocabulary that could be the linguistic target(s) of a class. Some unfocused tasks are likely to require specific forms more than others, so a dichotomy is perhaps not the best way to approach the topic. Following this proposal, it becomes apparent that pre-planned focus-on-form can be applied to not only focused tasks but also to unfocused tasks. Target forms do not have to be chosen simply through teacher intuition and experience; interaction analysis of similar groups of learners performing the same task can be used to determine which forms prove most troublesome (Ellis, 2003; Williams & Evans, 1998), and those forms can be incorporated into classroom activities.



2.6 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I have described the areas of previous research relevant to this thesis by first providing a background to TBLT and what exactly a task is. Next, I described the main proposals for incorporating tasks into language teaching, with particular reference to the explicit focus on linguistic forms in TBLT. It is the three frameworks containing an explicit instructional stage of different positions — pre-, during-, and post-task — within the task sequence that is the main focus of this study. I then discussed some of the ways in which tasks have been investigated, with reference to product- and process-oriented studies. Although I have tried to remain pragmatic in my approach, this thesis reports a primarily process-oriented study. Finally, I detailed some of the intrinsic features of tasks, which need to be considered throughout the description of the study's methods and findings.

CHAPTER 3: METHODS

In this chapter, I first explain the theoretical background to the methods employed in this study in section 3.1. As this was a classroom-based investigation, I give some background to this area of language teaching research along with a discussion of why, despite its inherent challenges, it is essential in the field. I also outline the paradigm in which this research is situated, being an essentially mixed-methods descriptive investigation of task interaction.

In section 3.2, I describe the context in which this investigation took place, including details of the institution and the participants who were involved. Section 3.3 and 3.4 cover the design of the research project including details of how and why the tasks used in the study were chosen. I also describe the process by which specific target forms for each task were selected. Section 3.5 outlines the two methods of data collection that were used: the primary method of collecting spoken interaction and the secondary introspective method of uptake reports. Section 3.6 explains the methods of analysis that were employed. Finally, in section 3.7, I give an account of the ethical issues that were considered throughout the planning and implementation of the study.

3.1 SITUATING THIS RESEARCH

This study is an example of classroom-based research with the author being both the researcher and the teacher. The research approach was descriptive using multiple cumulative case studies of learners' task interaction that were initially analysed qualitatively with later quantification of pertinent features which were identified. In this section, I will discuss some of the issues surrounding classroom-based research, outline the research paradigm within which this thesis is situated, and describe the approach to data processing and analysis which I took.

3.1.1 Classroom research

Classroom research has been described by Dörnyei (2007) as being "empirical investigations that use the classroom as the research site" (p. 176), and it can be distinguished, for better or for worse, from tightly controlled laboratory-based contexts (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Although historically, the proportion of language teaching studies that were conducted within classrooms was relatively small, in recent years there has been an increase in the number of such studies reaching publication (Nunan & Bailey, 2009). Despite the inherent challenges that classroom research throws up, there is recognition of the value of greater ecological validity in language teaching research.

From its inception, this study has been firmly based in the area of classroom research. The initial motivation to carry out the study was due to a desire to explore competing claims in the literature regarding TBLT in classroom contexts. All the data, from the pilot studies to the main data collection period, were collected from student participants in intact classes during actual language lessons.

Much has been written about the potential problems facing researchers in classroom settings (Dörnyei, 2007; Mackey & Gass, 2015; Rossiter, 2001), and the following is a summary of some of the well-documented challenges, many of which materialised in the data collection period of this study.

Student participants

Being a classroom-based study which analysed learners' responses to different pedagogical approaches, the study was entirely dependent on the students taking the course and attending lessons. There were incidences where student participants were absent on certain data collection days, resulting in some incomplete data sets, an issue also experienced and recounted by Rossiter (2001). There were also at least two occasions where the student groups did not take the task seriously and perform to the best of their ability, an issue that Dörnyei and Kormos (2000) also observed and reported. While the students seemed happy to participate in the study during their class time, there was no apparent appetite for either arriving a little earlier or staying later to contribute to follow up introspective data collection. Finally, there was the issue of ethics, particular with gaining consent, protecting anonymity, and appreciating the unbalanced power relationship between myself as the teacher/researcher and the student participants. These ethical issues are considered in more detail in 3.7.

Institutional

One drawback that has been pointed out with classroom-based research is that it can be more time consuming than laboratory research (Dörnyei, 2007; Spada, 2005), and the current investigation was no exception. It was necessary to collect data from four different classes of learners, but the nature of the way classes were organised resulted in a very long data collection period. Two classes' data were collected in 2013, but I had to wait another 10 months before being able to collect data from the second two classes.

Technical issues

Another area of potential trouble was with the use of technology in the classroom. In this study, recordings were made of learners' task interaction, and, for both practical and ethical reasons, the student participants were themselves responsible for making the recordings. Inevitably, there were occasions where data were lost due to a participant inadvertently stopping or deleting a recording. Also, the difficulty of making recordings in noisy classrooms was felt throughout the data collection and transcription period, a problematic point also raised by Mackey and Gass (2005).

Despite the challenges facing classroom-based researchers, there remains a need for such studies. Classroom research has greatly helped to advance our understanding of instructed SLA processes (Mitchell, 2009), and several voices in the field have called for a greater number of such investigations owing to the ecological validity which they possess (DeKeyser, 2010; Larsen-Freeman,

2015; Samuda & Bygate, 2008). Foster (1998) claimed that the research setting is a significant variable, so findings from laboratory research cannot confidently be applied to actual classrooms (although this was empirically disputed by Gass, Mackey, & Ross-Feldman 2005). There is often a suspicion of laboratory-based studies by practitioners, with Spada (2005) claiming that "teachers are usually more willing to accept findings from studies that have taken place in classrooms than in laboratories" (p. 330). Therefore, it follows that classroom-based studies may be more effective in influencing pedagogical change.

While tightly controlled experimental research no doubt has an important role to play in advancing our understanding of instructed SLA, I strongly agree with those voices that call for more classroom-based studies to help bridge the divide that sometimes exists between research and practice (Tavakoli & Howard, 2012). Despite the clear difficulties that exist when conducting such studies (including this one), there is no doubt in my mind that they are essential to obtain findings with greater relevance to practicing teachers.

While classroom research can be viewed as a unique context for conducting research, the research methods that have been practiced, and the paradigms to which they belong, are the same as those found in other areas of applied linguistics and social enquiry more generally, and it is to this topic which I now turn.

3.1.2 From research paradigm to methodology

Over the past few decades, research in the social sciences has been approached using a wide variety of methods divided into distinct paradigms. Those working in the positivist tradition have tended to employ quantitative methods of data collection and analysis, while others working in the constructivist paradigm have relied primarily on qualitative methods of enquiry. However, it has been noted by several researchers that *mixed methods research* (MMR) has not only gained traction in social enquiry more generally (Cresswell, 2009; Hashemi & Babaii, 2013), but it has been the subject of extensive discussion in the sub-field of language teaching (J. Brown, 2014; Dörnyei, 2007; Richards, Ross, & Seedhouse, 2013). MMR essentially seeks to maximise the benefits and minimise any inherent weaknesses of both qualitative and quantitative approaches; by viewing a research problem from multiple angles, it may increase the likelihood of finding answers to empirical questions (Riazi & Candlin, 2014). It is recognised in MMR that the relative focus on qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection and analysis is not likely to be perfectly balanced. Often one strand will take primacy through all or part of an MMR project. When describing the structure of an MMR study, it has become conventional in the MMR literature to denote the primary strand using capital letters; for example, a study that primarily uses a quantitative questionnaire for data collection, but later has some follow-up interviews with certain participants of particular interest could be described as a QUAN-qual investigation.

The discrete qualitative/quantitative dichotomy that has dominated discourse in the social sciences is arguably even less relevant in classroom research, where the use of eclectic approaches to data collection and analysis has been suggested (Nunan & Bailey, 2009). For classroom-based

investigations, Grotjahn (1987) proposed that researchers can make design choices at the following three levels:

1. (Quasi-) experimental OR non-experimental
2. Quantitative OR qualitative
3. Statistical analysis OR interpretive analysis

If the first option is taken at each level, the resulting research design would be a quintessential hypothesis-testing experimental study using a statistical analysis of quantitative data. Choosing the second option each time would produce a classic descriptive, possibly hypothesis-forming, study. But the implication of Grotjahn's framework is that choosing different options at each level could result in a viable hybrid research design.

A similar research framework, and one made with specific reference to the investigation of tasks in language teaching, was put forward by Samuda and Bygate (2008). They proposed the following three fundamental dimensions in which task research can be situated:

1. Systemic vs process. Systemic research focuses on a single point, or points, of time, while process studies give a more detailed descriptive account of the task proceedings.
2. Macro vs micro. Macro studies focus on groups, while micro studies look at the individual through case studies.
3. Quantitative vs qualitative: Samuda and Bygate (2008) suggest that any of the four possible combinations of the first two dimensions can be operationalised using either a quantitative or qualitative approach to data handling.

In this study, I have taken a flexible and eclectic view of the research paradigm in which I work, hence the appeal of the design frameworks of both Grotjahn, and Samuda and Bygate. Following Grotjahn's model, the current study had a reasonably controlled quasi-experimental design: four intact classes were used which each followed a different pedagogical approach in only one aspect, and there were some efforts made to minimise other variables (such as all other lesson procedures and materials being identical). However, as these were intact classes, there remained a considerable number of potentially confounding variables which would have limited the validity of a pre-/post test design. In addition, such a design would have necessitated the allocation of course time to conduct the tests, something which would have brought ethical complications. Instead, this study primarily followed a qualitative approach to data handling, with later quantification of interesting features. Finally, an interpretive outlook with the analysis of data was taken. With regard to Samuda and Bygate's three dimensions to task research design, this study fell between the defined categories: first, although essentially a process study — as the analysis mainly looked at the unfolding task interaction — data were collected at only two specific points in time; next, like a micro study, I followed individual groups and learners but also looked at the cumulative findings; third, as detailed below, a QUAL-quan

approach to the data collection and analysis guided the research process. The raw data were recorded samples of words, not numbers, and the bulk of the initial analysis consisted of searching for patterns in cases of learner-learner interaction. Only later was there an attempt to quantify certain features discovered in the data.

While case study has been an important contributor to second language research over the years, it has typically focused on individual cases of language learners. Mackey and Gass (2015) pointed out how "case studies tend to provide detailed descriptions of specific learners (or sometimes classes) within their learning setting" (p. 222). Of the more than 70 case studies reviewed by Duff (2008), almost all are of this type. Archetypal case studies in naturalistic SLA have followed an individual's (Ellis, 1984; Schmidt, 1983) or sometimes a class' (Willett, 1995) development over a relatively long period of time. Other case study research has focused on an individual, or groups of, students over the course of a single language class (Ohta, 1995). However, it has been pointed out that the definition of case study varies widely (Richards, 2003), so perhaps it should not necessarily be limited to the examination of isolated cases. Samuda and Bygate (2008) seemed to endorse a degree of flexibility, pointing out that some process/micro studies can be realised using a multiple case study strategy. Indeed, Duff (2012; 2014) has stated that case study research in second language education is moving towards the use of multiple cases; Mackey and Gass (2015) have pointed out that "case studies can be conducted with two individual learners or two existing groups of learners for the purpose of comparing and contrasting their behaviors within their particular context" (p. 225), and Samuda and Bygate (2008) presented the strengths of the multiple case study approach. They argued that the inherent weakness of process approaches with single case studies — that we do not know if data is "representative or idiosyncratic" (p. 97) — can be overcome by using cumulative case study findings, resulting in strengthened external validity. Several researchers have chosen to follow such an approach. For example, Ohta (2001) followed the classroom interaction of seven students over the course of an academic year, while others have followed participants over a much shorter period of time (Lynch & Maclean, 2000; 2001; Samuda, 2001). A single session approach was taken in Lynch and Maclean's (2000; 2001) investigation into the repetition of an ESP poster carousel task. Through careful analysis of individual participants' performances, Lynch and Maclean were able to show evidence of attention to both language and content, as well as linguistic development over successive repetitions of the task. The accumulation of the evidence from these individual case studies allowed Lynch and Maclean to discover a connection between proficiency and awareness of language development.

The approach used in the current investigation was not the typical kind of longitudinal case study described in discussions of research methods. As detailed in section 4.3, it instead involved the careful qualitative analysis of interactions of several learners working in small groups to complete collaborative tasks. One week later, the learners formed new groups and performed the same tasks. Thus, the task interactions for a number of individual learners over two data collection sessions were collected. The aim was to identify interesting features of individual task interactions. These features may or may not have occurred consistently for other individuals and groups. Further, considering the

kind of hybrid approach to research design described above, I was fully expecting from the beginning that certain interactional features be quantified in order to illustrate and help describe the shared patterns emerging from the qualitative data sets.

3.1.3 Approaches to analysis: Investigating learner-learner task interaction

The primary focus in this study was the analysis of learner-learner task interaction. The methods employed borrowed from research traditions spanning from more cognitive-based interactionist approaches through to SCT and CA.

Many of the earlier interaction studies investigated issues related to Long's (1983) interaction hypothesis and looked at exchanges between native and non-native speakers — sometimes in classrooms (Pica, 1991) and at other times not (Gass & Varonis, 1985). There was also some desire to try to also explore learner-learner interactions (Doughty & Pica, 1986; Fernández García, 2007; García Mayo & Pica, 2000; Gass et al., 2005; Pica, 1987; Varonis & Gass, 1985).

Some have lamented that so much task research has been directed at negotiation for meaning (Foster & Ohta, 2005; Samuda & Bygate, 2008), arguing that there is much more to task interaction than a limited number of negotiation moves. Perhaps as a consequence of this, there has been a significant body of research that has expanded on the foundations of negotiation to incorporate such features as language-related episodes (Swain & Lapkin, 1995; Williams, 1999) and other conversational moves that occur in task interaction (Hardy & Moore, 2004; Jepson, 2005). I did not undertake the analysis of this study with such pre-determined units of analysis. Instead, I intended to employ an inductive, holistic approach. One field that has embraced such a method of task analysis is socio-cultural theory (SCT). Bygate (2015) described SCT approaches to task research:

[SCT approaches] tend to start from the actual participants working with tasks, leading to the exploration of topics such as the different ways learners or groups of learners choose to work through a task, how they help each other, what they say or do on a given task, or how they think about a task or the way it has been used. (p. 15)

A number of SCT studies have focused on learner-learner interaction, albeit not always in situations that might constitute a task as described above (see section 2.2). They have often used a *microgenetic* system of analysis, which follows the unfolding interaction over a much shorter time-span than in a traditional longitudinal study (Pekarek Doehler & Fasel Lauzon, 2015). Notable examples include Donato (1994), in which he employed microanalysis to explore the benefits of collective scaffolding found in small groups of second language learners, and Ohta's (1995; 1999) studies of learner-learner interaction in class pair work activities, which revealed new insights into how learners co-construct meaning. Directly relevant to the current study are the SCT studies that have explored learner orientation (see section 2.4.2) during tasks.

While I did not approach this investigation from an SCT position per se, the level of delicacy with which researchers in this field conduct learner-learner interaction analysis can provide valuable insights into both classroom SLA processes and how learners orient to tasks, two factors which proved to be fundamental components of this study. For the current investigation, the co-construction

of meaning is a phenomenon that was expected to feature in the exchanges of participants during task performances.

Another field that has employed microgenetic analysis of classroom talk — including learner-learner task interaction — is conversation analysis. Initially, CA largely focused on naturally occurring mundane talk-in-interaction, building upon the work of its founder, Harvey Sacks (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008). However, over the past two decades, interest has increased in applying CA to institutional contexts (Richards, Seedhouse, & Drew, 2004), including task interaction in second language classrooms (Markee, 2005; Seedhouse, 1999). Seedhouse (2004) argued for a detailed exploratory analysis of classroom talk that scrutinises features of talk such as repair and the turn-based system of interaction. Addressing a point that became highly relevant to the analysis in the current investigation, Pekarek Doehler and Fasel Lauzon (2015) claimed that microgenetic CA analysis can illuminate the attentional foci of classroom language learners:

The turn-by-turn unfolding of social interaction hence becomes an analytic resource by means of which cognitive features such as attention focus or noticing become observable to the researcher as enacted through the participants' verbal and non-verbal[...]conducts. (p. 412)

Unlike some working within a CA framework, Seedhouse (2004) does not eschew a mixed methods approach which allows for a quantitative element that might highlight the commonality of certain features in task interaction. While arguing that the fine-grained analysis should hold primacy and always be conducted first, he contends that once certain features of interest have been identified, quantification may be a useful option, depending on the research agenda. More recently, Kasper and Wagner (2014) have noted increasing attention towards the possibilities of quantification with a CA approach.

In the current investigation, the kind of fine-grained analysis often found in microgenetic SCT and CA studies was employed to explore the data. For instance, the transcription conventions used were based on those used in CA for SLA studies (Kasper & Wagner, 2011). The step-by-step analysis of individual learners' task interaction and the features that were revealed were combined in an effort to find patterns between learners and groups of learners who underwent different instructional sequences. As described above, in the event of interesting commonalities being found, I expected to use some degree of quantification to illustrate them. As Mackey and Gass (2015) argued, quantification of qualitative data can "play a role in both in the generation of hypotheses and in the verification of patterns that have been noticed" (p. 234). For this reason, after certain features of interest were identified, they were converted into numerical data for the purpose of conducting a quantitative analysis.

3.2 PARTICIPANTS AND CONTEXT

The setting for this research project was a private university in Japan. The participants were perhaps the archetypal EFL students described by Swan (2005a); that is, they received two 90-minute hours of

compulsory English classes each week during term time. Participants were from intact classes of first year (18 to 19 years old) students who were economics and business majors. All were native speakers of Japanese, who had received six years of formal English education in junior and senior high school. None had spent any significant time overseas.

As the overall secondary school curriculum is dictated by the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT), all students had received instruction covering the same language forms (Hardy, 2007; MEXT, 2008; Tahira, 2012). Teachers in junior and senior high school contexts have to cover a prescribed list of grammatical forms in limited time; consequently, little time is dedicated to more communicative approaches to language learning. Grammar translation is often the method of choice (Gorsuch, 1998; Nishino, 2011; O'Donnell, 2005; Sakui, 2004), and classes are usually conducted in the L1 (Tsukamoto & Tsujioka, 2013). When practice activities are used, they tend to be more traditional activities based around the controlled practice of specific target forms (Mackey et al., 2013).

In the university where this study took place, students were assigned to either advanced or basic English classes within their department after taking an initial in-house placement test. They were then further divided into three sections, again based on their scores. Finally, they were randomly assigned to classes of around twenty students. The four classes of student participants in this study all came from intact classes placed in the top section of the basic English course. However, because they were streamed separately within their two different departments, it was possible that some classes from one department were more proficient than the other, and, unfortunately, details of the placement test were not available for privacy reasons. Nonetheless, the participants would be considered high beginner learners with, like many Japanese university students, a reasonable explicit knowledge of grammar and metalinguistic terms in the L1, although their speaking skills were less developed, probably owing to their limited previous experience of communicating in English (Miyagi, Sato, & Crump, 2009).

Over the four classes, 87 students agreed to take part (see section 3.7 for information on informed consent and volunteer participation; see Appendix 1 for the informed consent letter) for the main study and were present for all or part of the data collection period. Two other students initially agreed to take part, but they soon dropped out of the course. (Unfortunately, no students were willing to participate in an out of class follow-up session using stimulated response protocols.) For the purposes of this investigation, each group of participants is henceforth termed a *Class*, and they are assigned a letter code. The participant composition of the four classes is displayed in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1
The composition of the four classes involved in this investigation

Participants	Class			
	A	B	C	D
Female	11	10	11	9
Male	11	11	11	13
Total	22	21	22	22

Teacher/researcher participant

I was both the researcher and the classroom teacher throughout the duration of the study. As this was not an interventionist study, and since I was not a participant observer, issues of subjectivity were less of a consideration. The ethical issues connected with this role are considered in section 4.7. At the time of the data collection period, I had around 10 years experience of teaching EFL in Japan, with one year at a private language school, five years in secondary school and four years at university; I held a Cambridge CELTA and a master's degree in TESOL. I attended the university once a week as a part-time member of the language centre to teach the classes described below.

Curriculum and classes

The course was called *Kiso Eigo* (which translates as *Basic English*), and its primary purpose was to develop students' speaking and general English oral communication skills. The classes met weekly for 90-minute lessons over a 15-week autumn semester that ran from September to January. As I only had two classes per week, two groups (which became Class A and D) took part in the study in the autumn of 2013, and the remaining two groups (Class B and C) did it the following year. All students were in the second semester of their first year of university when they took this course. Table 3.2 shows where the periods of data collection fell within the course flow.

Table 3.2
The course and data collection

Week	Course schedule	Data collection
1	Orientation & Unit 1 (meeting people)	
2	Textbook: Unit 2 (daily routines)	
3	Textbook: Unit 2	
4	Textbook: Unit 3 (Clothes & shopping)	DP main task
5	Textbook: Unit 3	DP repeat task
6	Textbook: Unit 5 (Sports)	
7	Textbook: Unit 5	
8	Project: Hometown presentations I	
9	Project: Hometown presentations II	
10	Textbook: Unit 4 (Entertainment)	CT main task
11	Textbook: Unit 4	CT repeat task
12	Textbook: Unit 7 (vacations)	
13	Textbook: Unit 7	
14	Review	
15	Oral tests	

There was a required textbook, *New Interchange 1A* (Richards, Hull, & Proctor, 2012), that was used mainly as a springboard for communicative tasks based on the topics it contained. The same group of students also took a reading class with a different instructor, who closely followed the textbook

Reading Power 2 (Jeffries & Mikulecky, 2009). The reading course did not obviously conflict with either the topics or target language of the communication course.

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

The data collection was carried out over a pair of two-week periods in the autumn semesters of 2013 and 2014. Two different tasks were studied: The first two weeks covered a decision-making task, while the latter covered a jigsaw task (see section 3.5 for details of tasks and task selection).

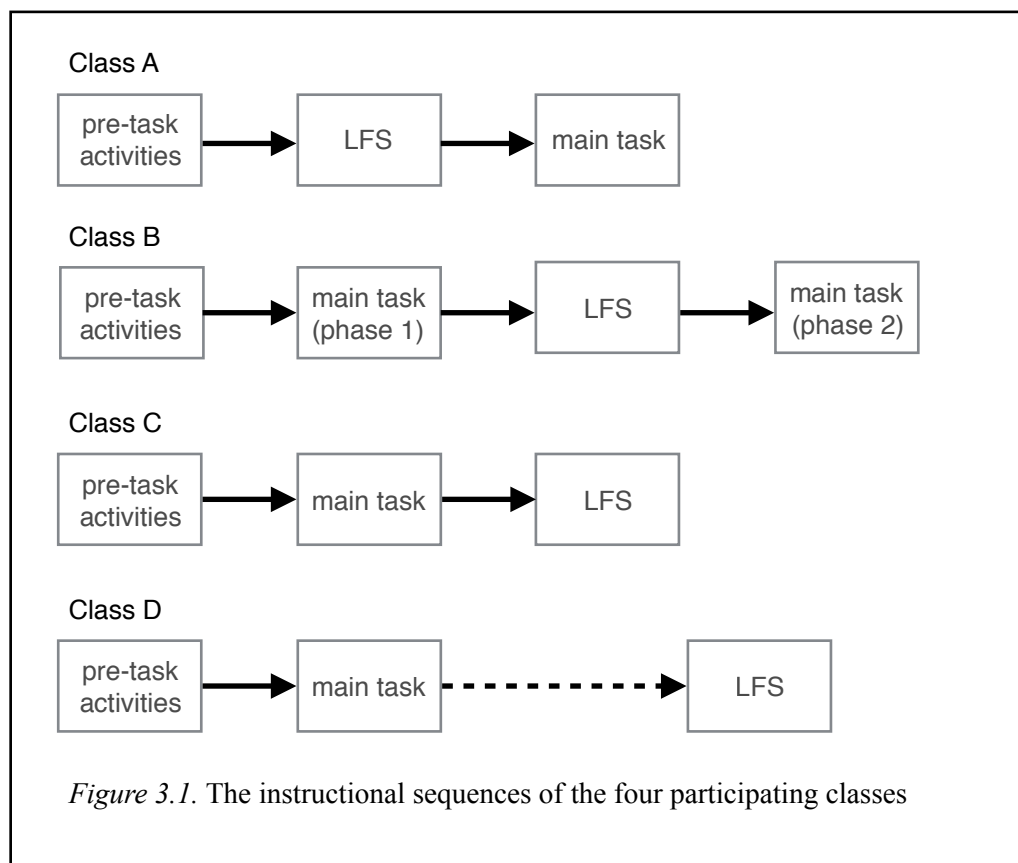
In the first week of each two-week period, there was an initial instructional sequence, which included pre-task activities and a main task. The two main tasks differed in their task-essentialness with specific linguistic forms: the decision-making task was a relatively unfocused task with a number of opportunities for the use of likely target forms, while the jigsaw task was more focused and was approaching the task-essential end of the task-essentialness continuum (as proposed in Figure 2.2). Three of the four classes involved in the study also had a language focus stage (henceforth, LFS) as part of the classroom activities in the first week. As discussed in section 2.3.2.2, the kind of reactive focus-on-form advocated by Long (1991) has its drawbacks when utilised in compulsory language education contexts which have high student numbers. It may also be difficult for teachers who are less experienced or have lower proficiency with the target language. Therefore, the goal of this study was to investigate the use of pre-planned explicit teaching of pre-selected language forms. While this could be operationalised in several ways, I tried to follow aspects of the language focus stages suggested by the advocates of pre-, during- and post-test approaches (as detailed in sections 2.3.3, 2.3.4, and 2.3.5). For pre-task approaches, Dekeyser (1998) argued that practice is essential, while Nunan (2004) suggested noticing and practice activities should be done before the main task. The language focus in Samuda's (2001) during-task approach was more implicit than the LFS used in this study; nevertheless, there was an explicit teacher-led phase that directed learners to map meanings on forms. Finally, Willis & Willis (2007) proposed post-task consciousness-raising activities based on the task's texts. Considering these various designs of explicit language-focused instruction, the LFS combined consciousness-raising activities based on a listening text with practice activities focusing on task-specific target forms.

Classroom procedures for the whole class were recorded, as were the individual groups' task performances. At the end of each first week's session, participants completed uptake reports in which they were asked to record the linguistic features they had noticed during the lesson. In the second week, the first 20 minutes were devoted to the study. During this time, participants repeated the same task they had done in the previous week. The remainder of the lesson time was used for purposes outside of this study.

With four classes of participants each doing two task performances, the number of class sessions that were observed and analysed came to eight. Besides the position of the LFS in relation to the main task, they essentially all followed the procedures, as detailed here:

Week 1: Instructional sequences

With the purpose of the investigation being to study the impact of the position of explicit instruction, the four classes of participants were randomly assigned a different type of instructional sequence for the first week of each two-week data collection period. As Figure 3.1 shows, all classes began the first lesson by doing some relevant pre-task activities to help them prepare for the main task. Next, the four classes followed classroom activities that differed only in the order in which they were conducted. The contents and procedures of the main tasks and LFS stages were identical across the four classes. Naturally, given the dynamic nature of language classrooms, variation will always exist, however, measures were taken to ensure consistency in teacher instructions and the time allocated to different stages. For example, the first class of the study (which happened to be Class A) was audio recorded in its entirety, and the timing for the pre-task activities and LFS was noted and adhered to as closely as possible for the subsequent classes. Also, as far as possible², the same instructions and board work were given to each class throughout the data collection sessions.



All classes began with pre-task activities to help them prepare for the upcoming task. For the final activity, participants listened to a model of the main task and answered some comprehension questions. From this point the procedures varied depending on the class. Class A followed an

² Naturally, some variation occurred when instructions needed to be repeated, expanded on, or elaborated in response to participants.

approach with similarities to a traditional P-P-P instructional sequence and Nunan's (2004) framework, first receiving explicit form-focused instruction before doing the main task. The instructional sequence that Class B followed resembled Samuda's (2001) approach, in which the LFS was conducted during a break in the main task. The *pre-LFS phase* of the main task was stopped after exactly two minutes, and the participants received the same LFS as Class A. Once completed, the students were asked to resume the task, this being the *post-LFS phase* of the main task. Class C followed the instructional sequence most closely associated with Willis and Willis (2007). Here, the participants did the main task immediately after finishing the pre-task activities. The LFS was conducted as the final stage of the three-part sequence. Finally, Class D acted as a comparison group. They followed a simple two-stage instructional sequence, in which the pre-task activities were followed by the main task. In the remaining class time, the students did an exercise from the textbook. To maintain ethical standards and ensure that the students in this class were not being deprived of some potentially beneficial explicit instruction, the LFS was conducted after the data collection period had finished.

Week 2: Repetition of the main task

One week later, the main task was repeated. The research area of task repetition has generated a number of studies over the years since Bygate (1996) first described how aspects of language produced by learners in a repeated task were an improvement when compared to an initial performance. Much research has focused on repetition with no intervention between task performances, and the aim has primarily been to look for the effect of repetition alone (Ahmadian & Tavakoli, 2011; Bygate, 2001). Others have looked to use task repetition as part of a strategy to focus on specific forms (Hawkes, 2012; van de Guchte, Braaksma, Rijlaarsdam, & Bimmel, 2016).

In this investigation, task repetition was employed to look for evidence of any lasting impact of the initial instructional sequence. Participants were randomly assigned new partners and given slightly updated materials (see Appendix 2 for the main and repeat task materials). At the beginning of the lesson, the participants learned that they would repeat the same task as the previous week. This was done to prevent participants from revising the LFS materials beforehand; although, in the second task cycle, it is likely that some may have predicted being asked to repeat the task. Before starting, no reference was made to the participants about the target forms that had appeared in the previous week's LFS (for Class A, B, and C). The subsequent task performances were audio recorded. As mentioned above, only the first 15 to 20 minutes of the second class were allocated to the study, and, in the remainder of the class, the participants continued with their regular syllabus.

3.4 SELECTING TASKS AND TARGET FORMS

In order to choose appropriate tasks and target forms, a pilot study was first conducted in the same teaching context as the main study in the previous year. Each year, the students that take the course are fairly homogenous groups with remarkably similar English ability and language learning

experiences. It was surmised that features and characteristics of task performance were likely to be repeated by participants of the main investigation the following year.

Eight regular classroom tasks matching the topics in the textbook were considered. These are summarised in Table 3.3, using the task taxonomy by Pica, Kanagy, and Falodun (1993)³. They were selected on the basis that they are similar to those found in published textbooks, teacher activity books, and previous research, thus giving them an element of both ecological validity and consistency with previous empirical studies. Recordings were made of task performances, which were then analysed to choose tasks that would provide samples of task interaction for analysis. It was decided that for tasks to be considered for the main study, they should meet the following four criteria:

1. Tasks should stimulate conversation among all group members.
2. Tasks could be completed successfully in between five and ten minutes.
3. Tasks should have an appropriate difficulty level.
4. Tasks should create obligatory occasions for the use of certain language forms.

Table 3.3
The eight tasks that were piloted for use in the main investigation

Task	Task type	Description
A. Aliens	Information gap	Pairs need to describe a picture to their partner who must then draw it as accurately as possible.
B. Cinema trip	Decision making	Groups of three learners must plan a day out to the cinema.
C. Describing people	Jigsaw	Pairs use corresponding numbered pictures of people to describe each person and determine if their partner's picture is the same or different.
D. Health survey	Jigsaw	Learners discuss their lifestyle habits and decide which group member has the healthiest lifestyle.
E. Job hunting	Decision making	Learners must choose suitable jobs for certain jobseekers from a selection of adverts.
F. Kansai tour	Decision making	Learners must organise an itinerary for a tourist visiting the local area of Kansai.
G. My best vacation	Information gap	A narrative task where learners draw then use pictures to tell their partners about the best trip they have taken.
H. Scheduling	Jigsaw	Working with set schedules, learners must find a mutually convenient time to meet and do a homework assignment.

To determine what forms might be appropriate for teaching, careful analysis of the task interaction was conducted. First, an error analysis was performed following the conventions laid out by Duly, Burt, and Krashen (1982). The use of learner errors to select target forms for instruction has precedence in SLA research (Williams & Evans, 1998), and it has been claimed to have high face

³ Unlike some other uses of 'information gap', Pica et al.'s (1993) taxonomy distinguishes *jigsaw* tasks as necessitating a two-way exchange of information, while an *information gap* involves only a one-way flow.

validity for teachers (Doughty & Williams, 1998b). As mentioned above, ecological validity and direct relevance to pedagogy are central to this research. Further, Ellis (2003) suggested that error analysis could be useful in homogenous groups of learners such as the participants of the current study. In similar groups of learners, it is likely that types of errors will be shared; therefore, what is relevant to one group of learners will probably also be applicable to another. As errors were recorded, and it became apparent which forms caused trouble for the participants, it was possible to go back and look for the kind of avoidances described by Hummel (2014) which are indicative of gaps in language knowledge. A summary of the task piloting can be seen in Table 3.4. From a consideration of the four task criteria, along with the potential linguistic targets that arose from the error analyses, two tasks were chosen for the main study: *cinema trip* and *describing people*.

Table 3.4
Results of the task piloting

Task	Task criteria				Reason
	1	2	3	4	
A. Aliens (describe & draw)	O	O	O	O	This task appeared to encourage engaging and stimulated discussion. An analysis of the interaction showed that there was a great deal of minimalisation in the task interaction. This was considered as a potential task for the main study.
B. Cinema trip	O	O	O	O	The task stimulated lively discussions that were evenly distributed among the participants. Although it could be easy for learners to complete should they choose to agree with each other without discussion, participants tended to negotiate the various decisions required of them. Analysis of the interaction consistently revealed three linguistic problem areas which were candidates to be target forms.
C. Describing people (same or different)	O	O	O	O	Participants seemed to enjoy this task. It was engaging and seemed to challenge the learners. Its focused repetitive nature provided numerous obligatory occasions for certain linguistic forms. This was considered as a potential task for the main study.
D. Health survey	X	O	O	X	While this task generated much discussion, it was felt that strong students tended to dominate the talk. Also, due to the open nature of the task, it was more difficult to pin down specific linguistic forms that would be useful.
E. Job hunting	X	O	X	O	Participants seemed to rely mostly on the written descriptions of the jobs. Most of the task time was spent in silence as learners read the job descriptions multiple times and considered which job would be best suited for which jobseeker. It was also possible that the lack of interaction was due to some gap in understanding. A superficial listen to the tasks indicated that the function of <i>giving opinions</i> might be a useful target form. This was not considered as a potential task for the main study.

F. Kansai tour	X	O	O	X	Similar to the <i>Health survey</i> task, dominant students tended to speak disproportionately more, and finding linguistic forms that would be helpful was more difficult.
G. My best vacation	O	O	O	X	While this seemed to engage the students and stimulate a lively exchange of ideas, finding a target form was more difficult than anticipated. For example, it was imagined that the contrast between past continuous and simple past might be a valuable point to focus on, however, the participants tended not to describe situations where this linguistic feature might be useful. A second downside was the time it took for some in the class to draw their pictures. The early finishers were waiting a long time and were planning their narratives in advance, sometimes by writing a script.
H. Scheduling	O	O	O	O	Although some finished the task quite quickly, this task required all members to participate fully. Similar to the <i>Describing people</i> task above, the repetitive nature of the task gave rise to some possibilities for specific forms that may be helpful for task performance. This was considered as a potential task for the main study.

Notes. Task criteria 1 = stimulates conversation among all group members; Task criteria 2 = can be completed successfully in between five and ten minutes; Task criteria 3 = has appropriate difficulty level; Task criteria 4 = creates obligatory occasions for the use of certain language forms.

3.4.1 Task 1: *Cinema trip*

The first task chosen was pilot task B, *Cinema trip* (henceforth, CT), a decision-making task performed in groups of three. The main task was preceded by two pre-tasks or *enabling tasks* (Nunan, 2004). The first, a listing task, had groups brainstorm film genres. Next, they told the other group members which genre(s) they liked, and gave some examples of specific films. For the main task, each triad received a copy of the current week's schedule for a local cinema (see Appendix 2), and they were required to plan a day out for the approaching weekend. First in groups, and then in plenary, the class brainstormed ideas regarding what topics would need to be discussed to make a thorough and detailed plan. In addition to some of the groups' own original ideas, the teacher suggested the following topics for discussion: the day of the weekend they will go, a film to watch, the start time, a place to eat before or after the film, and the meeting arrangements. Naturally, some or all of these topics had already been identified by some or all of the groups.

Although it has been claimed that for many kinds of communicative tasks, dyads may produce more interaction (Doughty & Pica, 1986), my experience of this task has shown triads to be preferable (as Fortune & Thorpe (2001) also concluded) as there was more chance of diverging film tastes and scheduling preferences. A possible issue with relatively open decision-making tasks of this nature is the threat of what Littlewood (2014) has called "premature closing" and "social loading". The former occurs when learners seek to take the easiest route through a task. In the case of the CT task, a scenario is possible where the learners all agree with the first suggestions made by other group members, and the task is taken to completion fairly rapidly, without much consideration of the intended discussion topics. The latter is a term which describes the situation where a learner does not

participate fully and leaves the bulk of the work to more willing members. While it is difficult to nullify these threats completely, a short discussion was held before the task began to outline these issues. The participants were requested to discuss each point thoroughly and were advised that the task should probably be completed in five and ten minutes. It was also stressed that all members must participate equally; that is, if one group member was relatively passive, it was the responsibility of that person to contribute more, as well of the job of the other members to involve him or her.

An analysis of the pilot study interaction was conducted to look for linguistic features that would cause problems for the participants in the main study. The task interaction of 29 pilot study participants (nine triads and one dyad) first underwent an error analysis from which 185 errors were found. Most errors made were isolated cases and were not repeated, but Table 3.5 shows the linguistic features for which errors were made on three or more occasions. These errors were grammatical, lexical and pragmatic. Each error was categorised by a linguistic feature that could be corrected to make the utterance target-like. Of course, errors could sometimes be corrected in more than one way, so consistent judgements had to be made.

Table 3.5
Results of error analysis for the CT task

Linguistic feature	Proportion of total (%)	Distribution
Modals	12.4	12
Articles	10.8	10
Time prepositions	5.9	9
Copula	5.4	6
<i>Let's</i> suggestion phrases	4.3	8
'want to' omissions	2.7	3
Place prepositions	2.7	5
24 hr clock	2.7	2
Auxiliary 'do'	2.2	3
3rd person -s	1.6	3
Miscellaneous	49.3	

Notes. Distribution = the number of participants that made an error on this linguistic feature.

The error analysis revealed a few potential targets for the LFS. Errors on modals were the most common and had a wide distribution with 12 different participants having problems. Article errors (particularly omissions) were also made frequently, followed by time prepositions, copulas and *let's* suggestion phrases. Next, a more qualitative approach was taken to look at what the learners were trying to do when they made these errors. Most of the errors with modals occurred when participants were trying to elicit suggestions with *wh-* questions (e.g. "when we meet" instead of perhaps "when should we meet") or make suggestions (e.g. "we go to lunch?" instead of perhaps "shall we go to lunch?"). Most of the time preposition errors were omissions of *at* before times of day (e.g. "it starts nine" instead of "it starts at nine"). Almost all article errors were definite article omissions (e.g. "after

movie" instead of "after the movie"). It was decided to look closely for all obligatory occasions in the data for wh- questions and suggestion phrases to see if the participants also avoided these potential target features as well as making mistakes with them. For suggestion phrases, 87 obligatory occasions were identified in the data set. Of these, eight instances were target-like, made by seven different individuals. (However, six of these seven learners had problems elsewhere when attempting to make a suggestion phrase.) Another 12 were filled with erroneous attempts to make a suggestion phrase (e.g. "let's talking about..." instead of "let's talk about"). In the remaining 67, the participants avoided using suggestion phrases where they would be pragmatically appropriate. In many of these instances, minimalisation was the key feature with participants often using one-word utterances accompanied by rising intonation (e.g. "Hobbit?" instead of perhaps "how about (The) Hobbit?"). Also, grammatically and/or pragmatically inappropriate bald declarative utterances were often seen (e.g. "we will go to restaurant" instead of perhaps "how about going to a restaurant?"). For speech acts such as suggestions, it is important to use appropriate language when occasion demands. As Martínez-Flor (2010) asserts, "failure to perform (suggestions) appropriately may have negative results as the speaker can be perceived as rude, impolite or even offensive" (p. 257). As the task created many obligatory occasions for suggestions (learners needed to suggest films, times, restaurants, or kinds of food), it was decided that the target forms would be lexical chunks used for making suggestions. As native speaker intuition can often be flawed (Bartlett, 2005; Biber, Conrad, & Reppen, 1994), specific suggestion phrases were selected after consulting two more sources: native speaking teaching colleagues and a grammar reference book.

The task was piloted with three pairs of native speakers to see what forms they tended to use. These task performances demonstrated that native speakers would indeed use suggestion phrases including *how/what about* and *let's*. The second source of information was a corpus-based grammar reference book, the *Collins COBUILD Intermediate English Grammar* (D. Willis, 2004), based on the Bank of English 2.5 billion word corpus, which was used to select the following six frames that are often used to make suggestions:

- Let's...
- It might be good...
- Shall we...?
- Why don't we...?
- What about...? / How about...?
- We could...

In a review of suggestions as speech acts, Martínez-Flor (2005) identified *why don't...?*, *what about...?*, *how about...?*, and *could...* as conventionalised forms which contain an inherent indirectness. It is possible that *Let's...* and *shall we...* could also be classified this way, although they seem to carry a little more force. *It might be good...* was categorised separately by Martínez-Flor as an indirect form. This suggestion does not contain the same extent of suggestion power as the former phrases. All these phrases, therefore, contain an element of indirectness which is invaluable in social

interaction, and it was decided that they would be presented as suggestion phrases with similar but not completely equal power.

With any tasks that target a particular structure, there is a degree to which use of that structure is required for successful task completion. Based on Loschky and Bley-Vroman's (1993) suggestion that tasks can have three levels of necessity for the use of specific forms — task-naturalness, task-utility and task-essentialness — the CT task provided a task-natural situation for the use of suggestion phrases. It is certainly possible for learners to complete this task without resorting to suggestion phrases; however, the pilot studies demonstrated how opportunities for the use of such expressions were found on multiple occasions throughout interactions stemming from this task. Using these suggestion phrases, the LFS materials were created which included a combination of consciousness-raising exercises (Ellis, 2002; Mohamed, 2004; Willis & Willis, 1996) followed by a practice activity (see Appendix 2).

3.4.2 Task 2: *Describing people*

The second task selected was pilot task C, *Describing people* (henceforth, DP), a same-or-different jigsaw task performed in pairs. This kind of task has been used previously in both research (Samuda & Rounds, 1993, cited in Ellis, 2003) and teaching (Klippel, 1984). Participating pairs had a number of pictures of people which they had to describe and then determine whether or not each corresponding picture was the same as their partner's (see Appendix 2). Since a group of lexical items was chosen for the CT task, I wanted to select a grammatical target for the second task if possible. During the piloting of this task, it soon became apparent that there were two frequently occurring types of grammatical errors. The results of the error analysis is shown in Table 3.6. While in the CT task there was a wide spread of different errors, the majority of erroneous utterances here could be categorised into just two types.

Table 3.6
Results of error analysis for the DP task

Linguistic feature	Proportion of total (%)	Distribution
Present continuous	48.6	17
Articles	29.7	10
Possessive determiner	2.2	2
Miscellaneous	19.5	—

Notes. Distribution = the number of participants that made an error on this linguistic feature.

Similar to the CT task, learners made many article errors, especially omissions of indefinite articles (e.g. "man wear suit"). The second kind of error that frequently appeared was with the use of the present continuous to describe what the characters in the pictures were doing or wearing. On many occasions, minimalisation had a great impact on the lack of target-like uses of the present continuous, with the -ing morpheme and/or the auxiliary *be* being most often omitted (e.g. "she eat ice cream" or "she eating ice cream"), confirming Ellis' (2009) claim that such a task would inherently target this

form. This task provided many obligatory occasions for the use of the present continuous in this manner, therefore, it was selected as the target form. As Swan (2005b) pointed out, present continuous is used "to talk about temporary actions and situations that are going on now or 'around now': before, during and after the moment of speaking" (p. 464). The act of describing the actions of people in pictures falls into this usage category. Indeed, in pedagogic materials that target the present continuous, this kind of activity has previously been used (Walcyn-Jones & Howard-Williams, 2001).

The participants in this investigation would have met the present continuous many times in the six years of their compulsory English education. The errors that appeared in the pilot data were most likely developmental errors not easily fixed by instruction. Indeed, previous research has shown present continuous to be susceptible to U-shaped learning. Lightbown (1983) showed that a group of 6th grade French L1 learners of English were often successful in using the *-ing* continuous morpheme in a target-like manner. However, as they progressed in their L2 development during the 7th grade, they began to use the present simple on occasions when the continuous form was obligatory. Finally, as the learners reached the 8th grade, they returned to using the *-ing* morpheme correctly in present continuous utterances. Lightbown attributed this example of U-shaped learning to L1 interference, but it serves as an example of how the present continuous, like many other grammatical forms, does not follow a linear path through a learner's interlanguage development.

To check that native speakers would also use the present continuous, the task was piloted with three pairs of native speaker colleagues, and some corpus-based teaching materials were consulted (Willis & Willis, 1988). The teaching materials suggested that using *have* (e.g. She has brown hair) or *have got* (e.g. She has got a bag) might also be useful. A look at the transcripts made from the native speaker samples confirmed that these three forms (present continuous, *have*, and *have got*) could all be employed for this task.

3.5 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

During this investigation, two data collection methods were employed. The primary data collection method was the gathering of samples of interaction for all the task performances. The second, and supplementary, method involved the use of self-report forms in which participants reported which language points they had noticed in class.

3.5.1 Collecting spoken interaction

The primary source of the data were samples of learner-learner interaction during the task performances. Audio recordings were made of task performances and were used to produce transcripts from which the analysis could be conducted. Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) have described this means of data collection as *clinical elicitation* to distinguish it from both *naturally occurring* and *experimentally elicited* (where only specific forms are targeted) samples of learner language, defining it as "the use of tasks where learners are primarily concerned with message conveyance, need to

utilize their own linguistic resources to construct utterances, and are focused on achieving some non-linguistic outcome" (p. 23).

One widely discussed matter concerning elicited samples is their authenticity (Friedman, 2012; Richards, 2003). The sociolinguist Labov (1972, p.209) coined the phrase the *observer's paradox*, meaning that simply by observing an event, we are likely to change its nature or proceedings by altering the behaviour of the participants. Labov's experience as a sociolinguist was that research participants would tend to use more formal language when being observed. Indeed, making recordings of participants interacting with a recording device is also a form of observation. As Richards said of the use of microphones, "if people know it's there, they don't act normally" (2003, p. 178). While this effect of the observer's paradox can probably not be overcome completely, it can be alleviated somewhat by allowing participants to become accustomed to the presence of the recording devices (Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Richards, 2003), and by building trust between the researcher and research participants (Bailey, 2006); therefore, recorders were used in class from the beginning of the course. During the pilot studies, the positive effects of making task recordings were noted by the researcher. The sometimes passive or apparently unmotivated learners in this context seemed energised by the presence of the recorder on their table. The recording process appeared to be a motivating factor in itself, and it was introduced as part of the course with the recordings being used in different ways. Beginning recordings from the first week brought the additional benefit of allowing participants to become familiar with using the devices. Participants made recordings of speaking tasks in each class leading up to the start of the data collection period. The participants quickly became accustomed to the presence of the recorders, and it is hoped that this limited their obtrusiveness, and lessened any potentially harmful impact on the authenticity of the data.

As I needed to record individual groups' task interaction, I took a *stations* approach (Markee, 2000), where each group had their own recording device to capture their task interaction. With around 20 learners performing tasks simultaneously, a good deal of noise was generated. Therefore, as much as possible, groups were separated in an attempt to reduce background noise.

For the collection of spoken interaction, there remained the question of whether to make video or audio recordings. The use of video certainly has some advantages: Video is useful if a researcher wants to focus on non-verbal behaviour (Seedhouse, 2009; Stone, 2012; Swann, 2001), while ten Have (2007) pointed out that video is especially helpful in settings where the interactants are using objects. In the case of this study, it was possible that the participants would use some of the task materials in a way that can only be captured by using video (e.g. by pointing at an item in the task materials). Also, during the transcription process, it can help to distinguish between the participants' voices, especially during fast overlapping speech. Despite the obvious merits of video recordings, Swann (2001) also identified some drawbacks including the increased intrusiveness compared with audio recorders, and the difficulty of having a camera far enough to sufficiently capture everything visually, while also being close enough to record the audio clearly. De Costa (2014) found that when recording group discussions, students felt more comfortable with audio rather than video recordings, and Heath and Luff (1993, as cited in ten Have, 2007) warned of the greater

difficulty in preserving anonymity in any subsequent publications. For my research project, which adopted the stations approach requiring up to ten devices, cost was also a significant factor. The cost of using cameras with high quality audio recording would have been prohibitively expensive.

On balance, the most feasible way of carrying out this research was through audio recordings made with small, unobtrusive IC recorders. The data were recorded as MP3 files, which could be easily transferred to computer (and backed-up) soon after being collected. Through trialling and recommendations from colleagues, I found the Panasonic RR-US300 to be a good compromise between cost and recording quality. It was also easy-to-use and had Japanese language menus, which was important as the participants were largely responsible for making the recordings.

3.5.2 Uptake reports

Allwright (1984) proposed the idea of *uptake*; that is, the linguistic items which learners actually consider to have learned from the various stages and activities of a language lesson. He devised a procedure where learners would report at the end of a lesson what items (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation etc.) they thought they had learned. Since then, similar report forms have been used in language teaching research to investigate both learners' perceptions of what they learned in class, and the *source* of the input (Jones, 1992, cited in Mackey, McDonough, Fujii, & Tatsumi, 2001; Palmeira, 1995; Slimani, 1989, cited in Mackey et al., 2001; Slimani, 1992).

Mackey et al. (2001) conducted an empirical study looking at the relative effectiveness of three different formats of learner reports: a) a language-focused report; b) a language and context report; c) a structure-focused report. The format which elicited the most responses was the language-focused report, which required learners to list items they noticed from four categories (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and case study/business), and note the input source for each. Mackey (2006) used similar learner journals to investigate noticing. She had learners record the forms they had noticed, who initially produced them, and whether these were new or not. Similar procedures were used in Fujii and Mackey's (2009) study of interactional feedback, and in Al-Surmi's (2012) investigation of recasts.

In their investigation looking at the value of learner reports, Mackey et al. (2001) concluded that they are a convenient method of gathering information about what learners notice in second language classrooms. For studies with a relatively large number of students in intact classes, learner reports are easily administered and collected with little inconvenience to the participants or interruption to the course flow.

While learner reports may be an effective way of gathering data on participants' perceptions of learning, they share problems with other related forms of data collection such as stimulated recall protocols and diary studies; namely, that of questionable reliability and internal validity (Nunan & Bailey, 2009). Threatening reliability, there is always the possibility that learners would recall different items if the same procedure was repeated. However, Nunan and Bailey considered the problem with internal validity to be more serious as it is difficult to know whether learners are telling the truth when they make their reports. In the case of uptake reports, participants may write items

which they consider to be the target forms for that lesson, while ignoring others that they may indeed have noticed and processed on some level; this is precisely the weakness that Palmeira (1995) reported in his study. Summarising the weaknesses of using learner diaries, Dörnyei (2007) raised the issue of "honest forgetfulness" (p. 158), a vulnerability which is no doubt shared by uptake reports. It is perhaps for these reasons that introspective methods have been seen more as a tool to support primary data collection methods (Harklau, 2011). Despite these limitations, it was decided that uptake reports had value as a supplementary data collection tool. It was thought that they may help to provide an extra insight into learners' orientation during a class.

The uptake report sheet that was used in this investigation can be seen in Appendix 3. This format, adopted from Mackey et al. (2001), was used to try to understand: a) which forms (target or non-target, including grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation) learners claimed to notice; b) the source of the input; c) whether the forms were new to the participants, or whether they had been encountered before. Following a recent study in a similar Japanese context by Nabei (2013), the reports included an L1 translation to avoid any misunderstandings. The uptake reports were distributed to participants as the last stage of the classroom procedures following the main task. Participants were given up to ten minutes to complete the reports, although in reality, it took only a few minutes for most to finish. The papers were collected immediately after, and the data were transferred to a spreadsheet created using Apple's *Numbers* software.

3.6 DATA PROCESSING AND ANALYSIS

In this section, I outline the procedures taken to process and analyse the data, and I provide a bridge to the four Findings chapters that follow. Table 3.7 provides an overview of the data set for the whole study. There were 87 participants in total, spread fairly evenly over the four classes (A to D). Data were gathered from each of the four classes during two separate lessons, resulting in eight separate data collection sessions. Table 3.7 shows the number of group task performances which were recorded over the eight sessions and the total number of individual participants that were involved. Both the main and repeat task performances underwent detailed interaction analysis at the level of individual, group and class to look primarily at the concepts of orientation and minimalisation (see below). For each class, it is the main task interaction data which is considered in the most detail (described in sections 4.1.2, 4.2.2, 5.2.2, 5.2.2, 6.1.2, 6.2.2, 7.1.2, and 7.2.2). The repeat task data, collected one week after the main tasks, were used to draw comparisons with the previous week's task performance and allow a speculative view of medium-term acquisition (described in sections 4.1.3, 4.2.3, 5.2.3, 5.2.3, 6.1.3, 6.2.3, 7.1.3, and 7.2.3). Table 3.7 also shows the number of uptake reports that were collected from individuals following the main task performances. The uptake report data provided a supplementary account of apparent participant orientation (described in sections 4.3, 5.3, 6.3, and 7.3).

Unfortunately, it was rare to be able to collect data for all the participants in a class due to absences and some technical problems that occurred with the recording devices. As a result,

sometimes (e.g. Class A's cinema trip task) the number of potential participants does not match the number of samples of actual interaction and/or uptake report data collected.

Table 3.7
An overview of the complete data set

	Cinema trip			Describing people		
	Main	Uptake reports	Repeat	Main	Uptake reports	Repeat
Class A (n=22)	6 (17)	20	7 (20)	11 (22)	22	11 (20)
Class B (n=21)	6 (18)	18	6 (17)	10 (21)	21	9 (19)
Class C (n=22)	7 (21)	21	7 (20)	9 (18)	22	9 (19)
Class D (n=22)	7 (21)	21	7 (19)	9 (18)	18	8 (18)
Total (n=87)	26 (77)	80	27 (76)	39 (79)	83	37 (76)

Notes. Numbers in brackets denote the number of participants in each sample.

Once the task performances were recorded, the audio files were transferred to the software program *Transana* (Woods & Fassnacht, 2012) for analysis. The spoken interaction was first transcribed by the author to a level of delicacy which would allow for a close examination of micro-features of interaction. The transcription conventions used are shown in Appendix 4, while two full sample transcripts can be found in Appendix 5. The complete transcripts for all 129 task performances are shown in the supplementary data file.

Upon embarking on the data analysis of the task recordings, I followed the same systematic procedure for each new set of task performances in order to ensure, as far as possible, that the research followed an inductive, exploratory approach. As described by Riazi and Candlin (2014), "inductive or data-driven approaches to research begin from inspection of the data, seeking meaningful patterns and generating hypotheses" (p. 136), and this was the process taken in this study. The first stage was one of relatively *unmotivated looking*. This term is common in the CA literature to describe the way in which a researcher approaches a text without predetermined research questions. While I had a broad research question from the beginning of my project — how task sequencing affects task outcomes — I did not precisely define how I would operationalise these constructs. Following conventions used on CA methodology, I produced careful turn-by-turn transcripts that considered the fine details of the turn-based interaction system along with features of talk including pausing, sound stretching, intonation, manner of delivery, and repair/correction. As I conducted the initial analyses of these task transcripts, I began to identify provisional sets of interactional features relevant to the apparent emerging themes of learner orientation, minimalisation, and medium-term acquisition, which appeared to vary somewhat in the different classes. The key moments in the interactions were based around the occasions when participants were presented with opportunities to use the target forms. To explore these further, the next step was a systematic procedure to isolate utterances or exchanges that constituted an opportunity for participants to use one of the target forms, either a suggestion phrase for the CT task, or descriptive language for the DP task. Thereafter, most of the analysis was conducted in terms of participant behaviour, performance, strategies, and choices

during these target form opportunities, or *TFOs*.⁴ Excerpt 3.1 shows two TFOs that occurred in one group's CT task interaction. The first is shown in line 48 where DS has an opportunity to suggest a place to meet. On this occasion, the Class B participant used one of the target forms — *what about* — which had been introduced in the during-task LFS. Later, in line 54, there is an opportunity for KM to make a suggestion regarding the meeting time, which she does so using a minimalised structure. Both of these utterances were counted as TFOs.

Excerpt 3.1 (CB/G3/MT)

44 KM: why don't we- (1.5) *ja* where? (..) *eto* where (..) do (..) we (..)
 45 meet (..) first?
 46 DS: first
 47 SM: hm (5.0)
 48 DS: what about (..) Umeda station?
 49 KM: yeah
 50 DS: yeah
 51 KM: good
 52 SM: okay hehe
 53 (5.0)
 54 KM: thirteen (..) o'clock (1.0) in Umeda
 55 DS: thirteen o'clock (..) ah

In Excerpt 3.2, two TFOs are shown for the DP task. The two descriptions made in lines 1-2 and 5-7 were counted as TFOs. Clarification questions such as the ones seen in lines 3 and 6, or repetitions made by either interlocutor were not counted as new TFOs. The existential *there* description given in line 9 contains a structure that was not attended to in the LFS, and, therefore, was not counted as a TFO (this does not mean to say it was simply ignored, but it did not form a part of the TFO analysis).

Excerpt 3.2 (CA/G4/MT)

01 MK: er number number one (4.5) number one (2.5) is wearing-u (2.5)
 02 striped shirt
 03 YK: stripe stripe?
 04 MK: (yes)
 05 YK: (3.0) h- he wearing check
 06 MK: check?
 07 YK: check shirt.
 08 MK: it's different.
 09 YK: it's different. number two (2.0) there is two (1.8) mans.

If a participant chose to use a target form, or some interlanguage version of it, it was treated as a target form use, or *TFU*. For example, DS's TFO in Excerpt 3.1 was counted as a TFU, while KM's was not. In Excerpt 3.2, both TFOs were counted as TFUs; YK's attempt at present continuous may have contained a degree of minimalisation (omission of the auxiliary *be*), but it was considered an attempt of that form. Very simply, if a participant, group, or class tended to fill their TFOs with

⁴ I chose the term "opportunities" rather than the often used "obligatory occasions" because of the nature of the tasks and target forms. Particularly for the CT task, which was less task essential, the learners were not *obliged* to use the target suggestion expressions, and other strategies and/or linguistic choices were certainly feasible.

proportionately more TFUs, it would indicate a greater use of the designated target forms, and, consequently, a likely participant orientation to producing the target forms.

TFOs and TFUs were convenient units for qualitative analysis at the level of both single utterances or sequences thereof; moreover, it was also the means by which data could be tallied for quantitative analysis. Following the establishment of the interactional features applicable to the study, some were analysed quantitatively to gain an overall picture of certain patterns that existed within the classes, which could be used for comparing main and repeat performances, as well as tentative comparisons between classes.

Working with TFOs and TFUs was not without its problems though. For instance, attributing a TFU to a single participant was often difficult due to co-constructed utterances, such as the one shown in Excerpt 3.3, taken from the repeat CT task of two participants in Class B. While it was not problematic when describing such exchanges qualitatively, decisions had to be taken how they should be counted for the quantitative analysis; in cases such as these, the TFU was assigned to AS, who initiated the TFO.

Excerpt 3.3 (CB/G2/RT)

```
85 AS: ja (2.0) ja: un:to dinner (3.0) hm nandakke {T:what is it} it-o
86      (.) might-o- it be
87 KO: it might be good=
88 AS: =it might be good to (1.0) meet-o (6.0) nan to iu dakke {T:how
89      do I say it} six-u PM (1.5) Umeda=
90 KO: =okay
91 KM: okay
```

Another difficulty that commonly arose while assigning TFUs was when multiple items were attached to a single description in the DP task, as shown in Excerpt 3.4. In line 150, MM describes a man as wearing a tie. She then adds two more items of clothing to her initial description. In cases like this, it was sometimes difficult to know whether the extra items should be counted as continuations of the initial description or new descriptions in their own right. Decisions were made on a principled case-by-case basis, determined by the three factors of intonation pattern, time elapsed, and use of a coordinating word. In Excerpt 3.4, there was no pausing before MM adds "shirt", no falling intonation which may signal the end of her turn, and the coordinating conjunction "and" was used; therefore, the three items (tie, shirt, pants) were counted as one TFU.

Excerpt 3.4 (CC/G4/MT)

```
150 MM: hm. (2.0) and sh- he is wearing (.) necktie- tie tie=
151 KT: =so:=
152 MM: =and shirt and (...) pants.
```

On other occasions, the combination of pausing, falling intonation, and a lack of a coordinating word led to the next item being treated as a new, and consequently minimised, description. An example of such a pair of descriptions is given in Excerpt 3.5. Although there was not a long pause here, there was falling intonation and the absence of a coordinating word. This distinction was helpful to

discriminate between those participants that oriented strongly towards form and deliberately used the target forms as often as opportunities presented themselves.

Excerpt 3.5 (CC/GI/MT)

52 MH: er *ja* twelve-u, (.) necktie.
53 TN: necktie, (..) yeah=
54 MH: =shirt, (.) *zubon*. {T:trousers}

Another coding consideration was how to handle negative and interrogative forms of both present continuous and *have (got)* structures. These were not covered in the LFS, which was perhaps an oversight in the planning stage, but they appeared only very rarely in the data set. For these reasons, I decided not to count them as TFOs (or indeed TFUs if an accurate target form was supplied) for the quantitative analysis. Like with the existential *there* description in Excerpt 3.2, this does not mean that they were ignored in the qualitative analysis. This was also the case for descriptions that focused on details other than the characters such as trees in the background or weather conditions.

Once the units of TFOs and TFUs had been identified, I began to examine each instance more closely to look for other features that may be of interest. Although I primarily undertook the analysis with an inductive approach, the CA-oriented literature on minimalisation (see section 2.3.1.1), the language teaching research into directing attention in TBLT (see sections 2.3.4 and 2.3.5), and the SCT theory-based ideas of learner orientation (see sections 2.4.2 and 3.1.3) undeniably focused my attention towards any salient features in the interaction that might provide insights into these areas. Some SCT-based studies of orientation have looked at the interaction, actions and reports of learners during classroom tasks to build a picture of their orientations which are in turn based on their motives or goals (Coughlan & Duff, 1994; Platt & Brooks, 1994; Tocaimaza-Hatch, 2015). In a similar way, in my analysis, I looked at how certain features of interaction, and the apparent interactional choices that learners made, could indicate where their orientations lay. However, based on Seedhouse's (2004) recommendation for studies of interaction, and descriptions of the benefits of the cumulative case study approach (Lynch & Maclean, 2000; 2001; Samuda, 2001; Samuda & Bygate, 2008), some of these features could also lead to quantification to help build an overall picture of a group.

The set of (sometimes overlapping) interactional features which were identified in response to these early interpretations of the data consisted of the following:

- Accuracy
 - Where some syntactical or morphological error occurred. While accuracy may simply be a measure of underlying proficiency, a detailed qualitative analysis can reveal indications of learning and/or orientation to form.
- Co-constructions
 - Co-constructions are a kind of peer scaffolding event where two or more learners collaboratively formulate an utterance, and this may be indicative of how one or more of them are oriented towards the task. Co-constructions containing one of the target

suggestion phrases might also suggest an orientation to form; they indicate that both learners have a shared idea of what linguistic forms they feel they ought to use.

- Disfluency markers
 - Where instances of unfilled pauses, false starts, repetitions, hesitation markers, and *vowel marking* occurred. When a speaker's attention is directed towards deliberately producing a certain form, which could be a new word they have learned or a complex grammatical utterance that requires tapping into explicit knowledge (rather than readily available implicit knowledge), then the utterance is more likely to contain some kind of disfluency marker. As Willis and Willis (2007) argued, if language learners are introduced to a *form-of-the-day* before they perform a task, it is likely that their production will be "halting and stilted" (p. 17) as they concentrate on accurately reproducing the forms prescribed to them. These disfluencies could be manifested by an increase in *non-lexical hesitation markers* (Gilquin, 2008) such as *um*, *er*, *em* found in English talk; unfilled pauses; false starts and repetitions; and sound stretching of vowels. Indeed, naturally occurring native speaker talk is full of these features when speakers are searching for their next words. In novice Japanese learners of English, the phenomenon of vowel marking has also been reported (Carroll, 2005). This common feature of English talk by Japanese L1 learners involves adding a vowel sound to end-word consonants. Carroll (2005) demonstrated that this is most commonly employed as a form of *forward oriented repair* (Schegloff, 1979), a strategy used by learners to buy time when they predict trouble with the production of some future aspect of their output. These word searches are usually manifested in native English speaker talk by short pauses (Tavakoli, 2011), sound stretching, and other hesitation markers; but for Japanese learners of English, the vowel marking strategy is also widespread. Therefore, for the purposes of the current analysis, examples of vowel marking are considered a type of disfluency marker.
- Metatalk
 - Where participants engaged in off-task talk. During second language tasks in monolingual classrooms, it is common that, in addition to the main L2 exchanges that are carried out to complete the goals, there is some talk that occurs in L1 outside of the main task interaction (Ellis, 2012). Evidence of an orientation towards the target forms could be seen in some of this *metatalk* which occurred in the data set. Metatalk may involve exchanges that focus on how the task should be done or on specific language that could be used. It is sometimes realised as private speech, which has been defined as "speech addressed to the self (not to others) for the purpose of self-regulation (rather than communication)" (Diaz, 1992, p. 62).
- Minimalisation
 - Where grammatical forms were omitted resulting in some degree of lexicalised language. As discussed in section 2.3.1.1, minimalisation has been described as a common feature

of task interaction and may indicate an orientation towards meaning and/or task completion.

- Mining
 - Where participants mined language directly from the pre-task activities or the LFS. This kind of mining would suggest that participants were not using only their own resources and were orienting somewhat towards some aspect of the materials. Mining could range from a participant picking up a useful individual vocabulary item to copying a lengthier section incorporating a target form.
- Self- or other-correction
 - Where participants corrected either their own or their interlocutor's utterance. The main point of interest in the analysis was the target of the correction: whether the repair was directed towards a target form, word(s) from the model, another form (seemingly) unrelated to the LFS, or whether it was focused on meaning. A correction based around the target form or model would indicate some specific orientation towards items from the LFS, while another target of correction might indicate a more general orientation to accuracy (which, as previously alluded to, was probably amplified by the presence of recorders on the participants' desks).

The relative presence or lack of these features provided information about learner orientation, proficiency, and possibly short- or medium-term acquisition in interaction samples that followed the LFS.

Orientation developed into the primary focus of the analysis for the main tasks. Interaction features suggested a number of distinguishable and dynamic orientations existed within and between participants. These orientations included various types directed towards form, meaning and/or task. To illustrate the assorted participant orientations — based on available data — throughout a task performance, a colour coding scheme was devised for use in transcriptions (Table 3.8)⁵. In the repeat tasks, the same analytical methods were employed, but the focus was more directed towards understanding any lasting effect of the previous week's LFS.

⁵ This colour coding scheme was the same used in Hawkes (2017).

Table 3.8

The colour coding scheme used to illustrate orientation in task transcripts

Orientation	Description
Form: target forms	Participants focus on producing the target forms
Form: model	Participants focus on mining language from the task model
Form: metatalk	Off-task task about the target forms
Form: non-target forms	Participants focus on general accuracy
Meaning	Talk that features a genuine exchange of meanings
Task	Talk that predominantly aims to move the task forward
Task-metatalk	Off-task metatalk about the task proceedings

While this kind of coding scheme is useful to demonstrate some overriding pattern in orientation for individual or groups of learners, it is not always possible to capture instances where there may be multiple orientations at play simultaneously. For instance, when a participant uses a target form to make a meaning-focused proposition, it is not possible to neatly allocate one type of orientation. Nonetheless, this scheme serves to illustrate one potential interpretation of the interaction data and certain specific instances and alternative possibilities are considered in the case commentary.

Using the procedures outlined above, I was able to examine cases of both individual participants and groups of participants, and it was possible to build pictures of how certain individuals or groups responded to the position of the LFS. By piecing together these cases, I could consider the cumulative effect of LFS position by quantifying some of the interactional features. In the findings chapters 4 to 7, I provide further details of these attempts to gain a more holistic understanding of how classes acted in the study.

3.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Dufon (1993) declared that "a well-executed piece of research is not only technically sound, but ethically grounded as well" (p. 158). As this was a classroom-based investigation where the teacher was also the researcher and the participants were students, there were a number of ethical issues that needed to be considered. The following six factors were identified as being relevant for this study.

Institutional approval

Following what Guillemin and Gillam (2004) have termed "procedural ethics", it was first necessary to have the research project approved by both the ethics committee at Aston University and the institution at which the study took place. However, there was no official requirement for ethics approval at the Japanese institution. Therefore, after a discussion with relevant parties, informal oral consent to conduct the research was obtained from the faculty member responsible for language classes at the university. Approval was obtained from the Ethics Committee of the School of Languages and Social Sciences at Aston University.

Informed consent

Participants need to be fully briefed on the reasons for doing the research and the procedures that will take place to collect data, especially the gathering of spoken interaction. Some may have reservations about having their voices recorded, and the content of their exchanges analysed. As ten Have (2007) stated, "It is a fact that many people dislike the idea that known or unknown aspects of their spontaneous actions will be considered in great detail." (p. 79). In order to allow potential participants to consider whether to join the study (Duff, 2008), the week prior to the data collection period, a short five-minute explanation of the research project was given both in English and Japanese. It was explained that in some of the following classes, those students that wished to become participants in the study would have some of their tasks recorded, and they were asked to read and sign a consent form (see Appendix 1). In week 1 of the data collection period, potential participants were given a written explanation in both English and, to avoid any potential misunderstanding, a Japanese translation was given on the reverse page (Mackey & Gass, 2015), stating the reasons for the study and the data collection procedures.

Participants' control

Altrichter, Posch, and Somekh (1993) stated that participants should be given an element of control throughout the research period, pointing out that it is vital to build and maintain trust with the researcher. To incorporate such a degree of control, measures were taken throughout the data collection period. First, although the recording devices were distributed by the researcher, participants were reminded of the study and told to only start the recordings if they still felt comfortable having their voices recorded. This was repeated on each occasion that recordings were made. Participants were also asked whether they would be willing to attend a follow-up session in which stimulated recall protocols would be used, but nobody attended due to other commitments.

Anonymity

As audio recordings were made of learners, and written uptake report responses were also collected, issues regarding anonymity were relevant. While the data was unlikely to be of a sensitive nature, it is good practice to protect the identities of informants (The British Association for Applied Linguistics, 2006). This was especially pertinent as a goal will be to publish some, or all, of the research findings. From the transcription and uptake report collection stages, pseudonym initials (e.g. MK or YS) were used for all participants.

Power relationship

As the researcher was also the teacher of the participants, there was the ethical issue of power. As Oliver (2003) noted, "whenever a teacher is acting as a researcher, and asks pupils to contribute data to a research study, there is an ambiguity of roles. Some pupils may agree to take part, when actually they would prefer not to be involved" (p. 69). Therefore, potential participants should not feel pressured in any way to take part in the investigation and should be able to leave the study at any

time. I was very cognisant of this factor in this study, so potential participants were informed that participation was entirely voluntary and that anybody who did not wish to join the study would not suffer in any way (such as in class scores or participation in certain activities). As recommended by Nolan and Putten (2007), this was repeated at each stage of data collection.

Different instructional sequences and conflict of interest

Because of the possibility that the study could have shown one type of instructional sequence to be more effective, it raised the issue of whether it is ethical to withhold some particular instruction for one or more other groups for the purpose of a study (Sterling & Gass, 2017). While there was a possibility that one group could outperform another in the repeat tasks, a significant difference was not predicted. Furthermore, all treatment groups used established practices, *not* any radical innovations. Indeed, the study aimed to adhere to established classroom practices. Class D, which acted as a comparison group, also received the language focused instruction after the data collection period to avoid withholding a potentially valuable learning opportunity. A fundamental principle was to investigate procedures that are already commonly used in language classrooms around the world.

3.8 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I began by describing how the research was situated in terms of being a classroom-based study. I argued that despite all of the challenges which genuine classroom-based research entails, it is invaluable for expanding our understanding of language pedagogy. I also outlined the overriding approach to analysis by explaining how a cumulative case study approach to qualitative interaction data can be useful for focusing on both individuals and small groups, as well as trying to get a view of the bigger picture at the level of an intact class. I then introduced some of the methodological techniques employed by researchers in cognitive studies of interaction, in addition to others that focus more on social factors such as in the fields of CA and SCT. I described how the research was carried out in the current study with details of the context and participants; the pilot studies with regard to task and target form selection; data collection procedures; and the approaches taken to data analysis. Finally, I discussed the ethical considerations that guided the study.

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS — CLASS A

In this chapter, I describe the findings resulting from the analysis of the task performances from Class A, those participants who received explicit instruction of potentially useful linguistic forms *before* the main task itself. The chapter is divided into three main sections: First, the findings from the initial instructional sequence and repeat tasks of the decision-making *cinema trip* task are described in section 4.1, then, the jigsaw *describing people* task is covered in section 4.2.

For both task types, I begin with a holistic look at the data set. Although this is the reverse of my actual analytical procedure, it might be helpful for the reader to initially gain an overall picture of how the Class A participants used the target forms during their task performances. Next is a summary of the cumulative qualitative findings from the microanalysis of the data set, which illustrates the relevant features of task interaction which were common to many of the groups and/or participants and are indicative of how the participants oriented during the task. Following this, I provide detailed descriptions of key representative cases of individual groups' task interactions. After that, I present the data from the repeat task performances, comparing certain features with those found in the main task and demonstrating the particular paths taken by individual participants over the task cycle. In section 4.3, I describe the findings from the uptake reports and comment on their relevance to the interaction data.

4.1 CINEMA TRIP TASKS

In this section, I describe the findings from the CT task. Although there were 20 of a possible 22 participants present on the day of data collection for the main task, one triad failed to successfully make a recording; consequently, the data set consists of six groups — five triads and one dyad. Using the data collected, I present features of the task interactions that suggest a regular, though often scattered and inconsistent, orientation to form. This prevailing orientation can perhaps be seen most clearly by the deliberate effort to reproduce the target forms that were practised in the preceding language focus stage. However, this orientation to form was not seen universally — some participants appeared to be more oriented towards meaning or simply towards completing the classroom task. I have divided the presentation of the data into the following six broad areas:

- Target form production: Whether the participants actually used the pre-taught target forms is fundamental to this enquiry. If they did use them, the extent and the accuracy with which they did so is also telling of their orientation during the task.
- Metatalk: Perhaps there is no greater indication of orientation than explicit reference to the target forms during instances of metatalk. Therefore, I present examples of participants' use of metatalk to partners or during private speech.
- Co-constructions: Instances where one participant explicitly helped another produce a target form provide some evidence of a shared orientation to form.

- Disfluencies: Although a common feature of any spoken interaction, excessive disfluencies prior to the production of target forms may suggest an orientation to form.
- Self-correction: On several occasions, participant orientation to form is revealed by self-correction when trying to use the target forms.
- Mining of the task model: Instead of relying only on their own resources, participants sometimes referred to the task model for linguistic support. Again, this is interpreted as being indicative of an orientation to producing the target forms from the LFS.

The first of these areas is presented with a mostly quantitative analysis, although the numerical data are a result of categories being defined through the micro-analysis of the data. The remainder are presented and described qualitatively.

4.1.1 Holistic analysis

4.1.1.1 Frequency of target form use

After even a cursory look at the data set, it soon becomes apparent that the participants deliberately used the target suggestion phrases, which can be clearly illustrated by looking at some raw numbers. Table 4.1 shows the data for target form use broken down by the six groups of Class A. The *target form opportunities* (TFOs) column shows the number of occasions for making suggestions in each group's task performance. The next column records the instances of *target form uses* (TFUs), that is, the number of times when participants were judged to have attempted to use target suggestion phrases to fill the TFOs. Obviously, there were alternative and equally appropriate ways to fill a TFO either with another suggestion phrase that did not appear in the LFS materials (e.g. *why not go to McDonald's?*), or using a different pragmatic approach (e.g. *the movie showing is quite late, so we should eat before the movie*). The only occurrence of such is recorded in the fourth column of Table 4.1. The fifth and sixth columns show the number of occasions when the TFOs were arguably not filled appropriately, most commonly by minimalised structures with rising intonation but also by bald statements. TFOs that contained minimalised structures constituted only 13.5% of the total. The seventh column shows those TFOs that were filled with preference statements.

Table 4.1
Target form use by Class A in the CT main task

Group number	TFOs	TFUs	Alt	Min	BS	PS
1	18	16	0	0	1	1
EM	7	7	0	0	0	0
GO	3	2	0	0	0	1
YN	8	7	0	0	1	0
2	15	12	1	2	0	0
AK	3	3	0	0	0	0
AS	8	6	1	1	0	0
YK	4	3	0	1	0	0
3	8	2	0	5	1	0
KK	5	1	0	3	1	0
TE	3	1	0	2	0	0
4	14	11	0	2	0	1
AH	6	5	0	0	0	1
EH	6	4	0	2	0	0
YI	2	2	0	0	0	0
5	9	8	0	0	0	1
MI	3	2	0	0	0	1
MM	2	2	0	0	0	0
TS	4	4	0	0	0	0
6	10	8	0	1	0	1
KJ	5	4	0	0	0	1
MK	2	1	0	1	0	0
YS	3	3	0	0	0	0
Total	74	57	1	10	2	4
Mean	4.4	3.4				
SD	2.0	2.0				
Proportion of TFOs (%)	77.0	1.4	13.5	2.7	5.4	

Notes. Alt = Alternatively filled TFOs; Min = minimalised structures; BS = bald statements; PS = preference statements.

Excerpt 4.1 shows a short exchange from Group 4 with two TFOs. The first, in lines 79 and 80, is successfully filled (albeit with some degree of trouble) by the target suggestion phrase *why don't we*; therefore, it was categorised as a TFU. The second appears in line 81. Here, EH does not employ one of the target forms but simply utters a restaurant name with rising intonation; thus, the latter attempt was not categorised as a TFU, but as an example of minimalisation.

Excerpt 4.1 (CA/G4/MT)

79 AH: eh? (1.5) eh? why don't we go to the °go to the° we go to eat
80 (1.3) eat hehe before movie? hehe
81 EH: er:: @McDonald@?
82 AH: @McDonald@ [okay after hehe after eat (.) go to (.) movie, okay?
83 EH: [hehe
84 YI: okay

While minimalised structures were the most common alternative means to fill a TFU, two further options were identified. In the first of these, participants simply made a *bald statement* with none of the softening usually seen in suggestions, as in lines 16-17 of Excerpt 4.2, in which KK "suggests" a time to arrive at the cinema. As Table 4.1 shows, this feature was seen rarely — only two times in the Class A data set.

Excerpt 4.2 (CA/G3/MT)

13 TE: =whe- er when:: when (5.0) hehe whe:n (1.5) do we, (3.5) when-
 14 when will we, (1.5) go:: (...) ci- (...) cinema?
 15 (8.0)
 16 KK: we will go (9.0) we- we will, (1.0) we will arrive-u (1.5) cinema
 17 (2.5) eleven.

The final way to fill a TFO was to use a *preference statement*, which was also rarely employed by Class A. On four occasions, participants simply stated the movie they wanted to see. Excerpt 4.3 shows an example of this kind of utterance, in which KJ states her preference for going to the late show.

Excerpt 4.3 (CA/G6/MT)

28 MK: what time?
 29 KJ: late show is (2.0) cheaper (...) than, (7.0) late show is
 30 cheaper, I wanna (2.0) at night (...) I wanna watch at night

Both bald statements and preference statements do not allow much room for a hearer to respond in the negative. They force the hearer to directly refuse the proposal, and this arguably makes them less pragmatically appropriate than a suggestion phrase, which might be a less direct, and, therefore, a more pragmatically appropriate strategy. However, Excerpt 4.4 shows an example where the participant MI uses *would like*, which seems altogether less forceful and probably more appropriate (this TFO was classed as a *preference statement* in Table 4.1).

Excerpt 4.4 (CA/G5/MT)

01 TS: why don't we go (.) and see (.) a movie this week?
 02 MM: yes sounds good hehe
 03 (3.5)
 04 MI: hm: I would like to see (3.5) hm Kazetachinu
 05 MM: ah nice nice

At this point, it is perhaps important to state that these alternative strategies are not necessarily incorrect. They do show that participants are using their own linguistic resources though, and, therefore, indicate an orientation other than towards the target forms.

The numerical data show that of the 74 TFOs that arose across the six task performances, 57 (or 77%) were filled by target forms; that is, there were 57 TFUs. Only one TFO was filled using an appropriate alternative, while the remaining 16 were either filled by minimalised structures, bald statements, or preference statements. All 17 participants used at least one target form (mean=3.4). Of

the 57 TFUs, 54 were considered accurate while three contained minor errors that did not affect meaning. Overall, the data contained in Table 4.1 reveal that the participants overwhelmingly used the target forms they had encountered during the LFS. However, one group's task performance that appears to be an outlier is Group 3. This dyad began the task in a similar fashion to the other groups: Excerpt 4.5 shows that in the first two turns of their conversation, they use two of the target suggestion phrases. The exchange from lines 1 to 3 is remarkably similar to the model they saw in the language focus stage, and it appears that they either memorised it or were reading from printed materials (despite the request from the teacher not to do so). When they digressed from the model, they no longer used any target forms, instead, they mostly used minimalised structures accompanied by rising intonation. This group's task performance is examined in detail as an exemplar case in section 4.1.2.6.

Excerpt 4.5 (CA/G3/MT)

01 KK: why don't we go and see a movie. (.) next week
 02 TE: good. how about Captain Philipps?
 03 KK: yes (...) um (1.0) sounds good. (1.5) eh: (3.0) wha[t
 04 TE: [jikan {T:time}
 05 KK: what-u (.) time (.) should we meet?

In sum, the data shown in Table 4.1 suggest that the presence of the LFS did indeed affect the choices that the participants made regarding making suggestions when performing the task, and they appeared to be oriented towards form.

4.1.1.2 Target form types

As detailed in 3.4.1, seven suggestion phrases were introduced and practised in the LFS. Table 4.2 illustrates how they were employed by the participants. While each of the target forms was used on at least one occasion, *why don't*, *how about*, and *let's* were by far the most common. These three phrases are most likely to have been covered to some extent in the participants' secondary school English classes. It can also be seen that three errors were made with *let's* (two instances) and *it might be good* (one), but in the vast majority of cases, the target suggestion phrases were used accurately.

Table 4.2
Target suggestion phrases used in the CT main task by Class A

Phrase	Total attempts	Accurate	Inaccurate
how about	16	16	0
it might be good	5	4	1
let's	16	14	2
shall we	5	5	0
we could	2	2	0
what about	1	1	0
why don't	12	12	0
Total	57	54	3

4.1.1.3 Distribution of target form uses

It is also worth looking at the reasons why the suggestions were made during the task performances. Several separate decisions needed to be made during the task, and suggestions were, of course, commonly used as part of each of these. Table 4.3 shows how the 74 TFOs were filled with a TFU or otherwise. It suggests that most discussion was stimulated by the choice of film, followed by the choice of restaurant and meeting time. It can also be seen that for the two topics of *cinema* and *film*, there was a particularly high proportion of target form use, even with the comparatively high number of suggestions. What might be relevant here is that these two topics were the first to be considered in all six task performances, that is, a member of each group began by suggesting a trip to the cinema, and this was followed by a discussion regarding which film they would watch together. As might be predicted, this implies that participants were more oriented towards producing the target forms at the beginning of the task, immediately after the LFS. Further, all the groups seemed to adhere to various degrees to the model which they had listened to and then read during the LFS. For example, all six groups opened with a general suggestion to go to the cinema on the coming weekend. However, as the task continued, participant orientation drifted more towards meaning and task completion, and they may have forgotten the forms or simply not placed as much priority on using them when an opportunity arose. In this situation, they sometimes left a TFO unfilled or supplied a less appropriate alternative.

Table 4.3
TFO distribution over different topics in the CT main task for Class A

Topics	TFUs	Alt	Min	BS	PS
Cinema	7	0	0	0	0
Day	3	0	1	0	0
Film	15	0	0	0	2
Showing	5	0	0	0	1
Food place	9	0	1	0	0
Food time	5	0	2	0	1
Meeting time	9	1	4	1	0
Meeting place	3	0	2	0	0
Other	1	0	0	1	0

Notes. Alt = Alternatively filled TFOs; Min = minimalised structures; BS = bald statements; PS = preference statements.

This pattern is illustrated in Figure 4.1, which shows the position of the TFOs throughout each task performance. Again, this suggests a tendency for participants to adhere to the taught target forms towards the beginning of the task performance. Most of the instances where TFOs were left unfilled, or alternative forms were used, occurred in the later stages of the task.

Group	TFOs																
1	○	○	○	○	○	○	P	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	B
2	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	M	A	M	○		
3	○	○	M	M	B	M	M	M									
4	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	P	○	M	○	M	○				
5	○	P	○	○	○	○	○	○	○								
6	○	○	○	○	P	○	○	○	○	M							

Figure 4.1. How the TFOs were filled during the CT task for Class A
Notes. ○ = Target form; A = appropriate alternative; M = minimalisation; B = bald statement; P = preference statement.

4.1.1.4 Summary

Overall, the holistic analysis of the data set shows that five of the six groups supplied the target forms from the LFS consistently and with a high level of accuracy; only the participants of Group 3 either were unable or elected not to do so. On the relatively few occasions where a target form was not supplied, the participants tended to use minimalised structures or some other, arguably less satisfactory, strategy. These findings demonstrate that the Class A participants did not ignore the target forms and, in fact, they actively used a variety of the suggestion phrases that had been presented to them in the LFS. They also indicate that perhaps the participants were orienting towards form and specifically the production of the target forms. Although the lack of some kind of pre-test leaves me unable to comment on whether they already had these forms in their productive linguistic repertoire, the results gathered from the pilot studies (and the data from Class C and D) suggest this was unlikely.

Further, there seems to be some evidence of a stronger orientation to form at the start of the task performances. Those TFOs that occurred towards the beginning of the task performance tended to be filled with target forms, while the examples of minimalisation mostly occurred later. This might be explained by the participants, having just completed the LFS, initially being more oriented towards putting into practice the forms they had just covered. However, as they proceeded through the task, their orientation to form waned to some degree, and some alternative means of filling TFOs were seen.

4.1.2 Interaction analysis

The holistic analysis gives a superficial account of the use of target forms by Class A, but, in order to appreciate this more fully, and to further understand participant orientation throughout the task performances, a look at the fine-grained analysis of specific features found in the task interaction is necessary. In this section, I describe the findings of this process with specific reference to incidences

of metatalk, co-constructions, disfluencies, self-corrections, and mining of the task model. For each part, I present a selection of excerpts that help to illustrate how the pre-task LFS shaped the task interaction that unfolded. After, I present detailed descriptions of three groups' task performances, which have been selected to illustrate differing participant orientations.

4.1.2.1 Metatalk

The first point to be noted is that there were few instances of metatalk. This might reflect an orientation towards doing the task in the L2 (a common complaint heard from language teachers in Japan is that learners often use Japanese to carry out tasks) and that the recorders on the participants' desks have no small part in encouraging this. Exceptions to this overall pattern were seen mainly with Group 1, but also Group 5, whose task performances contained L1 metatalk about the task proceedings and some even specifically concerning the target forms. Excerpt 4.6 shows an extended sequence where the three members of Group 1 are conscious of using the same target form (*how about*) repeatedly. Some comments regarding the best way to proceed with the task can be seen in lines 90, 92, 93, and 95. In line 91, a seemingly amused GO comments on EM's frequent use of *how about*. EM's laughter at the start of line 92 seems to acknowledge this point. The focus continues from line 99, in which YN's use of *how about* is followed by a slightly prolonged period of laughter. In line 106, a further use by YN seems to be the cause of more amusement for GO (line 107). Finally, in lines 112 to 113, YN starts to use *how about*, but she hesitates and indicates that she wants to say something else. GO points out that YN (like EM before) also "likes [*how about*] too much". This prompts YN to attempt to use a different target form, *why don't we*; however, after a pause, it seems YN is not confident in using it and reverts back to the tried and trusted *how about* before GO interrupts to try to finalise a meeting time (line 116). This excerpt suggests that at least one member of this group — GO — felt they should be using a variety of the target forms even though *how about* was a perfectly reasonable choice to convey the required meanings. It seems that part of GO's orientation was towards the reproduction of a number of different target suggestion phrases.

Excerpt 4.6 (CA/GI/MT)

82 GO: whe- whe- when oh
 83 EM: when
 84 GO: when we meet ah (1.0) before (2.0) go to cinema?
 85 EM: whe-
 86 (2.0)
 87 GO: hm
 88 EM: XXXXX koto
 89 GO: un
 90 EM: how: about- ju kuji kara chau? {T:from 9 or 10, isn't it}
 91 GO: hehe how *sukisugi* {T:you like it too much}
 92 EM: hehe how about- *gohan tabena akan kara*= {T:we have to eat lunch}
 93 YN: =*seyona*: {T:that's right}
 94 GO: hm
 95 YN: *demo asa kara asobitai kara* hehe {T:but I want to play from
 96 morning}
 97 YN: how about=
 98 EM: =ten o'clock=
 99 YN: =how about ten o'clock?

100 ((laughter 4.5))
 101 YN: I want to go,
 102 GO: yeah
 103 YN: many place
 104 GO: hm okay (..) but ten o'clock is so fast
 105 EM: hehe
 106 YN: hehe un::: how about (1.4)
 107 GO: hehehe
 108 YN: eleven o'clock?
 109 GO: XXX
 110 EM: eleven?
 111 GO: yah:: okay eleven o'clock is okay=
 112 YN: =I (1.5) how about (1.4) ah *chau wa* {T:that's wrong} (2.8)
 113 *hazukashi* {T:it's embarrassing}
 114 GO: hehehe how about *sukisugiru* {T:like it too much} (2.6) okay okay
 115 YN: why don't:: (1.3) hehe [how about
 116 GO: [ele- ele- eleven o'clock is okay okay

As alluded to above, the other groups in Class A did not overtly discuss the target forms during instances of metatalk. There were several examples of metatalk found in Group 5's task performance, but, during these occasions, the participants were oriented not towards the target forms, but on the task proceedings. As Excerpt 4.7 shows, metatalk served a variety of task-oriented purposes for Group 5, including the following: to signal the end of a topic (line 6); to suggest that a partner should discuss the topic more by disagreeing with a previous suggestion (line 7); to enquire about what questions to ask next (lines 11-12), and to respond to such a request (line 13); and to gather thoughts on how to proceed in instances of private speech (lines 16-17). During all of these examples, the participants are oriented towards neither form nor meaning but towards the task proceedings, that is, the individual stages they must complete to successfully meet the task goal.

Excerpt 4.7 (CA/G5/MT)

04 MI: hm: I would like to see (3.5) hm *Kazetachinu*
 05 MM: ah nice nice
 06 TS: *kimachatta* {T:it's decided}
 07 MM: hehe *hantai* (*shite*) *hantai* {T:disagree disagree}
 08 TS: oh I'm not really into *Kazetachinu*
 09 (2.6)
 10 MM: okay ah:: (2.5) let's watch the (.) *Percy Jackson*.
 11 MI: oh sounds good (2.0) eh: (2.5) when (3.0) hm (4.0) *nani kiitara*
 12 *ii?* {T:what should I say?}
 13 TS: *jikan kiite xxx nanji desu ka nanji no xxx* {T:ask about the time}
 14 MI: when should we (2.0) watch (..) this movie?
 15 (2.7)
 16 TS: *nani miru dakke* {T:what are we seeing again?} (3.0) ah:: how
 17 about (1.0) ten o'clock
 18 (3.5)
 19 MM: nice hehe

There were only two other overt examples of metatalk found in the Class A data set. One was an instance of private speech during a self-correction sequence made by AS in Group 2 (Excerpt 4.8). Here, AS uses the L1 vernacular word *chau* (which translates into something close to "Oh no, that's wrong") when she realises she made a mistake with the time.

Excerpt 4.8 (CA/G2/MT)

42 AS: =let's meet (1.0) eh (0.9) at (1.3) two er er *chau* (5.9)
43 AK: hmm
44 AS: fo-four o'clock on (1.0) Saturday.

The second was found at the beginning of Group 3's task performance, in which TE tried to prompt his partner when she seemed unsure of how to proceed (and is arguably a type of co-construction — see below), as seen above in line 4 of Excerpt 4.5.

4.1.2.2 Co-constructions

In the data set, there were several examples of co-constructed suggestions. As shown above, there is an example of a co-construction in Excerpt 4.6 (L97-99) in which EM supports YN's effort to make a *how about* suggestion. Also, in Excerpt 4.5, one participant uses their L1 in an effort to help his partner in what might also be considered a kind of co-construction. Excerpt 4.9 shows an occasion where EM seems to be hesitating while trying to make a suggestion using *why don't we*; GO helps co-construct the utterance by providing the correct form of the likely verb which EM is searching for, and, in the end, the two simultaneously produce the same item.

Excerpt 4.9 (CA/G1/MT)

63 EM: er (2.4) why don't we (1.6) why: do:n't we: [go
64 GO: [go
65 EM: (1.4) Jolly Pasta?

Excerpt 4.10 shows an example from Group 2 of hesitation over a target form — this time AK using *it might be good* — which leads to another member of the group helping to complete the turn. It seems likely that it is due to the length of time that AK takes to produce the target form that prompts AS to add a potential meeting place, thus, the production of the target phrase is co-constructed.

Excerpt 4.10 (CA/G2/MT)

55 AK: it-o (0.6) it might be (0.5) good to meet in (7.8) ((ruffles
56 paper)) it might be good to meet in=
57 AS: =Umeda Station?
58 AK: Umeda Station

In Excerpt 4.11, it appears that EH utters the target form before she decides what film she wants to suggest watching. The long pause in line 8 is finally brought to an end by AH filling the slot appropriately with a film suggestion to which EH quickly accepts. The laughter by AH in line 11 shows a spirit of cooperation, and that the interruption was not meant to be threatening or imply that EH's effort was inadequate.

Excerpt 4.11 (CA/G4/MT)

08 EH: hm: how about (5.4)
09 AH: Kazetachinu=
10 EH: =Ka[zetachinu okay
11 AH: [hehe

A consistent theme evident in the examples above is of the first interlocutor displaying some trouble while producing the target forms, manifested by the periods of silence. Their partner then intervened to complete the utterance. This might not always have been necessary, but some degree of co-construction has occurred nonetheless.

Finally, Excerpt 4.12 shows a different form of cooperation in which AH uses the target form *it might be good* to propose a meeting time. At the end of line 46, AH employs a continuing intonation pattern and seems to wait for EH to signal that she understands the message thus far. When EH does so in line 47, AH then continues with a suggested meeting time. Although EH did not need to provide any language to co-construct the target form, it does appear that displaying understanding helped advance the suggestion towards completion.

Excerpt 4.12 (CA/G4/MT)

46 AH: eh? ano: hehe (2.0) it- it might be good good to meet,
47 EH: hm.
48 AH: hm: at-o (...) eighteen eighteen? or eighteen: thirty

Such co-constructions occurring around deliberate uses of target forms point towards a kind of shared orientation to form. It could be that the pre-task LFS primes the participants with not only an individual orientation to form but also a joint understanding that the purpose of the task is to practise the linguistic forms that have been explicitly presented to them. However, I think the data show that while this may be partially the case, the participants are simultaneously constructing meanings and advancing the task forward. By helping to add meaning-based units (station names, film names, or showing times), they are acknowledging that they recognise the purpose of the target suggestion phrase and offering a plausible lexical unit to complete the suggestion.

4.1.2.3 Disfluency markers

It can be seen in the data set that when participants produced target forms, there appeared to be a tendency for some kind of disfluency to occur. In the following section, I describe both the kinds of disfluencies that occurred and their position in the TFU-containing utterances. Pre-TFU disfluencies are defined as those that occurred immediately before the target suggestion, and they may have been the result of participants deciding which target suggestion phrase, if any, to use. Mid-TFU disfluencies occurred in the period after a participant had begun to use a target suggestion until the end of the verb or noun phrase that was attached to the stem of the target form. Finally, post-TFU disfluencies were those that occurred immediately after the attached verb or noun group. Disfluencies

that fell after the stem are not considered here as they are just as likely to have been caused by word searches related to the item that was being suggested (e.g. a film or a meeting time).

The following discussion examines vowel marking; unfilled pauses and hesitation markers; repetition; and false starts.⁶ Of course, there is some overlap to be seen, with most excerpts used to illustrate the occurrence of one kind of disfluency invariably containing others.

Vowel marking

Vowel marking strategies could be seen throughout the data set, but in some cases, they seemed to signal an orientation to form. Line 24 of Excerpt 4.13 shows YN using vowel marking mid-TFU as one of several manifestations of some trouble while producing a *how about* suggestion completed with an -ing form.

Excerpt 4.13 (CA/G1/MT)

24 YN: how hehe (3.2) how about-o (3.2) how about going (0.7) Room
25 Mate?
26 (5.5)
27 GO: hm::

Excerpt 4.14 shows an example of vowel marking which occurs towards the beginning of a TFU. Here, while AK is focused on using *it might be good*, one of the disfluencies which occurs is vowel marking at the beginning of the utterance in line 56.

Excerpt 4.14 (CA/G2/MT)

56 AK: it-o (0.6) it might be (0.5) good to meet in (7.8) ((RUFFLES
57 PAPER)) it might be good to meet in=

The presence of vowel marking alone may not itself be strong evidence of a form-orientation. Indeed, throughout the data set, there are numerous examples of it and not all are likely to be connected to word searches. Although Carroll (2005) argues strongly that they should be considered manifestations of forward-oriented repair, many simply consider this style of English pronunciation an example of interference from the Japanese L1 (Thompson, 2001). However, in the excerpts shown above, the position of the vowel marking being mid-TFU, coupled with other adjacent disfluency markers, suggest that they are being employed in the manner claimed by Carroll. Thus, such disfluencies indicate a deliberate orientation to form.

The next two excerpts demonstrate how even a post-TFU disfluency may still indicate an orientation to form. In Excerpt 4.15, AK uses vowel marking when formulating a *how about* suggestion to propose going to a restaurant named *Jolly Pasta*. AK adds an extra vowel suffix — /oʊ/ — to "about". This, along with the following pause, gives him time to complete the suggestion.

⁶While this coding scheme was devised independently of the one devised by Fukuta (2013), and arose after initial analysis of the current data set, it bears some close similarities. Fukuta was also concerned with a means of analysing learner orientation during task interaction.

Excerpt 4.15 (CA/G2/MT)

76 AS: ah: hehe okay ern
77 AK: how about-o (0.7) Jolly @Pasta@
78 YK: yeah I like Jolly Pasta, let's go to: Jolly Pasta

Another example of this can be seen in Excerpt 4.16. Here, YS adds an /i:/ suffix to *watch*, which is then followed by a period of silence and a short filler.

Excerpt 4.16 (CA/G6/MT)

31 YS: shall we watch-i (3.1) er five thirty?
32 (4.0)
33 MK: @okay@

Both these examples show the use of vowel marking at the *end* of a target form use. Therefore, it is possible that the word searches happening here are the object of the suggestion stem, that is, the restaurant name and the showing time in Excerpt 4.13 and 4.14 respectively. But it is also an example of disfluency on the target form, and it might equally indicate that after directing their attention to the production of the target form (and in some cases referring to the LFS materials), the participants then needed time to move their focus towards attaching the object of the suggestion to the stem.

Unfilled pauses and hesitation markers

As with any naturally occurring talk, the task interaction contained periods of silence and non-lexical hesitation markers. This, of course, is liable to occur whenever a speaker is conducting a word search. In the data set, there were many examples around the TFUs, which I am proposing is an indication that attention was directed towards producing these forms. Excerpt 4.17 illustrates well the kind of filled and unfilled hesitations before target forms that permeate the data set. In lines 90 and 91, AS is reviewing the group's plans so far, and she speaks relatively fluently with minimal hitches. However, in line 93, as she turns her attention towards a new topic and uses a target suggestion phrase (*shall we*) to propose a showing time, AS shows much hesitancy through a prolonged period of silence interrupted twice with fillers. Here, it seems likely that AS is actively trying to reproduce the target suggestion phrase, and this is the cause of the pre-TFU disfluency.

Excerpt 4.17 (CA/G2/MT)

90 AS: we will go to Umeda Station (.) at eleven o'clock↑ (.) and↑
91 (.) go to (1.0) Jolly Pasta hehe
92 YK: yes
93 AS: and↑ (2.2) er (1.2) hm (1.7) °ja° shall we watch (1.1) the movie↑
94 at-o (1.5) thirteen (2.4) o'clock? hehe
95 YK: thirteen o 'clock

There were also several instances in the data where significantly longer periods of silence preceded the use of target forms. Excerpt 4.18 shows two different members of a group making suggestions for a place to eat. As line 24 shows, there is a long period of unfilled silence before MM slowly uses a

target suggestion. After TS rejects the idea, there is a lengthy pause before he makes a counter proposal using a target suggestion phrase.

Excerpt 4.18 (CA/G5/MT)

24 MM: yes hehe (2.4) hm (8.2) hm i:t might be good eat-o: eat-o
25 yakiniku
26 MI: hehe
27 TS: *hiru kara* {T:from lunchtime}
28 MM: hehe for lunch!
29 TS: no no no no no
30 MM: no?
31 TS: too heavy too heavy (5.2) how about Italia?

Sometimes silent periods were filled by stretched hesitation markers which also served the purpose of buying some time for the speaker. In Excerpt 4.19, despite having already used the same target form several times, YN uses such a strategy when she stretches a filler before making a *how about* suggestion.

Excerpt 4.19 (CA/G1/MT)

106 YN: hehe un::: how about (1.4)
107 GO: hehe
108 YN: eleven o'clock?

There were also many instances of unfilled periods of silence during the production of the target forms. Indeed, Excerpt 4.19 shows YN also making a fairly short mid-TFU pause before she proposes a meeting time. Sometimes, they could be found alongside examples of vowel marking as demonstrated in Excerpt 4.13 to 4.16. On other occasions, they occurred alone, as in the example shown in Excerpt 4.20, in which the suggestion phrase *let's* is flanked on either side by an unfilled pause. This is yet another example in the data set of hesitancy which suggests some degree of deliberate production of the target forms.

Excerpt 4.20 (CA/G6/MT)

21 MK: when we go: to the cinema?
22 (2.0)
23 KJ: let's (3.1) December twenty fiveth- fifth hehe how about? how
24 about- how about [you
25 YS: [okay

Repetitions and false starts

Another set of disfluency markers prevalent in the data was that of false starts and repetition. Lines 74-75 of Excerpt 4.21 show a typical example of this phenomenon with YK making a slow and careful, but ultimately successful, attempt at a *why don't* suggestion. On the way, she repeats the first word of the target phrase.

Excerpt 4.21 (CA/G2/MT)

73 AK: hm?
74 YK: why- (0.8) why don't (0.9) we go to (.) lunch before (.) see a
75 movie?
76 AS: ah: hehe okay ern

Excerpt 4.22 shows a very similar example with EH first making a false start to a *shall we* suggestion, then repeating the first word of the phrase twice before going on to complete the utterance successfully.

Excerpt 4.22 (CA/G4/MT)

25 AH: eight-o eight fifty? hm: okay
26 (2.7)
27 EH: before before go to cinema sh- shall (0.9) shall we (0.7) go to
28 lu- ah: dinner?
29 AH: ah okay where?

Finally, Excerpt 4.23 shows AH making two separate attempts to make an *it might be good* suggestion. In her first attempt, shown in lines 41-42, she makes two false starts before successfully using the target phrase. At the end of this turn is an example of repetition after the target form stem. Here, AH utters the first "eighteen" with a sound stretch on the final consonant sound and a continuing intonation. It appears she intended to add minutes to her utterance, completing the suggestion with something like "eighteen thirty" (which she eventually proposes as an alternative in line 48). The second use of *it might be good*, with its rising intonation, shows her partners that she decided on six o'clock p.m., on the hour. When one partner does not seem to understand (line 45), AH repeats her suggestion, but the reproduction of the target form again appears to cause some disfluency with a false start on "it", followed by repetition of "good".

Excerpt 4.23 (CA/G4/MT)

41 AH: i- i- it might be good to meet-o ·hh (1.9) hm::: (1.6) eighteen:,
42 eighteen↑
43 EH: eighteen?
44 AH: eighteen at movie.
45 EH: uh?
46 AH: eh? ano: hehe (2.0) it- it might be good good to meet,
47 EH: hm.
48 AH: hm: at-o (..) eighteen eighteen? or eighteen: thirty

4.1.2.4 Self-correction

Throughout the Class A data set, there were several examples of self-correction. One type which occurred was where participants began to use a target form, stopped and paused, then employed an alternative target phrase to complete their suggestion. One example is shown here in Excerpt 4.24. There is a good deal of hesitation on either side of the apparent attempt to produce a *why don't we* suggestion in line 41, manifested by the two rather lengthy unfilled pauses. The vowel /aɪ/ sound in *why* also comes to an abrupt end; perhaps, it is at this point that KJ decides she does not want to use

this form. Before this point in the task, KJ had not used a *why don't we* suggestion, although another member of her group had. She may have recognised this and wanted to use a different form to show her group's ability to use different suggestion phrases, or, perhaps she simply felt more confident using *how about* to make her suggestion. Regardless, it further illustrates an orientation towards the reproduction of the taught forms and possibly the deliberate production of a variety of them.

Excerpt 4.24 (CA/G6/MT)

38 KJ: yeah, sure
 39 YS: okay.
 40 (3.2)
 41 KJ: why- (3.1) how about-o: hm (3.1) how about (1.2) okonomiyaki?
 42 MK: hehe okay.

Two more examples of this phenomenon can be seen in Group 1's task performance. One was discussed above with reference to line 115 of Excerpt 4.6, and the friendly teasing of one participant's perceived overuse of *how about*. The other is shown in lines 47-48 of Excerpt 4.25 and sees EM changing her initial *how about* suggestion to another using *it might be good*. Again, we cannot be sure why EM changed her utterance, but it appears that she wanted to use another form, perhaps to display her ability to use a variety of the suggestion phrases.

Excerpt 4.25 (CA/G1/MT)

47 EM: ah (3.0) hm:: (3.0) (hh) how about *doushiyoukana* {T:what should I
 48 do?} (2.2) it might be good to (0.8) see *Kazetachinu* (2.3) *chigau*
 49 {T:no, not that} at?
 50 GO: at (1.5) seven o'clock?
 51 EM: seven o'clock

Lines 42 to 48 of Excerpt 4.26 show a sequence in which AS seems intent on restating her utterance correctly, and in its entirety. This is perhaps done to confirm the information with her partners or for display purposes to show (to the teacher via the recording device) her accurate use of both the target form and task information.

Excerpt 4.26 (CA/G2/MT)

41 YK: what time (2.0) do (.) we (..) see?=
 42 AS: =let's meet (1.0) eh (0.9) at (1.3) two er er *chau* (5.9)
 43 AK: hmm
 44 AS: fo-four o'clock on (1.0) Saturday.
 45 (3.0)
 46 AK: hm? (2.5) °four o'clock°
 47 (2.2)
 48 AS: let's meet (1.8) at fo- four o'clock (1.1) at @Saturday@ hehe

Some self-corrections were found in mid-TFU positions. Excerpt 4.27 shows one such example in which AS seems to be having some difficulty with a *why don't we* suggestion. After initially saying "why don't we go to the", she repeats "go to the" as private speech. It appears she is trying to find an

appropriate phrase to attach to the stem of the target form. She then changes the noun phrase she apparently intended to use to the verb phrase "go to eat".

Excerpt 4.27 (CA/G4/MT)

79 AH: eh? (1.5) eh? why don't we go to the °go to the° we go to eat
80 (1.3) eat hehe before movie? hehe

A final example of repair on target forms is shown in Excerpt 4.28. Here, YN is trying to use a *how about* suggestion to propose a showing time. Although one cannot be sure with only an audio recording, it seems she might be pointing to a time on the cinema schedule which the group were sharing. Initially, it looks as though YN was going to say "how about this movie?", which would have been entirely appropriate. However, she then decides to use an -ing form and corrects her utterance. This might be because in the LFS materials there is an example of *how about* with an -ing form attached to the stem.

Excerpt 4.28 (CA/G1/MT)

43 YN: how about (1.0) this mo- how about going this movie (2.5) *chau*

There were also a number of incidents of correction that were not directed towards the target forms. These corrections were sometimes directed towards linguistic forms and at other times towards conveying meaning. Excerpt 4.29 shows KJ making a self-correction in line 30, inserting the initially omitted "watch" in her correction. It is unlikely that KJ's utterance would have been misunderstood by her partners, but she chose to correct it regardless. Examples such as this indicate a general orientation to accuracy that might be expected from many second language speakers, especially in a classroom setting and even more so when recorders have been placed on their desks.

Excerpt 4.29 (CA/G6/MT)

29 KJ: late show is (2.0) cheaper (..) than, (7.0) late show is
30 cheaper, I wanna (2.0) at night (..) I wanna watch at night

Repairs that were directed towards meaning were also found on several occasions throughout the data set. Excerpts 4.30 and 4.31 show instances where the participants AH and EH, respectively, have to correct their utterances to change the meaning they wish to convey. The presence of these repairs shows that rather than being exclusively oriented towards the accurate reproduction of the LFS forms, the participants were also engaged in the task and the act of communicating.

Excerpt 4.30 (CA/G4/MT)

64 EH: how about (0.9) eighteen (..) o'clock?
65 AH: eighteen o'clock or eighteen thirty? oh no no no we- (..) we will
66 go to lu- lu- go to lunch. lunch? dinner dinner hehe

Excerpt 4.31 (CA/G4/MT)

37 EH: eto where (1.5) s:: should (.) what time (2.0) shall we meet?

One orientation that was observed was towards reproducing the task model (see 4.1.2.5), and there was one example of repair that was a result of a participant being clearly oriented towards this, shown in Excerpt 4.32. From the beginning of the task performance, Group 7 copied the model, and YK's adherence to the model is demonstrated by his self-correction in line 6 where he replaces "listening" with "listing", as he apparently reads from the LFS materials.

Excerpt 4.32 (CA/G2/MT)

03 AS: hh why don't we go and see a movie this WEEKend?

04 AK: un (3.5) sure (.) what's on?

05 (3.5)

06 YK: here is a cinema (.) listening- listing, what do you wanna see?

As I have argued in this section, incidence of correction can be an overt signal of the speaker's orientation. Some of the instances of self-correction betray an orientation towards the simple reproduction of the target forms or other language from the task model. However, the data suggest that the participants were not only concerned with the linguistic forms from the LFS; rather, they also attended to form more generally and some correction sequences reveal a real involvement with the task.

4.1.2.5 Mining from the task model

The final area of significance was the mining of the LFS materials during the task performances. Despite being asked by the teacher not to copy the task model, the majority of participants began the task by directly reproducing the opening, with Excerpt 4.32 being one example. Video recordings would have been useful here to measure the extent of this, but it is clear from looking at the transcriptions that participants all opened with *why don't we* to suggest going to the cinema together, exactly as was done in the task model. Perhaps a lack of confidence in how to proceed motivated an orientation towards the reproduction of language from the model. During the first moments of the task, when the teacher saw this happening, a request was made once more to all members of the class to not simply copy the model. At this point, the participants mostly digressed from the model and began to express their own meanings with their own language choices.

However, throughout the task performances, there were instances where some participants returned to the materials and mined them for language. The audible ruffling of papers in Excerpt 4.10 above, along with the hesitation to produce a likely new form, was a clear indication of participant AK referring to the LFS materials. Some phrases were also unlikely to have been used without mining the model. The use of "I'm not really into..." and "sounds good" for agreement were used by participants in Group 5 (lines 8 and 11 of Excerpt 4.7). "Sounds good" was also used by Group 3 (line 3 of Excerpt 4.5), and by Group 1 in a revealing co-construction shown in lines 10-11 of Excerpt 4.33, where EM whispers an appropriate response for YN to give to GO.

Excerpt 4.33 (CA/GI/MT)

07 EM: why don't we go and see a movie this week?
08 (3.5)
09 GO: hehe yeah
10 EM: sounds good ((whispered))
11 YN: sounds good. xxx hehe eh (1.5) I=

It is likely that more attempts at mining language from the model occurred, but the audio recordings have limited power to reveal the true extent. These instances of mining may betray a lack of confidence in how to proceed with the task, but they do signal a certain orientation towards form as the participants are not relying on their own resources and are simply regurgitating phrases and whole sentences from the model.

4.1.2.6 Group case analyses

In this section, I show detailed analysis of three groups' task performances. I do this in order to highlight many of the common features described so far in their full context, to show the variation in individual groups' task performances, and to demonstrate the process by which I analysed the data. I have selected three cases based on the varying observable degree of orientation demonstrated by the respective participants towards the reproduction of the target forms from the pre-task LFS.

When describing each case, I have divided the task transcript into segments that roughly correspond to the different topics discussed during the task. At regular points throughout the commentary, I have denoted the participants' apparent orientation in square brackets, as evidenced by the surrounding talk. The segments of interaction follow the colour-coding schemes outlined in Table 3.8 and used in Hawkes (2017).

Group 1 case analysis⁷ — An overtly form-oriented group

Of the three group members, GO stood out as one of the stronger students in the class, with EM not far behind. Although YN was slightly weaker, her personality was such that she was an able communicator. The following task performance was done in a cordial manner: the participants clearly got on well and seemed to have fun working together in English. This performance was also an example of one in which all three participants seemed to be oriented towards form over meaning throughout the duration of the task. Another feature that becomes apparent is the triad's use of Japanese, which could be seen more frequently than in other groups.

This orientation to form is apparent from the very start, in line 1, where EM copies verbatim the opening line of the task model from the LFS [ORIENTATION = FORM-MODEL]. After a reminder to the whole class from the teacher not to copy the model, EM repeats the opening line (line 7). Her partners seem unsure of how to answer, then EM whispers another expression (*sounds good*) that was most likely mined from the model to YN, who then uses it (lines 10-11) [ORIENTATION = FORM-MODEL]. In line 14, after much hesitation, EM uses one of the target forms (*how about*) to suggest a

⁷ The Group 1 case analysis was published in full as part of Hawkes (2017).

film. Her production is rather stilted as she appears to be fully focused on producing the target phrase here [ORIENTATION = FORM-TARGET FORMS]. In line 15, instead of responding to EM's suggestion, GO uses Japanese to repair a communication breakdown as EM did not respond in line 14 how GO expected. It seems that GO thinks his question in line 12 had a meaning like "when should we go?" In line 17, YN takes over and (like EM, very hesitantly) makes a target form (*how about*) suggestion [ORIENTATION = FORM-TARGET FORMS]. However, she is essentially repeating the same information that EM said in lines 1 and 7. This amuses everyone in the group, and a sustained period of laughter ensues. When they resume, EM once again hesitantly uses *how about* to finally suggest a day to visit the cinema (line 20) [ORIENTATION = FORM-TARGET FORMS]. After the responses of "sounds good", the group begin laughing again, possibly at their own precise copying of the model (lines 21-23) [ORIENTATION = FORM-MODEL].

01 EM: why don't we go and and see a movie this week?
02 T: don't copy it hehe maybe the start is okay but it's your
03 conversation yeah?
04 EM: saisho kara iku? {T:should we start again?}
05 YN: un
06 GO: soshiyou {T:let's do that}
07 EM: why don't we go and see a movie this week?
08 (3.5)
09 GO: hehe yeah
10 EM: sounds good ((whispered))
11 YN: sounds good. xxx hehe eh (1.5) I=
12 GO: =er what (1.0) what's going on (..) the new movie?
13 (2.3)
14 EM: ha- hm (5.3) how about (2.2) the Carrie
15 GO: itsu te kiita no ni {T:I asked 'when'}
16 EM: [itsu ka? {T:oh, 'when'}
17 YN: [ah eh how about (1.5) how about going (1.0) movie (.) er this
18 weekend?
19 ((16 seconds of laughter))
20 EM: how about- how about um Saturday?
21 GO: hm sounds good
22 YN: sounds good
23 ((6 seconds of laughter))

The next turn is taken by YN, who also uses *how about* once more to suggest a film (lines 24-25) [ORIENTATION = FORM-TARGET FORMS]. As well as a false start and some lengthy unfilled pauses while she is formulating the target suggestion, she also uses vowel marking; as these learners are trying to produce the target forms, it is affecting their fluency. GO and EM do not respond to YN's suggestion; instead, EM decides that she should say the next appropriate topic starting question (line 28), another indication of a lack of orientation to meaning, and more of an orientation to displaying the "correct" way of doing the task [ORIENTATION = TASK]. The whole section from the beginning up to line 29 is very disjointed. It seems the participants are not really listening to each other, and are possibly confused by how to carry out the task, how to apply aspects of the model to their own conversation, and how to fit the target forms into their speech.

24 YN: how hehehe [3.2] how about-o (3.2) how about going (0.7) Room
 25 Mate?
 26 (5.5)
 27 GO: hm::
 28 EM: kikebeii {T:I should ask} what kind of movie do you want to (...)
 29 watch?

In line 32, YN makes another *how about* suggestion for a different film [ORIENTATION = FORM-TARGET FORMS]. This time the suggestion is delivered more fluently, possibly due to it being her third attempt in a short period of time. In the next turn (lines 33-34), GO begins by seemingly making fun of the repeated uses of *how about* [ORIENTATION = FORM-METATALK], something he returns to more directly later in the task. Next, he makes a meaning-oriented response. He rejects YN's film suggestion and states a preference for another film. He is not displaying any use of the target forms as he chooses to use an "I want" construction to put forward his alternative choice [ORIENTATION = MEANING]. After this, the group become unsure how to proceed, and a period of laughter begins again. When they restart, YN rejects GO's film preference (line 38) [ORIENTATION = MEANING] and GO concedes, using a more powerful target form suggestion (*let's*) to conclude the topic of film (line 39) [ORIENTATION = FORM-TARGET FORMS]. In this segment of the interaction from lines 32 to 42, the participants are primarily oriented towards meaning, but they are also clearly displaying their use of the target suggestion phrases on two occasions (lines 32 and 39).

32 YN: ah how about going-u Kazetachinu?
 33 GO: (how about) hehe yeah but I- I want to go to Kakuyahime
 34 Monogatari
 35 EM: XXX
 36 YN: er how

 37 ((12 seconds of laughter))
 38 YN: I- I don't (...) want to watch-i (...) Kakuyahime
 39 GO: okay [oh: (1.8) let's- let's go (1.1) er Kazetachinu
 40 YN: [yasashi {T:he's kind}
 41 YN: sounds good
 42 EM: okay ah

In the next topic exchange, the group discuss which showing of the film they will go to (lines 43-54). In lines 43 and 44, although she is probably aiming to ask a question like "what time should we go?", YN persists in trying to use *how about*, but has trouble with it [ORIENTATION = FORM-TARGET FORMS]. GO then interrupts YN and tries to ask the question himself, and, although not perfect, he probably does enough to get his message across (lines 45 and 46) [ORIENTATION = MEANING]. While responding to GO's question in the next turn, EM is clearly focused on producing the target phrase *it might be good*: she begins with hesitation markers (*ah hm::*), then starts to use another *how about* suggestion before changing her mind and deciding that she wants to use a different target phrase, well aware that *how about* has already been used on several occasions. After some private talk and an unfilled pause, she opts for *it might be good* [ORIENTATION = FORM-TARGET FORMS]. When she

experiences trouble completing her turn, GO comes to her assistance, and the final suggestion is co-constructed [ORIENTATION = FORM-TARGET FORMS & MEANING]. YN signals the end of this topic with "let's go" (lines 53). Because it was used to confirm the film choice, not to suggest a new option, it was not counted as a suggestion in the quantitative analysis. Nevertheless, it is likely that YN is partly oriented towards the target forms here [ORIENTATION = FORM-TARGET FORMS]. Finally, in line 54, EM makes an ironic comment that YN's previous utterance sounds like a rather abrupt finish to the task [ORIENTATION = TASK-METATALK].

43 YN: how about (1.0) this mo- how about going this movie (2.5) *chau*
 44 {T:that's wrong} hehe what when=
 45 GO: =what show time er what showing do (.) this mo- ah see this
 46 movie?
 47 EM: ah (3.0) hm:: (3.0) (hh) how about *doushiyoukana* {T:what should I
 48 do?} (2.2) it might be good to (0.8) see *Kazetachinu* (2.3)
 49 *chigau* {T:no, not that} at?
 50 GO: at (1.5) seven o'clock?
 51 EM: seven o'clock
 52 GO: yeah hm:: that's okay
 53 YN: let's go!
 54 EM: *owatta!* {T:finished}

In line 56, EM moves the group onto the next topic of discussion, that of the place to eat. In this segment, EM uses two more of the suggestion phrases. She is clearly focused on producing a variety of the target forms: In line 59, she uses *shall we* rather fluently to suggest a kind of food [ORIENTATION = FORM-TARGET FORMS]. When GO asks for a specific place (line 62) [ORIENTATION = MEANING], EM tries to use *why don't we* but has some trouble. GO sees the trouble and tries to help her complete the correct suggestion (lines 63-65) [ORIENTATION = FORM-TARGET FORMS]. Next, YN also uses *why don't* to suggest an alternative (line 67), possibly emboldened by EM's previous use (note that YN omits the *to* preposition before the place name, just as EM did) [ORIENTATION = FORM-TARGET FORMS]. From here up to line 75, the exchanges are more meaning-oriented. GO uses *let's* in line 74, but it is delivered very fluently, and there is no real sign of stilted production [ORIENTATION = FORM-TARGET FORMS & MEANING].

56 EM: where to meet. where- where to eat. er
 57 YN: *itsu?* {T:when?}
 58 EM: XXX (*soko mae xxx*)
 59 EM: shall we go to Italian restaurant?
 60 YN: sounds good! [hehe
 61 EM: [hehe
 62 GO: where? (.) where go to?
 63 EM: er (2.4) why don't we (1.6) why: do:n't we: [go
 64 GO: [go
 65 EM: (1.4) Jolly Pasta?
 66 (2.5)
 67 YN: why don't [we go (.) Starbucks?
 68 GO: [okay
 69 GO: oh::
 70 EM: Italian restaurant XXX hehe

71 YN: I- I don't like pasta.
 72 EM: okay
 73 ((2.3 SECONDS OF LAUGHTER))
 74 GO: okay let's go (.) Saizeria.
 75 YN: sound good hehe

From line 82 to the end of the task, the group discuss the topic of when to meet. The decision is not straightforward though, and the participants resort to Japanese in places that seem to be off-task private meta-talk (lines 90, 92, and 95). The participants negotiate and find a time to meet that is convenient for everyone. Overall, there is an orientation to meaning to be found in a number of the turns (e.g. lines 101-104, 110-111, and 116-121). However, there is also a distinct orientation to form that pervades much of the topic. In line 91, after EM uses another (albeit aborted) *how about* suggestion [ORIENTATION = FORM-TARGET FORMS], GO laughs and comments on the repeated uses of this target form [ORIENTATION = FORM-METATALK]. Regardless, EM begins to use *how about* again in line 92, and YN uses it two more times in lines 97 to 99, which causes laughter, and again in line 106 [ORIENTATION = FORM-TARGET FORMS]. Things come to a head in lines 112 to 116 during which YN begins to use *how about* yet again but stops, commenting that she is embarrassed (due to the teasing by GO). GO then mentions again that the others like using *how about* too much [ORIENTATION = FORM-METATALK]. As a result, YN tries to use a *why don't we* suggestion but struggles and reverts to *how about* once more [ORIENTATION = FORM-TARGET FORMS]. After all, in her previous use of *why don't we*, she seemed to simply copy EM's prior use of it (lines 62-66). GO sees her trouble and interrupts her turn to bring the topic to a close (line 116) [ORIENTATION = MEANING]. This shows that it is not only the pre-task LFS that affected orientation, but the words or actions of a participant's interlocutor also had an influence; here, due to GO's teasing, YN felt compelled to leave her comfort zone and use a different target form. The final few lines of the interaction see some details added to their plan and are oriented to meaning (lines 117-121) [ORIENTATION = MEANING]. In the final turn, EM uses Japanese to confirm that they have already decided on the meeting place, one of the recommended topics to be discussed [ORIENTATION = METATALK].

82 GO: whe- whe- when oh
 83 EM: when
 84 GO: when we meet ah (1.0) before (2.0) go to cinema?
 85 EM: whe-
 86 (2.0)
 87 GO: hm
 88 EM: XXX
 89 GO: un
 90 EM: how: about- ju kuji kara chau? {T:from 9 or 10, isn't it}
 91 GO: hehe how sukisugi {T:you like it too much}
 92 EM: hehe how about gohan tabena akan kara= {T:we have to eat lunch}
 93 YN: =seyona: {T:that's right}
 94 GO: hm
 95 YN: demo asa kara asobitai kara hehe {T:but I want to play from
 96 morning}
 97 YN: how about=
 98 EM: =ten o'clock=

99 YN: =how about ten o'clock?
 100 ((LAUGHTER 4.5))
 101 YN: I want to go,
 102 GO: yeah
 103 YN: many place
 104 GO: hm okay (..) but ten o'clock is so fast
 105 EM: hehe
 106 YN: hehe un:: how about (1.4)
 107 GO: hehehe
 108 YN: eleven o'clock?
 109 GO: XXX
 110 EM: eleven?
 111 GO: yah:: okay eleven o'clock is okay=
 112 YN: =I (1.5) how about (1.4) ah chau wa {T:that's wrong} (2.8)
 113 hazukashi {T:it's embarrassing}
 114 GO: hehehe how about sukisugiru {T:like it too much} (2.6) okay okay
 115 YN: why don't:: (1.3) hehe [how about
 116 GO: [ele- ele- eleven o'clock is okay okay
 117 YN: I (..) get up you
 118 (8.5)
 119 EM: I going to?
 120 YN: I going to eleven o'clock (1.0) your house
 121 GO: ah okay.
 122 EM: basho mo kimechatta {T:we've also decided the place}

While some of the turns and series of turns found in this group's task performance were meaning-oriented, these tended to be sporadic, and there was a very prominent orientation towards form that ran through the entire interaction. As well as initially attempting to follow much of the task model, there were several off-task references to the target forms as well as numerous very stilted uses of the target forms that certainly affected fluency and interfered with the task running smoothly. Over the course of the task, EM used target forms on six occasions (2 x *how about*; 1 x *it might be good*; 1 x *shall we*; 2 x *why don't we*), GO on only two (2 x *let's*), and YN had seven attempts (6 x *how about*; 1 x *why don't*). Another feature of Group 1's interaction (which perhaps becomes more apparent after the discussions of the other classes' data) was the lack of minimalised structures. There were no occasions where the participants chose to simply use only the minimum lexical content to make suggestions. When they did so, it was for the purpose of repeating the previous utterance for confirmation (see line 110) or as part of a co-construction (see lines 50 and 98). This lack of minimalisation is another indicator of orientation towards form rather than simply task completion.

Group 2 case analysis — A sporadically form-oriented group

Of the participants in this group, AS was quite a motivated and proactive student while AK and YK were both of slightly lower proficiency. Throughout the task, AS takes a lead role, beginning the task by copying the opening from the task model (line 1) [ORIENTATION = FORM-MODEL]. Her partner seems uncertain how to proceed, evidenced by the long silence that follows AS's opening (line 2). AS then repeats the opening to which AK, rather hesitantly, responds (line 4). All of the turns up to this point are verbatim copies of the task model script [ORIENTATION = FORM-MODEL]. At this point, the teacher notices what is happening and intervenes, and the group stop copying the model conversation. Despite being told not to copy the model, the participants still used it as a crutch. Their orientation

was towards reproducing the model conversation and not making the task their own, not exchanging their own original meanings with their partners. In their previous English language learning experience, often the "conversation" practice they had done would just have entailed reading dialogues, so perhaps when they saw a conversation presented in classroom materials, they had become accustomed to simply reproducing it.

01 AS: ja why don't we go and see a movie hm: this weekend?
 02 (5.5)
 03 AS: hh why don't we go and see a movie this WEEKend?
 04 AK: un (3.5) sure (.) what's on?
 05 (3.5)
 06 YK: here is a cinema (.) listening- listing, what do you wanna see?
 07 T: don't copy it! YOUR conversation.

When the group resume, AS uses the target phrase *we could* followed by a lengthy unfilled pause before she suggests a film (line 8). The fact that this form was next in the model conversation is probably not a coincidence, but at least she is applying it to her own preferred choice of film. Regardless, there is still a clear orientation towards form [ORIENTATION = FORM-TARGET FORMS AND/OR -MODEL]. There now follows some hesitancy along with three lengthy silent periods, interrupted by a prompt from AS in line 12. AK eventually uses the target phrase *what about* to suggest a different film (line 14) [ORIENTATION = FORM-TARGET FORMS], which AS rejects in line 16 (using the same reason, but different language, as a speaker in the model). After more pausing, broken only by a hesitation marker, YK makes another target suggestion, using *let's* to propose a third possible film option [ORIENTATION = FORM-TARGET FORMS], but this is also rejected by AS (line 19), which causes a period of laughter amongst the group. YK follows this in line 21 with another *let's* suggestion, preceded and interrupted by hesitation markers, repetition, and unfilled pausing [ORIENTATION = FORM-TARGET FORMS]. In lines 22-32, the group seem to consult the cinema schedule (line 25) and establish that an action movie would be to the taste of everyone in the group [ORIENTATION = MEANING]. The suggestion is accepted and the "let's see the movie" uttered by AS in line 32 is confirmation of this (rather than a suggestion), and the topic is closed. This segment (line 8-32) features a number of examples of the target phrases along with some leaning on the task model. It also contains a few instances of participants exchanging their own ideas (e.g. lines 12, 19, and 26-30) with an orientation towards meaning. Up to this point, the participants have changed their orientation dynamically as the task has proceeded, sometimes focusing on the exchange of meaning, but there has been a consistent orientation to form throughout.

08 AS: we could watch (3.0) Captain (.) Phillips
 09 (4.0)
 10 AK: hm
 11 (5.0)
 12 AS: how about you?
 13 (5.5)
 14 AK: hm (.) what about Carrie?

15 YK: ah
 16 AS: oh sorry, I don't like horror
 17 (2.8)
 18 YK: hm (1.2) let's see (.) Room Mate
 19 AS: hehe sorry I don't like suspense too hehe
 20 ((LAUGHTER))
 21 YK: ah: oh: (1.9) let's see (3.0) let's see The Family
 22 AS: ya hehe
 23 AK: hehe
 24 YK: Family
 25 ((RUFFLING OF PAPERS (11.5)))
 26 AK: action
 27 AS: un it's action
 28 YK: okay? okay
 29 AK: I like action. I like action movie
 30 YK: I like action movie too
 31 AK: eh
 32 AS: let's see the movie

In lines 33 to 53, the group discuss a meeting time. Initially, YK seems to have been asking about the film showing time. There is some negotiation of meaning with AS using a clarification request as she does not seem to know what exactly is meant by "when" (it could be the day or the time) [ORIENTATION = MEANING]. YK reformulates his question in line 38. However, while he is repeating his question in full (line 41) and adding "see", AS takes the floor and makes a suggestion (using the target form *let's*) for a meeting time [ORIENTATION = FORM-TARGET FORMS], although AS indicates with "*chau*" that there is something amiss. Silence follows, and there is some indication of uncertainty on AK's behalf before AS corrects the proposed meeting time (L44). AK still seems uncertain, and in the barely audible utterance of "four o'clock" (line 46) — an example of L2 private speech — he seems to be processing whether this follows the cinema schedule [ORIENTATION = TASK-METATALK]. Assertive as ever, AS restates her suggestion in line 48, which perhaps serves the additional purpose of displaying that she can accurately produce the whole utterance after the previous broken effort [ORIENTATION = FORM-TARGET FORMS].

33 YK: when: (1.0) when do we (2.0) go (2.0) the theatre?
 34 AK: hehe
 35 AS: ah hm hehe
 36 AK: hehe
 37 AS: when?
 38 YK: when jana- {T:that's wrong} what time?
 39 AK: what time?
 40 AS: what time?
 41 YK: what time (2.0) do (.) we (..) see?=
 42 AS: =let's meet (1.0) eh (0.9) at (1.3) two er er *chau* (5.9)
 43 AK: hmm
 44 AS: fo-four o'clock on (1.0) Saturday.
 45 (3.0)
 46 AK: hm? (2.5) °four o'clock°
 47 (2.2)
 48 AS: let's meet (1.8) at fo- four o'clock (1.1) at Saturday hehe
 49 AK: okay

The topic of meeting place is discussed in lines 55 to 71. After a 19-second period of silence, AK takes the lead and uses an *it might be good* suggestion [ORIENTATION = FORM-TARGET FORMS]. In addition to the silence preceding it, the use of the target form causes several disfluencies to materialise: two false starts and reformulations, vowel marking on the false start, and three (two short but one almost eight seconds) unfilled pauses. AS appreciates the trouble AK is having and helps to complete and co-construct the suggestion. AK is oriented to form here, and this appears to affect his fluency. The suggestion, however, is accepted and in lines 63 to 70, there is a period of confirmation of the current plans led by AS [ORIENTATION = MEANING]. Her utterance in line 72 indicates that she is intending to wrap up the task [ORIENTATION = TASK COMPLETION], a move that AK seems puzzled by (line 73).

54 (19.0)
 55 AK: it-o (0.6) it might be (0.5) good to meet in (7.8) ((RUFFLES
 56 PAPER)) it might be good to meet in=
 57 AS: =Umeda Station?
 58 AK: Umeda Station
 59 AS: yeah okay
 60 T: you can look here ((STUDENTS WERE LOOKING AT MATERIALS))
 61 AK: Umeda Station okay
 62 YK: okay
 63 AS: okay. (2.0) we- (1.0) we meet- we will meet at four o'clock (.)
 64 on Saturday in i- in (.) Umeda Station? hehe
 65 AK: hm?
 66 AS: eh?
 67 AK: okay
 68 YK: what time? what time?
 69 AS: at four o'clock
 70 YK: at four o'clock
 71 (2.5)
 72 AS: okay? goodbye
 73 AK: hm?

Next, the group discuss the place and time at which to eat (lines 74-83). YK uses *why don't we* to suggest eating lunch together, and again a strong orientation to form leads to disfluency markers (lines 74-75) [ORIENTATION = FORM-TARGET FORMS]. This is accepted by AS, then, in line 77, AK suggests a specific restaurant using *how about*, with only minimal disfluency on show [ORIENTATION = FORM-TARGET FORMS]. YK agrees and uses *let's* to confirm the eating place. The next turn, in line 79, is interesting as AS suggests a meeting time but, unlike all her previous suggestions, she does not use a target form and simply uses a minimised structure with rising intonation: an indication of an orientation to meaning [ORIENTATION = MEANING]. Her suggestion is then accepted by both YK and AK, but this leads to the realisation by AS that the previously agreed upon meeting time must be changed (line 84). If AS were strongly oriented to producing another suggestion, she could have done so in line 84. The choice to use her own linguistic resources to produce "should" to show the necessity of an action is indicative of her orientation to meaning at this point. This orientation to meaning continues through to line 92. YK makes an alternative meeting time suggestion, but, like AS, he does

so with a minimalised structure and questioning intonation. This is accepted, and AS summarises the plan again (lines 90-91).

74 YK: why- (0.8) why don't (0.9) we go to (.) lunch before (.) see a
75 movie?
76 AS: ah: hehe okay ern
77 AK: how about-o (0.7) Jolly @Pasta@
78 YK: yeah I like Jolly Pasta, let's go to: Jolly Pasta
79 AS: ah (1.8) at (.) twelve o'clock?
80 YK: twelve o'clock
81 AK: hm
82 YK: okay.
83 AK: okay.=
84 AS: =so- so we should (.) meet early
85 (2.5)
86 YK: ah: (2.5) eleven? @eleven?@
87 AS: at eleven (.) we should [meet
88 YK: [we should meet
89 ((laughter))
90 AS: we will go to Umeda Station (.) at eleven o'clock↑ (.) and↑
91 (.) go to (1.0) Jolly Pasta hehe
92 YK: yes

In lines 93 to 101, the group discuss the final topic of which showing to see. With many disfluency markers as she is formulating her message, AS makes a *shall we* suggestion (lines 93-94) [ORIENTATION = FORM-TARGET FORMS]. Immediately before saying it, she uses the Japanese "*ja*", an expression often used before one performs an action which indicates that the speaker is about to make a statement, akin to "right then" or "here I go" in English. Once more, a clear orientation to form is being demonstrated by a member of this group; though, from this point the group all seem oriented to meaning, making a summary of their plans (lines 102-104) [ORIENTATION = MEANING] and wrapping up the task (lines 105-109) with a final use (though not as a suggestion) of one of the target forms [ORIENTATION = FORM-TARGET FORMS].

93 AS: and↑ (2.2) er (1.2) hm (1.7) °ja° shall we watch (1.1) the movie↑
94 at-o (1.5) thirteen (2.4) o'clock? hehe
95 YK: thirteen o'clock
96 AS: because- because we we: (..) we have (..) lunchtime (3.0) XXX so
97 (..) fou:r fifty is too late
98 AK: ah:
99 YK: ah:
100 AK: okay
101 YK: okay
102 AS: so we will meet (..) Umeda Station at eleven and (.) eat lunch
103 in Jolly Pasta and (..) one ah thir- thirtee:n o'clock we watch
104 (..) movie (.) The Family (1.5) okay?
105 YK: o[kay
106 AK: [okay
107 YK: mou tomete ii? {T:can I stop it?}
108 AS: let's go
109 AK: let's go let's go!

The Group 2 participants demonstrated on several occasions a clear orientation towards form. Between these instances, there were also periods where they seemed to be only meaning-oriented. As shown in lines 74-92, there were also examples where minimalised and alternative forms were used. Yet, it was never long before one participant would try to use the target forms, leading to inevitable periods of disfluency. Over the task, AK used the target forms three times (1 x *how about*; 1 x *what about*; 1 x *it might be good*), AS used them six times (2 x *let's*; 2 x *why don't*; 1 x *we could*; 1 x *shall we*), and YK four times (3 x *let's*; 1 x *why don't*). This pattern of interaction — a dynamic shift of orientation between meaning and forms — was seen in most the other groups too, and it seems to be the typical reaction for learners who received pre-task instruction. However, there was one group that did not periodically shift their attention towards the target forms to anywhere near the same extent.

Group 3 case analysis — A less form-oriented group

Group 3 was somewhat of an outlier group in Class A in that there was little apparent orientation to form after the opening exchanges. To start the task, KK largely copies the model's opening in the same way as most of the other groups [ORIENTATION = FORM-MODEL]. TE responds with a target form suggestion for a film, which is a shortened version of one that appeared in the task model [ORIENTATION = FORM-MODEL OR -TARGET FORMS]. KK then uses "sounds good" (with some hesitancy), which was used in the model, and it is likely that KK lifted this phrase from it (line 3).

In the remainder of the task, both participants do not orient to form, they seem to only focus on meaning and task completion. In line 5, KK raises the topic of meeting time, and in response, TE has a problem formulating a suggestion, in the end settling for the fully lexicalised "ten o'clock".

```

01 KK: why don't we go and see a movie. (.) next week
02 TE: good. how about Captain Philipps?
03 KK: yes (..) um (1.0) sounds good. (1.5) eh: (3.0) wha[t
04 TE: [jikan {T:time}
05 KK: what-u (.) time (.) should we meet?
06 TE: hm I: (5.0) I hope me- (..) you- ah no no e:to (2.5) er:: ten
07 o'clock.

```

In lines 8 to 12, the pair use mostly minimalised structures when discussing the showing time. In line 8, KK points out that the showing time of eleven thirty is incompatible with their previously agreed meeting time of ten o'clock, but this is rectified by line 12. In lines 13 and 14, TE is asking which day they will go, but KK thinks he is referring to the time they will arrive at the cinema, evidenced by her response in lines 16 and 17. This communication breakdown is repaired in lines 18 to 21. The task continues with minimalised structures: In line 26, KK suggests eating after the movie, and in line 31 TE suggests a place to eat.

```

08 KK: 10 o'clock? u:m this time, er:: eleven thirty:
09 TE: uh oh no er:: (2.5) s- (.) okay.
10 KK: okay.
11 TE: eleven thirty.

```

12 KK: eleven thirty. (2.5) and=
 13 TE: =whe- er when:: when (5.0) hehe whe:n (1.5) do we, (3.5) when-
 14 when will we, (1.5) go:: (...) ci- (...) cinema?
 15 (8.0)
 16 KK: we will go (9.0) we- we will, (1.0) we will arrive-u (1.5)
 17 cinema (2.5) eleven.
 18 TE: no! no! no! day! day! day!
 19 KK: ah day ah er hehe (...) ah Wednesday- I hope Wednesday, because
 20 [ladies day.
 21 TE: [okay
 22 TE: ah okay oh e::to (10.5) we- er how (2.0) eto ato {T:next} (1.0)
 23 where, (7.5) where, (5.5) where?
 24 KK: where?
 25 TE: eat eat
 26 KK: where eat? after?
 27 TE: af- hm:
 28 KK: movie- (...) showing movie (1.5) after=
 29 TE: =after after (...) I hope after.
 30 KK: ah yes. er (1.5) what-o (...) what-o (2.5) do you want (.) to eat?
 31 TE: hmm Saizeria.
 32 KK: hehe yes okay.
 33 TE: owattan chau {T:finished aren't we?}
 34 KK: hm finish!
 35 TE: finish!

Throughout the task, the two participants seem oriented to meaning. Apart from at the very beginning, they avoid the target forms practised during the LFS. They do not, however, use acceptable alternatives (although TE apparently tried in line 6), and the task interaction is full of minimalised structures. They also do not take the opportunity to discuss the individual topics more fully, always accepting their partner's first suggestion and moving on with the task. Therefore, it may be more appropriate to say that their orientation here is not only on meaning but on *task completion*, not only performing the task and exchanging meanings but getting it finished in the fastest and most efficient manner.

4.1.2.7 Summary

The qualitative micro-analysis of the Class A CT task interaction revealed a number of points related to the impact that a pre-task explicit focus on language might have on subsequent task interaction. The instances of L1 metatalk and self-correction demonstrated a clear orientation on the part of some participants towards the reproduction of the target forms. The presence of co-constructed suggestion phrases indicated some shared orientation towards the accurate production of these forms was also at play. The disfluency markers that occurred around some TFOs showed that when participants focused on supplying target forms, it could have a negative impact on their fluency. Finally, the observation that participants often mined language other than the target forms from the task model also revealed something about their orientation. It seems that many participants found it difficult to completely trust their own linguistic resources and often used the LFS materials to support them throughout the task performances.

The group case analyses show that far from there being uniform patterns to be seen for all participants, there was often a great deal of variety between individual, and individual group,

performances. While it is true that throughout the task, all participants oriented towards target form production sporadically, the extent to which this happened varied, and some participants appeared to be more oriented towards the task. This indicates that individual differences between participants might be an important factor when considering the true effect of pre-task teaching of linguistic forms, a point that reoccurs throughout this thesis. There seems to be another factor at play which determines the direction of orientation — that of interlocutor pairings. It surely cannot be a coincidence that the three participants who were especially oriented towards producing the target forms happened to be placed in Group 1; nor does it seem likely that the two students who seemed to be the least oriented in that direction were together in Group 3 by chance. The participants appeared to react to each other's orientations, and, depending on no doubt myriad factors, a combined group orientation seemed to emerge in these cases.

4.1.3 Repeat tasks

In this section, I describe how the participants used the target forms in the repeat task one week after the initial instructional sequence and main task. Comparing the two task performances, two aspects of the repeat performance are considered: the frequency and accuracy of target form uses, and whether participants appeared to be oriented towards their accurate production. Similar to the above analysis for the main task, I first present holistic findings quantitatively before selecting some representative cases to illustrate any apparent lasting impact of the previous week's LFS. The following discussion only refers to the 16 individuals that attended both sessions during which data was collected — those who were absent for either class are not considered here.

4.1.3.1 Holistic findings

Table 4.4 shows a comparison of the key features from the two task performances. First, the total number of TFOs decreased slightly from the main task (71, mean=4.4) to the repeat task (62, mean=3.9). Next, regarding TFUs, although accuracy remained high over both task performances, there was a tendency for participants to supply target suggestions on far fewer occasions in the repeat performance; in the main performance, 77.5% of the TFOs were filled by target forms, but this proportion decreased to 45.2% in the repeat task. Instead, participants were using many more preference statements, and there were a few more bald statements, while the frequency of minimalised structures actually marginally decreased.

Table 4.4
Forms supplied in TFOs across the main and repeat tasks by Class A (n=16)

	TFOs	TFUs	TF Accuracy (%)	Alt	Min	BS	PS
Main task	71	55 (77.5)	98.2	1 (1.4)	10 (14.1)	2 (2.8)	3 (4.2)
Repeat task	62	28 (45.2)	92.9	2 (3.2)	8 (12.9)	6 (9.7)	18 (29)

Notes. Alt = Alternatively filled TFOs using *be*; Min = minimalised structures; BS = bald statements; PS = preference statements. Numbers shown in brackets denote the proportion of the TFU total.

Table 4.5 shows a comparison between the main and repeat task for individual participants. The variety of target forms decreased, with each participant on average using 2.2 different target forms in the main task, but only 1.0 in the repeat task. Almost all of the Class A participants demonstrated a moderate (albeit transient) to strong orientation towards the target forms during the main performance. For the repeat performance, the data hint at a greatly reduced use of the target forms.

Table 4.5

Class A participants' use of the targets forms over the main and repeat CT tasks

Participant	Main task			Repeat task		
	TFOs	TFUs	TFU type	TFOs	TFUs	TFU type
AH	6	5	3	2	2	2
AK	3	3	3	2	0	0
AS	8	6	4	1	0	0
EM	7	7	4	4	4	1
EH	6	4	3	3	1	1
GO	3	2	1	2	1	1
KK	5	1	1	4	1	1
KJ	5	4	2	6	1*	1
MM	2	2*	2	8	2	1
MK	2	1	1	4	3	1
TE	3	1	1	5	1	1
TS	4	4	2	3	1	1
YI	2	2	1	2	0	0
YN	8	7	2	6	5	2
YK	4	3	2	8	4*	1
YS	3	3	3	2	2	2
Total	71	55	35	62	28	16
Mean	4.4	3.4	2.2	3.9	1.8	1.0

Notes. TFU type = The number of different target forms used; * denotes an error with a target form.

These data indicate that despite the orientation to form witnessed in the main task, and the practice opportunities made available after the LFS, there was a decrease in the number of times target forms were supplied in TFOs. Although the pre-task LFS seemed to help the participants navigate the main task successfully, the target forms did not appear to be available for many of the participants one week later. Of course, this is entirely predictable and consistent with previous research findings regarding the short-term nature of L2 knowledge gained through explicit teaching (Long, 2015; Tode, 2007).

Table 4.6 shows how the seven suggestion phrases were used in the repeat task, and it demonstrates the decrease seen in the variety that were used. It was *how about* and *let's* that were by far the most commonly produced, with no instances of *we could* or *it might be good*. The pilot studies, along with the data from Class C and D, indicated that some participants were likely to have been familiar with these expressions, and the LFS would have reinforced their knowledge of how and when to apply them in conversation. This raised awareness appears to have remained with some participants a week later in the repeat performance.

Table 4.6
Suggestion phrases used in the Class A CT repeat task

Phrase	Total attempts	Correctly used	Incorrectly used
how about	13	13	0
it might be good	0	0	0
let's	8	8	0
shall we	2	2	0
we could	0	0	0
what about	1	1	0
why don't	4	2	2
Total	28	26	2

4.1.3.2 Case analyses

Despite the overall number of TFUs decreasing in the repeat task, there were a few participants who still used the target suggestions appropriately: AH, EM, YK, YN, and YS stand out as they used target forms on more than one occasion and gave some overt signals of a form-orientation, while there were hints that others might have been trying to recall the forms taught the previous week. For example, although TS only used a single "let's" suggestion, he very deliberately reformulated a minimalised utterance to incorporate its use, as shown in Excerpt 4.34.

Excerpt 4.34 (CA/G7/RT)

29 AS: so we: (2.0) we m- we mee:t (2.0) uh what time we meet? (1.0) hm
30 where? hehe hm:
31 TS: er we meet- (1.5) let's meet (1.0) nine o'clock (1.5) a:nd-o
32 (2.0) and-o meet-o (..) at the station
33 TE: okay
34 AS: okay

Those participants who regularly used appropriate suggestions in the repeat performance were always those who had also oriented towards form in the main performance a week earlier. For instance, YN, the Group 1 participant who repeatedly used *how about* during the main performance (much to the amusement of her partner GO), had six opportunities to make suggestions in the repeat task. As shown in Box 4.1, during these TFOs, she successfully used *how about* on four occasions and *shall we* on another. It was only at the end of the task, as the group were finishing and then realised that they had not fixed a day, that she used a minimalised structure to make a suggestion. As she was trying to wrap up the task, it seems YN's orientation moved away from forms towards task completion. Overall, it appears that the previous week's pre-task LFS may have had a lasting effect on YN, at least as long as she remained oriented in that direction.

Box 4.1

TFOs by Class A participant YN in the CT repeat task

TFO

- (1) why- (..) er shall we go to Kazetachinu?
 - (2) go (1.5) my hehe ah: how about (1.0) Captain Phi- Philipps?
 - (3) how about-o[...]fifteen (1.0) ten
 - (4) how about Kagoyahime Monogatari
 - (5) how about (1.5) Chinese?
 - (6) the day after tomorrow.
-

However, a key point is this: not all participants who oriented towards the target forms in the main task consistently used them appropriately in the repeat performance. AK, KJ, and MM are three participants who clearly belong in this category. All displayed an orientation towards the target forms the first time around; however, during their respective repeat performances, they rarely used an appropriate suggestion when one was required. The way KJ makes suggestions throughout the repeat task is illustrative of this finding. As shown in the six utterances in Box 4.2, while she begins with a slightly hesitant "how about" suggestion in the very first turn of the task interaction, KJ later uses preference statements — (2), (4), and (5) — and bald statements — (3) and (6) — to make suggestions.

Box 4.2

TFOs by Class A participant KJ in the CT repeat task

TFO

- (1) how about-o (..) °going° eh watch the- (..) watch (2.0) Kazetachinu?
 - (2) I want-o watch at seven
 - (3) eto: after school (1.5) at after school we go to (..) cinema
 - (4) I want to eat-o (1.0) er:: (2.0) after cinema
 - (5) I want to eat-o osushi
 - (6) we meet at-o (4.5) six-u?[...]at-o Mint Kobe
-

Finally, the two participants who mostly oriented towards meaning in the first task performance once again did not use the target forms in the repeat task — both KK and TE used a target form on only one occasion. KK used one minimalised structure, one preference statement, and one perfectly appropriate alternative strategy ("we should meet[...]eleven o'clock"). TE's five TFOs are shown in Box 4.3. In (1), TE used a preference statement, and, in (4), he used *how about*, the same single suggestion phrase that he used in the main task. However, he used minimalised structures for the remaining three examples, and his overall production during TFOs was not easily discernible from the previous week.

Box 4.3

TFOs by Class A participant TE in the CT repeat task

TFO

- (1) I want to: watch Captai:n (...) Philips.
 - (2) I: hope (2.0) ten (1.5) ten start
 - (3) er after watching a movie we: (1.5) do we (1.0) eh: (...) eat (...) something?
 - (4) how (...) about (...) Saizeria
 - (5) this weekend, eh: Sunday, eh: (2.0) [nine o'clock
-

4.1.3.3 Summary

To summarise, the data from the repeat tasks showed an overall tendency for participants to use fewer suggestion phrases when opportunities arose, although this varied depending on the individual. Those that did appropriately use some of the target forms were also participants who showed signs of an orientation to their production during the main task in the previous week; however, some participants who oriented to form in the main task did not produce many target suggestions when they repeated it. Finally, the two students that were overtly meaning-oriented in the main task only used the target forms on a single occasion each during the repeat performance.

The Class A repeat task data do not necessarily give information on any medium-term acquisition of the suggestion phrases. Indeed, it is difficult to tease apart signs of orientation and acquisition. The inherent moderate degree of task-essentialness of the CT task allowed participants to choose other options, and just because there were fewer instances of successful TFUs, it does not necessarily mean that the participants were unable to produce them. These data do, however, offer an insight on whether the participants still recognised the opportunities for their use and whether they were still oriented towards further practice of the target forms. It is possible that those participants who demonstrated this have a better chance of being able to use a variety of suggestion phrases successfully in the future.

4.2 DESCRIBING PEOPLE TASKS

In this section, I give an account of the interactions from the main DP task in which pairs had to describe the various characters in 12 corresponding pictures. The patterns for target form use had some qualitative similarities to those obtained for the CT task; however, as detailed below, there were some rather striking differences owing to the inherent properties of the task and the grammatically focused (in contrast to the more lexical suggestion phrases) target forms.

I have organised the following section in a similar way to the CT task in section 4.1. First, I show the data set holistically, employing a quantitative description. Second, over three sub-sections, I describe some of the key features found in the participants' interactions, which is the result of a comprehensive qualitative analysis. Third, I present two detailed cases of task performances to

illustrate how different participants displayed somewhat contrasting orientations during the task. Finally, I look at the repeat tasks and describe any evidence of a lasting effect from the previous week's LFS on target form use.

The aim of the task was to find the differences between twelve corresponding pairs of pictures, with six being identical, and six having a single difference between them (see 3.4.2 and Appendix 2 for details of the task procedures). Participants described their pictures to one another to try and find the differences. Each description made in a place where the use of one of the target forms was possible was coded as a target form opportunity, and the way each TFO was filled was categorised.

Most dyads did not manage to find all six non-identical pairs on their first attempt. In these cases, they had to return to those pairs of pictures which they had judged to be the same and describe them in more detail in order to locate the differences. For the purpose of the analysis, only the initial descriptions of the twelve pictures are considered. This decision was made to eliminate a variable in the data set as different groups had varying levels of success in finding the non-identical pairs of pictures. Some managed to find all the differences in a single run, while others had to return several times to certain pictures to try and find a difference. It also helped to rein in the quantity of data to make it more manageable for processing and analysis.

4.2.1 Holistic analysis

The first part of this discussion quantitatively examines the use of the target forms — the present continuous and *have (got)* — for describing peoples' actions and states. I present some data which show the frequency with which the target forms were used, along with commentary on the accuracy of their use, with particular reference to minimalisation. For this analysis, the TFOs were coded depending on which form was used, its accuracy, and the types of errors that were present.

For some TFOs, either of the target forms — *present continuous* or *have (got)* — could have been used to describe the actions or possessions of people in the pictures, as shown in the following examples:

<i>Present continuous</i>	<i>Have (got)</i>	<i>Unclear target</i>
She is holding a bag. (✓)	She has a bag. (✓)	She bag. (x)
He is eating an ice cream. (✓)	He has got an ice cream. (✓)	He ice cream. (x)

For other TFOs, the present continuous could be used but *have (got)* could not.

<i>Present continuous</i>	<i>Have (got)</i>
She is talking. (✓)	?
He is singing. (✓)	?

Another group of TFOs include descriptions for which participants typically used *have (got)* along with a colour or adjective to describe, for example, a person's hair or eyes. For these more permanent

states, present continuous could not be supplied. Participants sometimes used an alternative structure to make these descriptions, making the complement (e.g. *hair* or *eyes*) the subject of the utterance, as shown in the following examples:

<i>Have (got)</i>	<i>Alternative description</i>
She has long hair.	Her hair is long.
The man has got black eyes.	The man's eyes are black.

The structure of these alternative descriptions was not covered in the LFS and no exemplars were present in the task model. Therefore, they were not coded as TFUs, and their presence could, in fact, be indicative of an orientation away from the target forms.

4.2.1.1 Frequency and accuracy of target forms

Table 4.7 shows the raw numbers for target forms. All 22 Class A participants were present for the main task data collection session. An observation that can be quickly made is the sheer quantity of TFOs in this task compared with the CT task. In total, there were 387 opportunities for participants to use either the present continuous or *have (got)*. In 232 of these (59.9%), the participants supplied the present continuous, with 120 TFOs (31.0%) being realised with *have (got)*. Six of the *have (got)* descriptions included *got*, and all of these were accurate. There were 14 TFOs (3.6%) in which the description had been minimalised to such an extent that it was impossible to determine which target form, if any, the participants had been aiming for. Finally, there were 21 (5.4%) alternative descriptions, made by only six of the participants. As I show in the later findings chapters, there were more instances of these in other classes' interactions, suggesting that Class A were perhaps orienting more towards the production of those forms from the LFS instead of their own linguistic resources.

It can be seen that, overall, the participants clearly used the target forms; as in the CT task, they did not ignore them. However, as the pilot studies showed (and as experience would suggest), learners in this context had plenty of experience with the use of present continuous and *have (got)*. This makes it different from the CT task where some of the target forms appeared to be new. Also, the intrinsic degree of task-essentialness of this task was much greater than the CT task. Therefore, the presence alone of the target forms is not enough to conclude that there was a general orientation towards them. One target form that was probably not part of participants' productive knowledge was *have got* (including *got*). It appeared in seven of the 120 *have (got)* TFUs, and this is a likely indicator of an orientation towards the production of the target forms.

Table 4.7
Class A participants' use of the targets forms in the DP main task

Group (Participant)	Total TFOs	Total TFUs	present continuous			have (got)			UTF	Alt
			TFUs	(O)	(X)	TFUs	(O)	(X)		
1 (AS)	17	17	12	6	6	4	2	2	1	0
1 (YS)	13	13	5	4	1	8	7	1	0	0
2 (MI)	14	14	11	3	8	3	3	0	0	0
2 (HF)	8	8	5	2	3	2	1	1	1	0
3 (TS)	18	18	14	11	3	4	2	2	0	0
3 (AH)	20	20	13	13	0	5	3	2	2	0
4 (MK)	18	16	9	8	1	7	7	0	0	2
4 (YK)	19	15	9	3	6	5	1	4	1	4
5 (KJ)	16	14	10	10	0	4	2	2	0	2
5 (YN)	13	13	9	6	3	4	4	0	0	0
6 (KK)	22	22	16	2	14	6	5	1	0	0
6 (YI)	13	13	7	3	4	5	2	3	1	0
7 (EH)	14	8	7	2	5	1	1	0	0	6
7 (GO)	24	22	17	12	5	5	5	0	0	2
8 (EM)	19	19	11	10	1	8	8	0	0	0
8 (TE)	22	18	12	10	2	6	5	1	0	4
9 (KU)	30	30	15	3	12	13	10	3	2	0
9 (TK)	25	25	12	1	11	10	9	1	3	0
10 (MR)	14	14	7	6	1	7	7	0	0	0
10 (TW)	15	15	12	11	1	3	3	0	0	0
11 (AK)	14	13	6	3	3	5	4	1	2	1
11 (MM)	19	19	13	5	8	5	4	1	1	0
Total	387	366	232	134	98	120	95	25	14	21
Mean	17.6	16.6	10.5	6.1	4.5	5.5	4.3	1.1	0.6	1.0
SD	5.0	5.2								
Proportion of TFOs (%)	94.6	59.9				31.0			3.6	5.4
Accuracy (%)	62.6	57.8				79.2				

Notes. (O) = Correct use; (X) = incorrect use; UTF = unclear target forms; Alt = alternative descriptions using *be*.

The large number of TFOs allowed a closer look at the accuracy of the target forms uses, particularly for the present continuous TFUs. As Table 4.7 shows, there were 134 target-like present continuous uses from a total of 232 attempts. This gave an accuracy rate of 57.8%, which might be considered rather low considering the participants had just completed a period of instruction on the target forms, reflecting a lack of implicit knowledge — the type of knowledge required for spontaneous production — of the present continuous. For *have (got)* TFUs, the accuracy was markedly higher at 79.2%, with 25 errors made from the 120 TFOs. The combined accuracy for all TFUs stood at 62.6%.

4.2.1.2 Minimalisation

Of the 366 TFUs that appeared in the data set, 123 (33.6%) contained some kind of minimalisation, the troubling feature of task interaction which may impede L2 development (Groom & Littlemore, 2011; Prabhu, 1987; Seedhouse, 1999; Skehan, 1996). Almost all of the 98 present continuous errors contained combinations of omissions of the subject, auxiliary *be*, main lexical verb, and/or *-ing* morpheme, of which examples are shown in Box 4.4.

In fact, throughout the Class A data, only one erroneous present continuous description did not involve minimalisation (the participant used a past tense verb). Also, as stated above, there were a further 14 descriptions that had been minimalised to such an extent that it was impossible to see if the participant had intended them in the sense of a present continuous or *have (got)* structure (the final utterance in Box 4.4 is an example of this). With minimalisation being such a prominent feature of the DP task interaction, it is worth further examining not only the frequency of minimalised structures but also the degree of minimalisation for each error.

Box 4.4

Minimalisation in Class A's DP main task

Utterance	Group	Minimalisation type
MM: wearing (1.0) cap?	11	subject & auxiliary <i>be</i> omission
KU: she drinking ah some- some water?	9	auxiliary <i>be</i> omission
MR: she: eat eh soft cream	10	auxiliary <i>be</i> & <i>-ing</i> omission
MI: a boy in (.) left-o is (3.3) eh (2.0) up his-u left hand. up-u (1.5) his-u left hand.	2	lexical verb omission
KK: he- he- he::- he: is sing a song	6	<i>-ing</i> omission
TK: plain shirt	9	unclear target form

The present continuous is a structure that has four obligatory elements: the subject, the auxiliary *be* verb, the main lexical verb, and the *-ing* morpheme (of course, the lexical verb may take a direct object or a complement, but it is not universal). For example, *she is eating* can be analysed as follows:

She	is	eat	ing
<i>Subject</i>	<i>auxiliary be</i>	<i>lexical verb</i>	<i>-ing morpheme</i>

One way to measure the degree of minimalisation is to look at the average number of the obligatory elements that were included in the 232 present continuous TFUs. A calculation showed there to be a mean of 3.3 elements for present continuous TFUs. In other words, there was 0.7 constituent missing for each attempt at a present continuous description, or a 82.5% completion rate.

4.2.1.3 Summary

To summarise, the quantitative findings for target form production show that the Class A participants did use the target forms and did not ignore them. However, as stated above, the inherent task-essentialness of the DP task, and the number of obligatory occasions that occurred, may have guided participants to use the target forms (at least more than in the CT task). One way to examine how closely learners may be adhering to target form use is to look at the extent of minimalisation that occurs in descriptions using the present continuous.

Of course, those participants who consistently used either or both of the target forms accurately might simply know how to use them, implicitly or explicitly. If they used the target forms accurately and displayed no hesitancy with their use, it can be assumed to be the case, and it is difficult to make a strong claim regarding their orientation during the task. However, those who used the forms accurately, but whose interaction contained features indicating stilted production, might be considered to be form-oriented. Finally, participants who did not produce the target forms accurately, despite having just practised them and having easy access to materials outlining their use, were likely to have been more meaning-oriented. In the following pages, I discuss the findings from the qualitative analysis and present the interaction features that indicated an orientation to meaning for at least some of the Class A participants.

4.2.2 Interaction analysis

The interaction analysis for the DP task follows a similar structure to that of the CT task in 4.1.2. In order to add some detailed description and explanation to the quantitative findings, I present evidence of the Class A participant orientation with references to instances of metatalk, disfluency markers, self-corrections, and mining from the task model. For each phenomenon, I provide excerpts to illustrate salient points and indications of participant orientation. Later, in section 4.2.2.5, I show detailed analyses of two groups' task performances, which were selected as representative cases demonstrating divergent orientations.

4.2.2.1 Metatalk

Perhaps there is no more explicit evidence of orientation towards target forms than actual instances of talk about them. However, this data set contained only the single example shown in Excerpt 4.35, in which TS makes a comment about the correct language form to use. In line 131, TS uses *is* to describe hair colour. After the utterance, he says, in a quieter voice, the target form which he felt he should have used based on the LFS. The Japanese *ka* in line 133 is a question particle, acting like an English tag question, and, in this case, it would approximate *isn't it?*

Excerpt 4.35 (CA/G3/MT)

```
129 AH: =different number ten (3.0) a bo:y- a boy is wearing-u border no
130     sleeve
131 TS: yes yes (2.2) he (0.7) he is black-u short hair.
132 AH: oh:
133 TS: °he has ka?°
```


4.2.2.2 *Disfluency markers*

As might be predicted with learners of relatively low proficiency, there was a significant number of disfluency markers throughout the task interaction, similar to the CT task. While it is difficult to isolate these features and attribute them to trouble with the target forms, the demands of the task, or other influences, it is worth looking at some that occurred during production of the target forms which were likely to have been influenced by participants paying attention to them. Unfilled pauses, hesitation markers, repetitions, false starts, and vowel marking were all employed by the participants in times of trouble or word searches. This is not to say that all participants had the same kind of disfluencies. On the contrary, there was, for example, a noticeable difference between participants' use of vowel marking. Some participants tended to use it frequently when struggling with a word search, while others did not use it at all, instead relying on sound stretching (which seemed to be more prevalent in this task than in the CT task) and pauses. There were apparent individual differences in the way that disfluency was manifested in interaction. Arguably, the kind of hesitation markers used by L1 English speakers (e.g. short pauses and L1 hesitation markers) is more desirable than the vowel marking typically used by lower proficiency L1 Japanese speakers of English, although this issue is behind the scope of the current study.

With some careful analysis of the task interaction, it becomes clear that many of the disfluency markers were due to the participants doing word searches to find the best way to describe the pictures. Because of this, it was often difficult to determine whether disfluencies around the target forms were due to the participants focusing on accurate production of the target forms, or whether they were thinking about the lexis necessary to describe the pictures. Alternatively, they may have been trying to work out what the picture was actually showing (sometimes there seemed to be small issues with this). In the discussion that follows, some examples that appear to demonstrate a clear orientation towards the target forms have been selected.

In Excerpt 4.36, there is an interesting representative assortment of disfluency markers. Right at the beginning of the task, there is a 4.5 second pause before AS produces her description. In a situation like this, it is difficult to know whether the hesitation was due to a word search involving the target form (present continuous) or perhaps the lexical item "wear". In line 07, however, YS seems focused on producing the target form. Before he makes his description, there is a hesitation marker between two unfilled pauses, which is followed by sound stretching on "he", and finally there is stressed vowel marking on "wearing". These are all possible signs of the participant orienting towards the production of accurate target forms.

Excerpt 4.36 (CA/GI/MT)

```
01 AS: one picture (0.6) in one picture a man? (hand) (4.5) hehe man
02     wearing a watch
03     (3.3)
04 YS: right hand?
05 AS: yes.
06     (1.1)
07 YS: er: (2.0) he: is wearing-u striped shirt
```

Excerpt 4.37 shows a rare use of *have got*. *Have got* is not used commonly by Japanese speakers of English, possibly because it is predominately a British English form (Swan, 2005b) and the formal education system in Japan follows American English usage. It was completely absent from the pilot study (and the main tasks of Class C and D) and only appeared on six occasions through the entire Class A data set. In line 82 of Excerpt 4.37, YS stretches the vowel sound in "he", which is followed by an unfilled pause before the accurate delivery of the *have got* description.

Excerpt 4.37 (CA/G1/MT)

```
82 YS: mike, uh yes he:: (1.1) he has got (.) a tie?
83 AS: yeah (1.0) black tie?
84 YS: black tie.
85 AS: okay hehe [mm:
```

One caveat that must be mentioned here is that participants such as YS did not always show such hesitation when using the target forms. For example, in Excerpt 4.38, YS gives a fluent delivery of his description in line 34. We can speculate on the reasons why: he may have had sufficient time to formulate his utterance in the pause before he begins; because this is late in the task, the practice may have had an automatising effect; "reading a book" may have been easier to retrieve; or perhaps this picture was easier to understand. There are several possibilities to consider, therefore, we can not be absolutely sure of the reasons why some deliveries were smooth and some seemed to demand more of the participants.

Excerpt 4.38 (CA/G1/MT)

```
32 AS: er a bo:y listening to: the music (1.0) on his? music player
33      (1.7)
34 YS: he is reading book.
35 AS: oh (.) different
```

In the DP task, there were many examples where participants seemed to use vowel marking as a means of emphasis or to display that they have completed a part of their utterance. Vowel marking *outside* of descriptions was almost non-existent during these tasks. In Excerpt 4.39, we can see TS making a present continuous description. This is the first such description he accurately makes during this task, and as he is doing so he uses vowel marking and an unfilled pause both before and during the target form use.

Excerpt 4.39 (CA/G3/MT)

```
31 AH: picture three
32 TS: (3.3) er girl-u?
33 AH: hm [girl
34 TS: [a girl-u is-u (1.0) calling?
35 AH: calling.
```

In line 34 of Excerpt 4.40, EM makes a fairly lengthy unfilled pause before describing the hair colour of the character in her picture. As she seems to have mined the task model, it is possible that she used this time to refer to the model transcript before making her utterance. Regardless, this is another example of orientation towards form.

Excerpt 4.40 (CA/G8/MT)

31 TE: eh: right (.) boy (.) wear (..) plain?
 32 EM: plain t-shirt, (.) yes
 33 TE: hm:=
 34 EM: =er: (1.5) right side boy (3.5) has (.) dark hair

Excerpt 4.41 shows YN employing sound stretching, vowel making and a pause before she reformulates her utterance, and it is possibly a kind of self-correction. First, YN uses a contracted form of the present continuous, but when she repeats it, she enunciates the words separately and clearly. Here, as in the CT task, it seems YN is trying to produce something that matches the pre-taught target forms.

Excerpt 4.41 (CA/G5/MT)

18 YN: (2.0) yes (..) he::'s-u (1.0) he is wearing-u (1.2) stripe
 19 KJ: stripe?

More unfilled pausing, repetition, and vowel marking are shown by KJ in Excerpt 4.42. Significantly, the vowel marking is found on the auxiliary *be* verb of the present continuous construction.

Excerpt 4.42 (CA/G5/MT)

61 KJ: sing a song yes he- (0.9) he is-u wearing-u (.) border (0.9)
 62 pants
 63 YN: yes
 64 KJ: same?
 65 YN: same (..) number seven (1.5) *ato yon ko* {T:four more to go}

Finally, Excerpt 4.43 shows a reformulation of a *have* description. Again, this could be a kind of self-correction (he could be changing his utterance from a *have* to a *have got*), or it could be a false start caused by some uncertainty with the *have got* target form; regardless, overt signals of an orientation to form such as this show that KU is not *fully* focused on meaning, and that using the "correct" target form is important to him.

Excerpt 4.43 (CA/G9/MT)

98 KU: he has- he has got (.) white hair and white skin
 99 TK: yes he has (.) white (boy)

Although it is difficult to attribute many of the ubiquitous disfluencies found in the data set to a specific cause, there were some that suggested an overt orientation to producing the target forms,

which sporadically affected fluency. This effect, in isolation, could be seen as support for the argument against the explicit pre-teaching of forms as operationalised in Class A, although it must be counterbalanced against the potentially beneficial effects that such opportunities for practice might afford, a point that is returned to in Chapter 8.

4.2.2.3 Self-correction

As argued in 4.1.2.4, instances of self-correction are a reasonably strong indicator of a participant's current orientation. When a correction move occurs during the production of one of the target forms, it is a signal that the participant is oriented towards producing the language presented in the LFS. However, excessive attention to accurately producing these forms may drive the focus of the task away from meaning and have a negative impact on fluency. In this sub-section, I show a selection of examples which demonstrate the kinds of correction that occurred for the DP task.

In Excerpt 4.44, AS makes a self-correction while producing a present continuous description. Initially, AS utters a minimalised structure. The pause, the belated addition of the -ing morpheme, then the reformulation of her message demonstrates a clear orientation to form.

Excerpt 4.44 (CA/G1/MT)

```
56 AS: next
57 YS: next hehe
58 AS: @nine@ a woman drink (0.8) ing- is drinki:ng something? and (.)
59      walking?
```

A very similar self-correction is made by TS in Excerpt 4.45. Here, we can see a degree of hesitation before TS employs the target form, manifested by the stretched vowel sound in "he". After initially using the infinitive "sing", TS promptly makes a self-correction to make an accurate present continuous description.

Excerpt 4.45 (CA/G3/MT)

```
86 TS: and er he:: sing- HE is singing.
87 AH: singing!= singing
88 TS: =singing
```

Excerpt 4.46 shows MI beginning to make the description "she holds a bag". The sound stretching on "holds" indicates that MI is not sure, and, after a short pause, she decides to make a repair, using "has" as a replacement.

Excerpt 4.46 (CA/G2/MT)

```
53 HF: number seven (5.0) uh (7.0) girl
54 MI: yes
55 HF: girl:=
56 MI: =she ho:lds- (0.7) she has-u (.) a bag
57 HF: no no no no
```

Excerpt 4.47 shows AH making a self-correction on the copula *be*. After stretching the -s consonant sound, there is a short pause before she makes the repair, replacing the *be* with *has*.

Excerpt 4.47 (CA/G3/MT)

```
37 AH: hehe
38 TS: calling=
39 AH: =calling (1.5) she- (1.0) she- (..) she is: (1.0) SHE HAS-u
40      (2.0) black-u black hair
```

Some participants demonstrated an orientation to form by repeatedly making corrections when producing them. Participant GO was one such example. In Excerpt 4.48, GO begins by omitting the auxiliary from his present continuous TFU in line 1, and no attempt is made to repair it. Later, in line 8, he makes the same mistake, but this time he notices it and makes a self-correction. Some uncertainty with the utterance is evidenced by the hesitations, false starts, and vowel marking, although the initial hesitation seems due to the difficulty he has with the prepositional phrase "in his right hand".

Excerpt 4.48 (CA/G7/MT)

```
01 GO: picture one er (1.5) a man-n wearing-u (..) check shirt
02 EH: no check thi- this (.) picture (1.2) 'S-u man (.) wears stripe
03 GO: stripe?
04 EH: stripe
05 GO: not check?
06 EH: not check
07      (9.0)
08 GO: his (1.5) er: right hand- h-HE wearing-u- he's wearing-u eto wa-
09      watch-i (2.3) i- i- is his right hand?
```

In Excerpt 4.49, GO makes a self-correction on a present continuous description. Initially, GO uses "has", but this is changed to "is" in the reformulation. It is likely that GO was either going to make a description like "she has a top" or possibly "she has wearing a top". Either way, GO goes on to make a successful description of his picture.

Excerpt 4.49 (CA/G7/MT)

```
135 GO: nanka iu koto aru? {T:anything to say?} she has- SHE is wearing
136      top
137 EH: I think this picture is same.
138 GO: okay okay same
```

Excerpt 4.50 shows another self-correction by GO. Clearly, he is focused on adhering to the pre-taught forms. In lines 67-68, GO initially omits the *be* verb from his present continuous construction. The uncertainty is evidenced by the hesitations and repetitions prior to the description. However, he quickly fixes the problem to make a target-like utterance.

Excerpt 4.50 (CA/G7/MT)

67 GO: er fourth fourth picture (1.5) *eto* (.) boy- (.) the boy *eto*
68 listening-*u* (.) the boy is listening-*u* music
69 EH: ah! no no no no no
70 GO: *chau*
71 EH: *eto* (.) he is reading book so this picture is di- different

The next two excerpts show a pair of corrections made by participant TE. In Excerpt 4.51, TE begins his description using the minimalised construction "he wear". The sound stretching at the end indicates that TE realises something is amiss, and he corrects the utterance using a well-formed present continuous utterance.

Excerpt 4.51 (CA/G8/MT)

02 TE: =number one
03 (2.5)
04 EM: he's (.) wearing striped shirt
05 TE: yes (0.5) he wear: he is wearing striped shirt eh (1.0) he-

Excerpt 4.52 sees TE again making a self-correction. This time, however, the repair is on a *has* construction. There is much apparent uncertainty, evidence by the unfilled pauses, hesitation markers, and sound stretching. TE initially appears to use "she is" before making the repair and changing to the target-like "she has".

Excerpt 4.52 (CA/G8/MT)

45 EM: num[be:r three
46 TE: [number three
47 (11.0)
48 EM: she is calling someone
49 TE: yes (1.5) eh: sh:e (2.4) sh::e i- she has (.) phone (1.2) by
50 (1.7) er her: eh left hand

Excerpt 4.53 shows two more examples of corrections, this time made by participant TK. In this short excerpt from the beginning of the task (when the LFS was no doubt still fresh in TK's mind), TK essentially makes two recasts in lines 3 and 6. In the first instance, TK corrects the use of "a man stand" with the target present continuous "the man is standing". There is no obvious noticing of the first by KU, he merely continues with the task in line 5. In the second instance, KU makes the same mistake, saying "he wear a watch", however, this time TK just corrects the omitted 3rd person -s to make "he wears a watch". It is interesting that in the remainder of the task TK uses *wear* a further five times but never with present continuous, perhaps being influenced by KU's use of the present simple *wear*.

Excerpt 4.53 (CA/G9/MT)

01 TK: okay let's start, (.) number one
02 KU: ah a man (.) stand-o (.) er man- man near the (.) tree
03 TK: okay the- the bo- the man (.) is standing near the tree?, an:d
04 they- HE=
05 KU: =he- he wear (.) the watch
06 TK: yes, he wears a watch
07 KU: right hand
08 TK: yes right hand .hh and he wears (.) a stripe shirt.

As the above excerpts show, self- and other-correction moves can provide fairly overt signals of the direction of participant orientation. While recognising the caveat that this cannot be applied to all the participants, once again it appears that the pre-task teaching of forms had some impact on where participants focused their attention, and this was often towards producing the target forms. Naturally, this occasionally has consequences for fluency, and it is entirely reasonable to argue, from one point of view, that the pre-task LFS actually had a detrimental effect on the task performance.

4.2.2.4 Mining from the task model

There were several instances where participants seemed to have lifted language directly from the task model. Such behaviour is a clear example of the regurgitation of forms which Skehan (1998) claimed to be contradictory to the very essence of what tasks should be. As mentioned above with regard to the CT task data, without video it was difficult to identify all incidences of mining, but some of the more demonstrable examples are presented here.

There were three examples of corrections that were seemingly made with reference to the task model. The first can be seen in Excerpt 4.54, in which TS appears to consider the utterance "he's wearing a cap" as undesirable. TS self-corrects, replacing the present continuous construction with an accurate use of *have*. This self-correction is probably due to the same usage in the language focus materials where, in the model conversation, one speaker says "he has a[...]baseball cap". This is a strong indication that TS was orienting towards the target forms and had mined the model for exemplars of their possible use.

Excerpt 4.54 (CA/G3/MT)

147 TS: he- (1.5) he: (3.5) he's wearing-u (1.6) *nanchara* {T:something}
148 he has a (.) cap
149 AH: cap?
150 TS: cap

Excerpts 4.55 and 4.56 closely mirror the way *have got* was used in the task model. Excerpt 4.55 shows EM recasting TE's incorrect attempt to make the same description with the unfilled pause in line 53 suggesting some kind of word search before the recast. Excerpt 4.56 shows an example of an unnecessary self-correction, in which EM corrects *has* with *has got* when describing hair length. EM does this in an apparent attempt to display her correct use of the latter target form. In the task model, there is the description of "she has got long hair". Throughout the rest of this task, EM used *has* to

make descriptions on seven other occasions. It was only in the two instances she described hair length that she used *has got*. It is possible that EM has inferred from the model that hair length and *has got* have a strong collocational bond.

Excerpt 4.55 (CA/G8/MT)

52 TE: =she is black hair
53 EM: yes (1.2) she has got (.) short hair

Excerpt 4.56 (CA/G8/MT)

127 EM: he has- er *chau chau chau* he has got (.) short hair.

As well as these corrections, there were other clear examples of mining in the data. EM is seen again using the model in lines 131-132 of Excerpt 4.57. Here, again, there is a certain amount of hesitancy before producing "he has a hat like baseball cap". These are the exact words used in the model, and it seems highly likely that EM has again referred to the model to produce the target forms.

Excerpt 4.57 (CA/G8/MT)

131 TE: hehe eleven (2.9) he has (1.5) something
132 EM: yes hehe (1.4) she (2.3) ah s-he has a (1.9) hat like baseball
133 cap
134 TE: no he don't (.) wear (.) cap.

Another can be seen in line 67 of Excerpt 4.58, in which YS is trying to describe a boy who is wearing a cap. The hesitation markers give an indication of a word search, and, in the end, he produces an utterance remarkably similar to the model's "he has a hat[...]like a baseball cap". It seems likely that he has lifted this directly from the LFS materials and incorporated it into his task performance.

Excerpt 4.58 (CA/G1/MT)

67 AS: next hehe eleven hm a boy have (1.0) hehe something
68 YS: something
69 AS: hehe right hand.
70 YS: un yes
71 AS: hm:
72 YS: er he has (.) a (1.0) cap (2.0) like baseball cap?

While not seen universally among the Class A participants, this kind of mining was prevalent throughout the data set for both tasks. Previously, Willis and Willis (2007) have described the virtues of learners mining pre-task materials for useful language. However, it is unlikely that they were referring to the copying of large chunks of language, or learners simply reading sections of scripts. The data set suggests that some participants' orientation was drawn away from meaning when they were reading from the task model, although others may argue that it was providing more controlled practice for participants.

4.2.2.5 Case analyses

As alluded to above, while there appeared to be a general orientation to meaning and task completion in all of Class A's task performances, there were also regular periodic pivots towards a form orientation. However, the degree to which these orientation shifts occurred was not uniform across all the pair performances or indeed within the dyads. In this section, I present a detailed analysis of two group cases, one of which contained more evidence of an overall form orientation than the other. Using the same colour coding system as earlier, I hope to further illustrate both the individual differences on show and the methods of analysis of this study with regard to orientation in response to the pre-teaching of linguistic forms.

There is one important caveat to consider when looking at the following analysis, which was that it was often very difficult to ascertain the true orientation of the participants. I have coded accurate uses of the target forms as being form-oriented episodes, but, of course, this might not have always been the case with those participants who already had some implicit knowledge of the target forms, and it is likely that some more meaning-oriented utterances are subsumed. The reason I have done this is that the participants had the materials on hand to refer to if they chose to do so, and if they made errors, then I contend that this shows a distinct orientation elsewhere — towards conveying meaning. Therefore, this coding decision was taken to highlight those instances of non-target-like use and orientation away from target forms.

Group 5 case analysis — An overtly form-oriented group

The prominence of green in the first segment of the task transcript shows the apparent overriding orientation to meaning. Indeed, there are three sequences of meaning negotiation (lines 8-11, 13-17, 18-22, and 27-30) in this short segment. Further, throughout the task, the language used to organise their task performance indicates a predominant orientation to task and meaning exchange. In the description of the first picture, YN omits the auxiliary from her present continuous description (line 4), despite having just completed the LFS, indicating a meaning orientation. On the other hand, KJ is a little hesitant with the corresponding description (line 5), but she is ultimately accurate, and this may indicate an orientation to form. In fact, KJ made no errors with present continuous throughout the task, so it is possible that she was already proficient with this form. However, YN's next present continuous description (line 18) is preceded by unfilled pauses, sound stretching, vowel marking, and a false start/reformulation; and this time she is accurate. The cumulative implication of these factors is of a form-orientation here.

```
01 KJ: let's start
02 YN: start eh number one
03 KJ: un {T:yes}
04 YN: number one boy wearing-u (.) eh stripe- shirt
05 KJ: no no [he- he (.) is wearing check shirt
06 YN: [are? {T:what}
07 YN: maru tsuketara ii no? {T:do I draw a circle?}
08 KJ: this this picture is (.) diffi- different different
09 YN: diffi- different
```

10 KJ: hehe
 11 YN: difficult to iu {T:you say}
 12 KJ: uh number two
 13 YN: hai {T:yes}
 14 KJ: they- (3.0) this situation is (2.5) conversa- con- nantoiu?
 15 {T:how do I say that?}
 16 YN: conversation
 17 KJ: converSATION?
 18 YN: (2.0) yes (...) he::'s-u (1.0) he is wearing-u (1.2) stripe
 19 KJ: stripe?
 20 YN: yoko XXX {T:horizontal xxx}
 21 KJ: border
 22 YN: border
 23 (3.5)
 24 KJ: XXX one person eh? he- eto left person is (3.5) eh? ki-kin kin?
 25 {T:gold} gold hair
 26 YN: yes (1.5) right boys ka girls (.) is wearing black shirt
 27 KJ: eh boys?
 28 YN: boy ka
 29 KJ: boy he boy boy
 30 YN: boy
 31 KJ: he- he is short- short hair
 32 YN: yes (...) issho ka? {T:same}

In lines 37-38, KJ shows that she is trying to be accurate in her production of a *have* description (although it is a negative structure which was not covered in the LFS), indicated by three self-corrections of the structure. Elsewhere, there are two more examples each of accurate present continuous descriptions by KJ (lines 35 and 47) and YN (lines 36 and 43-44, both with a degree of hesitancy). At the end of this segment, YN reformulates "different" to make a complete clause "it's different", displaying an underlying orientation to accuracy more generally, and not only when producing target forms.

33 KJ: number three
 34 YN: number three
 35 KJ: she- she is calling
 36 YN: yes sh:- (.) she: is wearing one piece
 37 KJ: yes she don't have (2.5) hehe eh right hand? hehe he don't have-
 38 HE don't have- ah doesn't have (2.0) right hand.
 39 (4.0)
 40 KJ: XXX *migi te nai* {T:he doesn't have a right hand}
 41 YN: ah *nai* (1.0) *nai wa:* hehe *kowai* {T:it's not there, scary}
 42 KJ: ah the [same
 43 YN: [(*issho*) {T:same} number four er:: this boy (1.0) is
 44 reading book
 45 KJ: no no
 46 YN: hm?
 47 KJ: he- he is listening (.) to music.
 48 YN: oo
 49 KJ: different
 50 YN: different- it's different

In the next segment, KJ demonstrates her continued sporadic orientation to form. One way this is manifested is some hesitation followed by accurate production of present continuous descriptions

(lines 53, 61, and 78). Perhaps most revealing is the self-correction KJ makes in line 78, in which she initially omits the subject ("he") from her description, only to reformulate it to produce a complete clause as practised in the LFS. There is also some evidence of a more general orientation to accuracy as she makes self-corrections of gender pronouns on three occasions (lines 53, 66, and 68).

YN also shows a shift to a form-orientation on a pair of occasions while producing an accurate present continuous description (line 58) and a *have* description (line 71). However, in line 75, YN makes an erroneous present continuous description, this time omitting both the auxiliary and *-ing* morphemes. The four-second pause before the verb phrase suggests some uncertainty, possibly with understanding the picture, and while her resources are directed towards deciphering the picture, she does not produce a target-like utterance.

Despite these regular shifts in orientation to form, there was also a pair of examples, in lines 54 and 66, where the pair described some background details unconnected to the forms from the LFS. These, along with the language that gives the interaction its shape, demonstrate a meaning-focused base to the task interaction.

52 YN: number five
53 KJ: he- she- sh- she is wearing dot shirt and skirt.
54 YN: yes this weathy is sunny.
55 KJ: yes yes (.) same?
56 YN: same
57 KJ: same
58 YN: number six (1.5) this boy (.) is singing-u (..) song.
59 KJ: sing song
60 YN: sing song
61 KJ: sing a song yes he- (0.9) he is-u wearing-u (..) border (0.9)
62 pants
63 YN: yes
64 KJ: same?
65 YN: same (..) number seven (1.5) ato yon ko {T:four more to go}
66 KJ: he- she- she is- (..) it's (1.5) it's raining.
67 YN: yes
68 KJ: he: has-u (..) ah she ka? she has-u (..) umbrella
69 YN: umbrella? no
70 KJ: no?
71 YN: she ha- (1.0) s-u a black (.) bag
72 KJ: no no no
73 YN: oh: (..) it's different
74 KJ: different (1.0) next (1.0) number eight
75 YN: yeah (1.0) this girl-u (4.0) eat ice cream
76 KJ: no no
77 YN: eh?
78 KJ: he i:s (.) walking has- he has bag
79 YN: are? {T:what} bag no bag
80 KJ: EIGHT number eight!
81 YN: eight? ah eight? hehe
82 KJ: number eight
83 YN: machigaeta sore wa awahen {T:I made a mistake, they didn't match}
84 KJ: hehe
85 YN: wa {T:TOPIC MARKER} hehe bag bag
86 KJ: bag bag same same
87 YN: same

The final segment of this case analysis shows two further examples of an orientation to form. In line 101, KJ begins to use a *has* description, but changes her mind with minimum hesitation and uses present continuous to describe what the character is wearing. It is noteworthy that KJ stresses the *is* in the reformulation, displaying that she is now producing the correct form. Later, in line 108, YN makes a self-correction to produce an accurate *has* description. Initially, YN uses a possessive "his", but the vowel marking and sound stretching give an indication of uncertainty before the repair was made. We can speculate that when YN began with *his*, she was influenced by the previous turn of KJ, who also made a self-correction (although not on a target form) changing "he" to "his".

This segment also features instances of the learners using their own resources. In addition to the usual talk to organise the task, there is a background description using existential *there* (line 99), showing that not all descriptions simply followed language presented in the LFS.

```

88 KJ: next nine
89 YN: nine (1.0) she eat ice cream
90 KJ: no
91 YN: no?
92 KJ: she is drinking.
93 YN: ooh! it's different.
94 KJ: different
95 (2.0)
96 YN: number ten
97 KJ: number ten
98 YN: the bo:y (..) is wearing border shirt
99 KJ: yes yes (2.0) eto there are (1.5) two (..) butterfly
100 YN: yes
101 KJ: he: (..) he has- eh ja he IS-u wearing-u (..) half pants
102 YN: yes
103 KJ: same
104 YN: same! number eleven,
105 KJ: hm::
106 YN: this boy: has-u suitou {T:a flask}
107 KJ: yes (1.0) uh he:- he hair- his hair is black
108 YN: yes (..) his-u:: he: he has-u (..) a cap
109 KJ: no no
110 YN: eh? chigau? {T:it's different?}
111 KJ: [different
112 YN: [it's different

```

The case analysis for Group 5 shows that both participants regularly demonstrated an orientation to the target forms. However, what is also clear is that almost all of the interaction is carried out in the target L2, and much of it is meaning and task oriented.

Group 6 case analysis — A less form-oriented group

To exemplify the lack of orientation to form in this group, it is not really necessary to show the task in full, so only the first five picture descriptions are included. The one thing that is quite striking is the lack of accuracy with the present continuous. Given that the LFS had just been completed, I propose that the lack of accuracy indicates an orientation more towards meaning than forms. Even if the

participants' ability to spontaneously produce the target forms was limited, they could have used the LFS materials as a crutch if they had so desired and were oriented that way.

The first segment shows the descriptions for the first two pictures. The early focus on background objects such as trees and clouds (lines 2 and 3) suggests the pair are not wholly oriented towards reproducing the LFS forms. KK does use *have* accurately three times (lines 1, 11, and 12), which may indicate some orientation to form, but the lack of disfluencies or other signals leave us with little evidence. After the lengthy pause in line 8, KK makes an accurate present continuous description; the pause (during which he has time to turn his attention back to the target forms) and the false start suggest an orientation to form. There are three more opportunities to make a present continuous description (lines 6, 16 and 18), but KK uses a minimalised structure each time. YI does not make any target-like descriptions and tends to rely on lexis alone (lines 4-5 and 17) or other minimalised structures (line 15).

01 KK: he has black hair
 02 YI: yeah. eh: there are (..) big tree.
 03 KK: yeah yeah yeah e's behind. (1.5) and- and-o (2.5) cloud
 04 YI: hai hai hai (1.0) er: (2.0) ri- right-o r:right-o wa- right-o
 05 (le-) (nan) {T:what} wa- watch
 06 KK: ah! wrist hehe ah yes yes ah he wear striped shirt.
 07 YI: yeah yeah yeah
 08 (12.0 WITH SOME WHISPERING)
 09 KK: they- they are talking.
 10 YI: yeah:
 11 KK: right people has-u ((COPIES NEIGHBOURING STUDENT)) ah ri- right
 12 boy hehe right boy has a black-u or brown ha- ah hair
 13 YI: oh:
 14 KK: left boy uh: maybe (..) gold hair.
 15 YI: uh uh er left-o lefts boy (2.0) eh left-o hand up
 16 KK: yes yes uh left- le- left boy wear (1.0) bor- order shirt.
 17 YI: yeah. right right boy eh::: (1.5) smile
 18 KK: yeah hehe ah ri- right boy wear::s black (shirt)
 19 YI: hm hm:
 20 KK: same
 21 YI: hm

In the next segment, covering pictures three to five, the pair again appear to be mostly orientating to meaning. While YI makes two hesitant yet accurate target form uses in lines 23 and 39, which suggest a shift in orientation towards form, he also makes a minimalised description in line 26. Further, there is more minimalisation in KK's descriptions found in lines 22, 24, 31, and 37. As alluded to above, the lack of accuracy alone may not directly demonstrate an orientation to meaning; however, the fact that the participants make different kinds of mistakes (thus, it is unlikely to be due to them believing they are saying the correct form as might be the case if, for example, a participant used a present simple structure consistently), and that the participants have access to the LFS materials which they finished looking at moments earlier, does suggest a genuine orientation towards meaning exchange to complete the task. They do not appear to be using the task as a vehicle to practise the target forms to the same extent as Group 1.

22 KK: er number three (5.5) this girl calling.
 23 YI: yeah (...) er (2.0) she: (1.0) she has (...) black eye
 24 KK: yes (1.5) ah: (4.0) hair (...) too. (1.5) black hair.
 25 (5.0)
 26 YI: she wear (1.5) wa- one piece.
 27 KK: hm maybe=
 28 YI: =or skirt
 29 KK: hehe
 30 (4.0)
 31 KK: (different) (1.5) uh: number four, he- he reads-o (...) book
 32 YI: no
 33 KK: oh
 34 YI: oh
 35 KK: hehe
 36 (4.5)
 37 KK: ah (...) number five, (3.0) she wears dot shirt (...) and white
 38 skirt
 39 YI: yeah (...) eh (...) she- she is (.) smiling.
 40 KK: yes uh:: (4.5) sun is (bright) hehe
 41 YI: hehe
 42 KK: hehe
 43 (14.0)
 44 KK: ah maybe same.
 45 YI: hm

4.2.2.6 Summary

In this qualitative analysis of the DP task, I have shown the features present in the task interaction that indicated an orientation towards reproducing the target forms from the LFS. The single instance of metatalk was revealing, but the plentiful examples of disfluency markers, correction moves, and mining show that, in a similar manner to the CT task, the pre-teaching of forms apparently had an impact on participant orientation.

The case analyses provide a vital window into the fluid and dynamic nature of participant orientations. They suggest that individual differences between participants resulted in quite different approaches to the task and that even an individual's orientation was transient, shifting in focus as the task progressed. Even those participants who regularly demonstrated some attention to the target forms were still orienting to meaning and task for the majority of their task performances.

4.2.3 Repeat tasks

In this section, I present the findings from the DP repeat task and offer a comparison with the main task completed one week earlier. As with the CT task, I first describe the holistic results through a quantitative analysis. The inherent nature of the DP task — the large number of TFOs, the grammatical nature of the target forms, and the higher degree of task-essentialness — allows for an analysis of accuracy rather than simply the presence of target forms, which was the case for the CT task. This holistic analysis is followed by a look at some individual cases, to shed light on how individual participants supplied forms during the TFOs in the two performances.

4.2.3.1 Holistic findings

A holistic view of the data comparing the main and repeat task performances is shown in Table 4.8. Two participants were absent for the repeat performance, so their data for the main performance are not considered here; therefore, only data showing 20 of the 22 participants are included in this discussion. Over the two tasks, there was a comparable number of descriptions made, as shown by the remarkably similar numbers for TFOs. However, within these, there were some notable differences between the two tasks. One involved the way the present continuous was used to make descriptions, with fewer examples of actual uses in the repeat performance; further, when it was used, there was a distinct decrease in the percentage of accurate utterances. There was an increase in the number of *have (got)* descriptions; seemingly, participants were often selecting these forms in place of present continuous where possible, although with this increase in frequency came a slight drop in accuracy. Regarding minimalisation, the proportion of TFUs that contained minimalised structures increased from 32.7% to 46.2%; the number of TFOs for which the target form could not be determined due to minimalisation increased from 13 to 28; and there was a higher degree of minimalisation in present continuous forms, as shown by the drop in the completion rate from 84.2% to 72.6%. Finally, the frequency of alternative statements was much the same over the two tasks; that is, they were still only used relatively rarely.

Table 4.8
Target forms use in the main and repeat DP tasks for Class A participants (n=20)

	Total TFUs	TFU Acc (%)	PC TFUs	PC Acc (%)	H(G) TFUs	H(G) Acc (%)	UTF	Min	CR (%)	Alt
Main task	330	62.1	209	60.3	108	76.9	13	108 (32.7%)	84.2	21
Repeat task	333	47.1	174	36.2	131	71.8	28	154 (46.2%)	72.6	23

Notes. Acc = Accuracy; PC = present continuous; UTF = unclear target form; H(G) = have (got); Min = minimalised structures; CR = completion rate of present continuous structures; Alt = alternative description using *be*.

It might be assumed that participants who oriented strongly towards form in the initial task would either maintain some level of accuracy in the repeat task and/or give some signal of a lingering orientation towards producing the target forms. A look at how individuals performed over the two tasks reveals some commonalities as well as some striking differences, as shown in Table 4.9. This table shows the number of times participants attempted to use the target forms, and how accurately they did so. Thirteen of the 20 participants suffered an overall loss of accuracy in the repeat task — some of them quite substantially — but seven actually made (albeit mostly small) gains from the first task.

Table 4.9

TFUs and accuracy for the main and repeat DP tasks for individual Class A participants

Participant	Main performance		Repeat performance		Accuracy change
	TFUs	Accuracy (%)	TFUs	Accuracy (%)	
AH	20	80	9	78	-2
AK	13	54	23	35	-19
AS	17	47	19	16	-31
EM	19	95	16	88	-7
EH	8	38	16	25	-13
GO	22	77	21	81	+4
HF	8	38	25	12	-26
KU	30	43	19	16	-27
KJ	14	86	10	60	-26
MI	14	43	13	62	+19
MM	19	47	18	50	+3
MK	16	94	19	95	+1
TW	15	93	10	80	-13
TE	18	83	12	23	-60
TK	25	40	34	41	+1
TS	18	72	12	50	-22
YI	13	38	13	8	-31
YN	13	77	14	43	-34
YK	15	27	13	23	-4
YS	13	85	16	94	+9

These holistic results suggest that any lasting effect of the pre-LFS was limited for the accurate use of present continuous for making descriptions. It does suggest, however, that it may have been more effective for *have (got)*, as only a small decrease in accuracy was found. The increase in the proportion of *have (got)* uses might be indicative of a tendency for the participants to select that form, although the picture is somewhat muddled when the number of highly minimalised structures are considered, some of which may have been realised as *have (got)* structures in the previous week or by more proficient speakers.

4.2.3.2 Case analyses

The quantitative data in Table 4.9 suggest a good deal of variation in the way the target forms were used over the two tasks. Participants clearly had different proficiencies with the linguistic demands of the task, and they appeared to vary in their orientation. For example, MK seemed to be fairly proficient with the target forms: she had an overall accuracy of 94% and 95% in main and repeat tasks respectively, and her actual number of TFOs remained steady. The high accuracy in the first task might suggest a strong orientation towards form, but a closer look revealed few overt signals of a form-orientation: no clear evidence of mining, no use of *have got*, and only a single self-correction on a target form. While she may very well have been orienting towards form in the main task, it is difficult to say with any confidence given the lack of signals. In the repeat task, her delivery of descriptions was very similar to the main task, and overall it appears that MK was fairly comfortable

using the target forms from the beginning and could relatively easily retrieve them over both tasks. As an illustration of this, Box 4.5 shows four roughly corresponding descriptions made in the two task performances.

Box 4.5

Descriptions by Class A participant MK in the main and repeat DP tasks

Main task	Repeat task
M1 she has black (.) hair,	R1 she has-u (1.0) black hair
M2 hm:: she is eating ice cream.	R2 and I think he is (.) drinking
M3 she is wearing-u dotted shirt,	R3 he's wearin:g border shirt
M4 she (...) has (...) watch	R4 sh:e has-u the bag

On the other hand, some participants were accurate over both tasks, yet they were more overtly oriented to form in the main task. As shown earlier in Excerpt 4.61, 4.62, and 4.64, in the main task, EM overtly oriented towards target form production, evidenced by self-corrections and mining of the task model on three occasions, and she was able to use the target forms with a 95% accuracy. In the repeat task, this figure dropped only slightly to 88%, and she made three target-form-focused self-corrections, suggesting that she was still oriented towards the target forms. As shown in (1) and (2) of Box 4.6, EM uses "has" to make accurate descriptions during her repeat task performance, but, as she begins to make another description in (4), she reformulates and employs "he's got" in an apparent display of her ability to use the alternative target form.

Box 4.6

Descriptions by Class A participant EM in the DP repeat task

Example	Description
(1)	she has a (...) black- (1.0) black hair?
(2)	eh: (1.0) he has (.) plain (1.0) bottom?
(3)	sh:- he has uh? (1.0) sh- (1.5) she's wearing-u check shirt
(4)	and he has::- (...) he's got (1.0) plain shirt and tie and plain (1.0) pants bottom?

Another example of EM's continuing orientation to form can be seen in a rare example of peer correction of her partner, shown in Excerpt 4.59. In line 30, YK uses present simple to describe the character's activity. Instead of simply saying she has the same picture, EM's response is like a recast, supplying a more target-like description. For EM, it seems the forms covered in the previous week's pre-task LFS are still being oriented towards, and this repeat task offers a further chance for practice.

Excerpt 4.59 (CA/G3/RT)

30 YK: boys-u reads a (.) book
 31 EM: boy (.) has (.) a book
 32 YK: book

As illustrated above in Excerpt 4.52 to 4.56, GO exhibited a similar pattern to EM, making six target-form-focused self-corrections in the initial task. His accuracy actually increased from 77% to 81% in the repeat performance, although the overt signals of some orientation to form are based on unnecessary self-corrections that both result in inaccurate descriptions. Box 4.7 shows two such examples where the supply of present continuous was required, yet GO elected to use present simple to make the descriptions, therefore, they were classed as inaccurate.

Box 4.7

Descriptions by Class A participant GO in the DP repeat task

Description
(1) he:- (...) he'S wearing- HE wears (1.5) bor- border pants
(2) eh: he is- (1.0) he's- he is- (...) he enjoys singing.

There were some that performed well in the main task, but their accuracy substantially decreased during the repeat task. For example, TE went from 83% to 23%, KJ from 86% to 60%, and YN from 77% to 43%. In the main task, TE gave an indication of being somewhat oriented towards form with two self-corrections on the target forms (Excerpt 4.56 and 4.57), as well as three more off-target self-corrections. However, one week later, as well as a large drop in accuracy, he gave no signal of orienting towards form, and his accuracy suffered greatly. It seems that for a participant like TE, an explicit orientation to form was necessary to use the target forms with a reasonable level of accuracy. Box 4.8 displays two pairs of roughly corresponding descriptions made by TE over the two tasks, illustrating the kind of change seen in his target form use.

Box 4.8

Descriptions by Class A participant TE in the main and repeat CT tasks

Main task	Repeat task
M1 he wear: he is wearing striped shirt	R1 the ma:n wear check shirt
M2 she has:: dot shirt	R2 dot- (.) wear dot shirt

These findings reflect the individually determined nature of the interactional features under examination that has become a theme of this thesis so far. Rather than seeing a consistent pattern of orientation during tasks and evidence of learning, it appears that individual differences are an important navigator of the participants' routes through their task performances.

4.2.3.3 Summary

In summary, the data for the repeat task performances showed that they contained a remarkably similar number of descriptions as the main task. They also revealed a clear decrease in the number of accurate descriptions using the target forms, especially for present continuous. It also seems that some participants avoided present continuous on occasions and elected to use *have (got)* instead. It is clear

that the participants did not act in a uniform manner, and, once more, individual differences could be seen to influence the task outcomes. Even one week later, and without any reference to the LFS materials, some participants still displayed an orientation towards producing the target forms. Conversely, others appeared to no longer have the contents of the LFS on their mind, and they attended purely to meaning and task completion, resulting in less accurate production of the target forms.

4.3 UPTAKE REPORTS

In this section, I describe the results from the uptake reports that the participants completed at the end of the instructional sequence containing the main task. Participants were asked to report any linguistic items (divided into three categories of *grammar*, *words or phrases*, and *pronunciation*) they had noticed or paid attention to during the lesson, the source from which they noticed them, and whether the forms were new to them. They were free to select items from the schema-building activities, the main task, or the language focus stage.

As Table 4.10 shows, there were 95 reported items (mean=4.8) for the CT task. Nineteen of the twenty participants reported uptake of at least one of the target suggestions. Grammar items made up just over half of the total (52.6%), followed by vocabulary (38.9%) and pronunciation (8.4%). All but two of the grammar items reported were from the LFS, and, while eight of the vocabulary items were examples of LFS meta-language such as *verb phrase* and *noun*, most were types of films (e.g. sci-fi, romance), which were mentioned during the listing task from the pre-task activities. In total, 58 of the 95 items (61.1%) were related to language originating in the LFS. As discussed later in Chapter 5 and 6, this proportion of LFS-related items was greater than in the other classes. Regarding the source from which these items were noticed, the overwhelming majority of items were reported to be from the teacher and materials; the participants claimed just over 10% to be from fellow students.

Table 4.10
Types and sources of items from the Class A uptake reports

Number of reported items									
Language point						Source			
	G	V	P	total	mean	T	S	M	Total
CT task	50 (52.6%)	37 (38.9%)	8 (8.4%)	95	4.8	47 (49.5%)	10 (10.5%)	36 (37.9%)	93
DP task	37 (52.8%)	12 (17.1%)	21 (30.0%)	70	3.2	36 (38.7%)	10 (10.8%)	47 (50.5%)	93

Notes. G = Grammar; V = vocabulary; P = pronunciation; T = teacher; S = student; M = materials.

There were 70 items (mean=3.2) reported for the DP task, which, as shown later, was somewhat lower than seen in Class C and D. As with the CT task, just over half were grammar items. All of these were target forms from the LFS, and most were sourced from the teacher and materials. Although three of the vocabulary items were linked to the LFS, the remainder were words that could be used for

describing the pictures such as *cigarette*, *dark hair*, and *stripe*. The pronunciation items were mainly focused on two words — *height* and *trousers*. In total, 40 of the 70 (57.1%) reported items were directly connected to the target forms presented in the LFS, a much higher proportion than seen in the other classes. As with the CT task, the participants cited the source of most items as being the teacher or materials; again, only around 10% were from their peers.

Table 4.11 shows a breakdown of the specific target forms that were reported for the CT task, and whether they were cited as new language. The most commonly reported were *how/what about* and *it might be good*, with *why don't we* and *we could* following. Many participants claimed that these phrases were new to them.⁸ Indeed, *it might be good* was one form that seemed to cause noticeable disfluencies when produced in the task interaction (see Excerpt 4.10, 4.12, and 4.23). *Let's* and *shall we* were noticeably less frequent, and only one participant reported that they were new.

Table 4.11

Individual target forms reported by Class A for the CT task

	how/what about...	it might be good...	let's...	shall we...	we could...	why don't we...	Total
Reported	15	13	3	1	6	9	47
New	6	10	0	0	3	3	22

Table 4.12 shows which of the three target forms were reported by the Class A participants for the DP task. The form *have got* was reported most often, with many of those participants stating that it was new for them. This finding supports the assertion made above that uses of *have got* were examples of an orientation to target form production.

Table 4.12

Individual target forms reported by Class A for the DP task

	present continuous	have	have got
Reported	12	6	16
New	6	3	12

To summarise, it appears that when the Class A participants reflected on the lesson, it was language from the LFS that they tended to remember rather than items that appeared during their task interaction. This supports the interaction data which suggested a consistent orientation to form resulting from the LFS. However, there were also a number of non-LFS related items reported implying that the participants were amenable to further input from sources other than the LFS.

⁸ In the case of *how/what about*, the interaction data would indicate that it was probably the latter that was new; indeed, one Class A participant actually reported that they learned "what & how have same usage".

4.4 CLASS A FINDINGS REVIEW

Over the course of two task cycles, the participants of Class A performed two different task types which were repeated one week later with new partners and partially updated content. Prior to each main task, they completed pre-task activities and then received explicit instruction of some target forms concluded to be useful for conveying key meanings in the ensuing task. Some previous discussion in the relevant research and pedagogically-focused literature (see section 2.3) has suggested that conducting this kind of pre-task teaching of linguistic forms carries the very real risk of undermining the meaning-focused nature of a communicative task. It has been argued that learners' attention may be directed towards form, and the *task* will be reduced to a simple *exercise*, a vehicle for controlled practice; alternatively, learners might simply disregard the forms presented to them, and proceed with the task using forms of their own choosing, thus rendering the pre-teaching pointless and a waste of valuable lesson time.

The data for both the CT and the DP tasks show quite clearly that participants did not completely ignore the target forms, but it is certainly true that some were less oriented towards their production than others. This active use was perhaps seen more easily in the CT task data where all of the participants used the target suggestion phrases at some point, and the task did not demand their use in the same way as the DP task did for its associated target forms. Indeed, the high degree of task-essentialness for the latter task made it quite difficult for participants to avoid attempting the target forms.

The data also show that most participants rather deliberately attended to form, possibly a result of the pre-task teaching. There were a number of features present in the task interaction that suggest a consistent, though sometimes fleeting, orientation to form throughout the main task performances. However, the individual group and participant analyses reveal that this was not uniform. In fact, there was a great deal of difference in the extent to which participants apparently oriented towards form or not, and these individual differences may have had a stronger influence on task outcomes than the position of the LFS itself. The same pattern can be seen in the data for the repeat tasks. While overall the frequency of use — along with accuracy — decreased in the repeat tasks, this very much depended on individual participants and groupings. For example, some that oriented to form in the main task used the target forms more successfully in the repeat task, though this was not the case for all participants. The theme of individual difference emerges as a fundamental point as this thesis progresses, and I return to it in reference to Class A in the Chapter 8 discussion.

CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS — CLASS B

In this chapter, I present the findings from the task interaction analysis of the participants in Class B, who received explicit instruction of the target forms during a break in the middle of their task performance.

With the resistance to the pre-teaching of forms by some researchers and practitioners working within a task-based approach, one alternative that has been proposed is to include some kind of instruction *during* the task performance (Samuda, 2001). It has been claimed that once learners begin a task, they become more aware of the gaps in their L2 knowledge and the kind of linguistic forms they might need to perform the task more successfully. While this proposal sounds reasonable, it is still vulnerable to some of the same criticisms faced by a pre-task approach, namely that in the task interaction that follows the intervention, learners will no longer focus on meaning but will simply regurgitate the taught forms. In this chapter, I explore the effect of a during-task explicit teaching stage on the task interaction that took place around it and in the repeat task one week later.

Before describing the results for Class B, it is useful to restate how the during-task approach was operationalised in the data collection lessons, and how this affects the description of the results. Unlike the other groups, the main task performance consisted of two separate phases situated before and after the LFS. The pre-LFS phase was exactly two minutes long, after which time all participants were asked to stop the task, and the LFS began. Following the instruction, the post-LFS phase proceeded in the same manner as Class A, C, and D, in which participants continued until the task was completed. Because of this feature, much of the discussion in this chapter will describe how the LFS affected the interaction that ensued during the post-LFS phase of the task performances, and how participants' orientation changed from the pre-LFS phase.

I begin by discussing the findings from the CT tasks in section 5.1, followed by the *describing people* task in section 5.2. As in Chapter 4, I first show some holistic patterns found in the task interactions with quantitative data, before giving a fuller account using a qualitative analysis. To avoid repetition, I do not describe a large number of the disfluency features as I did for Class A, although some are highlighted as they appear. Instead, I try to show how the LFS intervention changed individual learners' and groups' approaches to discussing the specific topics inherent to the tasks. As in Chapter 4, the qualitative analysis is followed by a description of the data collected from the repeat tasks. In section 5.3, I present the data collected from the uptake reports.

5.1 CINEMA TRIP TASKS

In this section, I describe the data collected from the CT task interactions. On the day of the data collection for the main task, 18 of a possible 21 participants were present; therefore, the task was completed by six groups of three participants each. The presentation of the data is divided into three parts: First, I outline the quantitative findings which show the frequency, type, and distribution of the target forms within the task performances; second, through a qualitative analysis, I give a detailed description of the way the LFS influenced participant orientation using a single group case along with

an examination of how a specific topic was discussed during both the pre- and post-LFS phases by all six groups; finally, I present the data from the repeat task, using both quantitative and qualitative analyses.

5.1.1 Holistic analysis

5.1.1.1 Frequency of target form use

The pre- and post-LFS phase quantitative data are shown in Table 5.1. In the pre-LFS phase, which was a fixed two-minute period, there were only 25 TFOs, and of these, only two TFUs (both instances of *let's*) were present. In the post-LFS phase, the number of TFOs increased to 69, of which 41 (59.4%) were filled using the target forms. While this percentage was much higher than the pre-LFS phase, as would be expected, it was lower than the overall proportion of 77.0% of the 74 TFOs seen in Class A (see Table 4.1). In the post-LFS phase, all but one of the 18 participants used at least one target suggestion (mean=2.3), with two of these post-LFS phase TFUs containing a small error in use. Overall, with regard to production of the target forms in the post-LFS phase, it appears that the participants reacted in a somewhat similar way to their counterparts in Class A, but with a lower share of their TFOs being filled by the target forms.

Minimalised forms featured strongly in both phases of the task, with the proportion of minimalised structures not discernibly decreasing following the LFS — 28% to 23.2%. Preference statements (all using "I want") were the most common way of filling a TFO in the first part of the task, accounting for 56% of the TFOs. This proportion dropped substantially in the post-LFS phase to 15.9%. These two features of the post-LFS phase interactions are the main difference with Class A, in which the participants used minimalised structures and preference statements in 14.7% and 4.0% of the TFOs respectively; this largely accounts for lower proportion of TFUs seen for Class B. The quantity of TFOs that contained bald statements was negligible both before and after the LFS, as was the case for Class A. Finally, there was an example of an appropriate alternative form being supplied in Group 1's pre-LFS phase of the task performance.

Overall, it is evident from these data that the Class B participants did use the taught forms following the LFS. However, there were at least three participants that were not oriented towards producing the target suggestions. NO (Group 1) and YT (Group 2) are two such examples. In the five TFOs that they each produced in the post-LFS phase of the task, they only used one target form, indicating only a modest orientation to form at best. Further, YU (Group 6) did not use a target form in either of his two TFOs.

Table 5.1
Target form use by Class B in the CT main task

Group number	TFOs	TFUs	Alt	Min	BS	PS
1	4 / 14	0 / 10	1 / 0	0 / 3	0 / 0	3 / 1
AS	2 / 5	0 / 5	1 / 0	0 / 0	0 / 0	1 / 0
KK	1 / 4	0 / 4	0 / 0	0 / 0	0 / 0	1 / 0
NO	1 / 5	0 / 1	0 / 0	0 / 3	0 / 0	1 / 1
2	7 / 13	1 / 7	0 / 0	3 / 3	0 / 0	3 / 3
MU	1 / 6	0 / 5*	0 / 0	0 / 0	0 / 0	1 / 1
SH	2 / 3	0 / 1	0 / 0	1 / 1	0 / 0	1 / 1
YT	4 / 4	1 / 1*	0 / 0	2 / 2	0 / 0	1 / 1
3	2 / 10	0 / 6	0 / 0	1 / 3	0 / 0	1 / 1
DS	0 / 3	0 / 3	0 / 0	0 / 0	0 / 0	0 / 0
KM	1 / 4	0 / 2	0 / 0	1 / 2	0 / 0	0 / 0
SM	1 / 3	0 / 1	0 / 0	0 / 1	0 / 0	1 / 1
4	3 / 11	1 / 8	0 / 0	0 / 0	1 / 0	1 / 3
KI	0 / 3	0 / 2	0 / 0	0 / 0	0 / 0	0 / 1
KO	0 / 6	0 / 5	0 / 0	0 / 0	0 / 0	0 / 1
YY	3 / 2	1 / 1	0 / 0	0 / 0	1 / 0	1 / 1
5	4 / 6	0 / 4	0 / 1	1 / 1	0 / 0	3 / 0
AO	1 / 2	0 / 2	0 / 0	0 / 0	0 / 0	1 / 0
MS	1 / 3	0 / 1	0 / 1	0 / 1	0 / 0	1 / 0
MN	2 / 1	0 / 1	0 / 0	1 / 0	0 / 0	1 / 0
6	5 / 16	0 / 6	0 / 0	2 / 6	0 / 0	3 / 3
NI	1 / 7	0 / 4	0 / 0	0 / 2	0 / 0	1 / 0
YM	3 / 7	0 / 2	0 / 0	1 / 3	0 / 0	2 / 2
YU	1 / 2	0 / 0	0 / 0	1 / 1	0 / 0	0 / 1
Total	25 / 69	2 / 41	1 / 1	7 / 16	1 / 0	14 / 11
Mean	1.4 / 3.8	0.1 / 2.3				
SD	1.1 / 1.69	0.32 / 1.64				
Proportion of TFOs (%)	8.0 / 59.4	4.0 / 1.4		28.0 / 23.2	4.0 / 0	56.0 / 15.9

Notes. Alt = Alternatively filled TFOs; Min = minimalised structures; BS = bald statements; PS = preference statements; * denotes an error with a target form. The slashes [/] denote the LFS. Numbers to the left of the slash indicate the data from the pre-LFS phase; numbers right to the right indicate the data from the post-LFS phase.

5.1.1.2 Target form types

Table 5.2 shows the types of target form that were used during the post-LFS phase of the task. As in the Class A dataset, *how about* was the most popular choice, followed by *why don't* and *let's*. It appears that the class as a whole were oriented towards producing a variety of target forms, although those phrases that were most familiar from previous experience may have been the ones most commonly selected.

Table 5.2

Target suggestion phrases used in the post-LFS phase of the CT main task by Class B

Phrase	Total attempts	Accurate	Inaccurate
how about	14	13	1
it might be good	4	4	0
let's	7	7	0
shall we	3	2	1
we could	1	1	0
what about	3	3	0
why don't	9	9	0
Total	41	39	2

5.1.1.3 Distribution of target form uses

Table 5.3 shows in which topics the TFOs occurred during the post-LFS phase interactions. It shows that the initial suggestions to go to the cinema were always filled with a target form, and target forms were the most common way to fill TFOs when the day, showing, and eating place were discussed. This was similar to the findings of Class A (see Table 4.3); however, unlike in the pre-task class, the Class B participants used many more preference statements when discussing which film to see, some of which were perfectly acceptable in the context of their interaction. The remainder of the topics were filled almost entirely with TFUs and minimalised structures, with the exception being the appropriate alternative form used to suggest a time to eat.

Table 5.3

TFO distribution over different topics in the CT main task (post-LFS) for Class B

Topics	TFUs	Alt	Min	BS	PS
Cinema	6	0	0	0	0
Day	5	0	2	0	0
Film	5	0	1	0	9
Showing	4	0	2	0	0
Food place	10	0	2	0	1
Food time	3	1	3	0	0
Meeting time	3	0	3	0	0
Meeting place	4	0	4	0	0
Other	0	0	0	0	0

Notes. Alt = Alternatively filled TFOs; Min = minimalised structures; BS = bald statements; PS = preference statements.

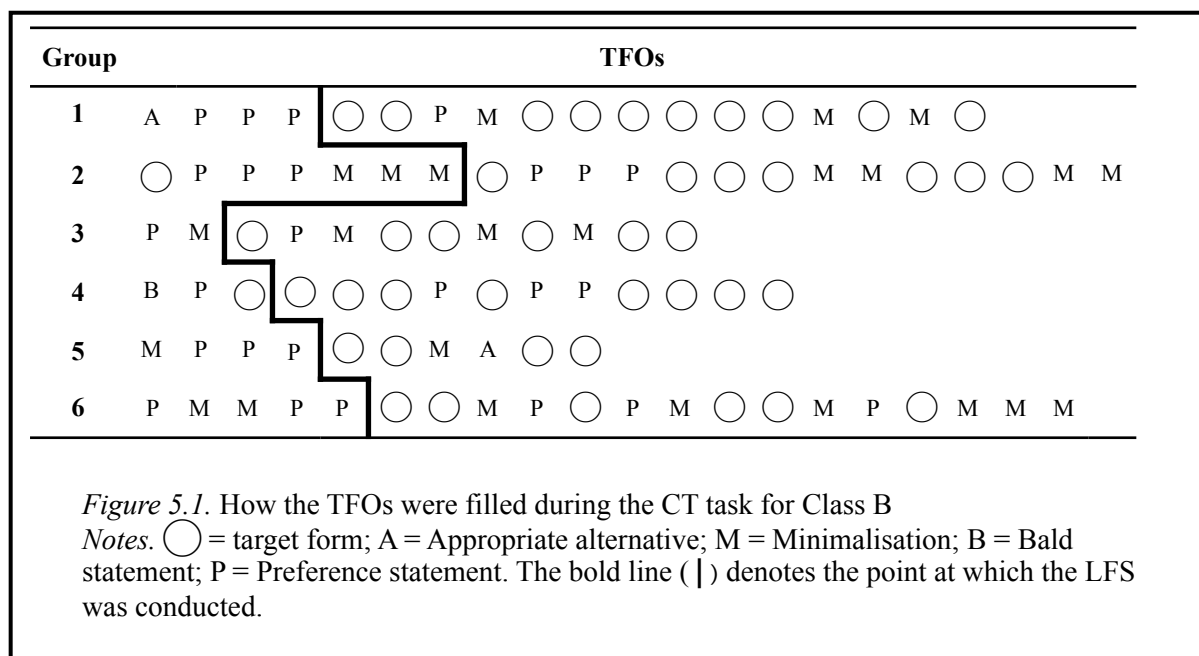
In Class A, there was an overall tendency for participants to orient more towards form near the beginning of the task performance, with most of those TFOs not filled by target forms occurring in the latter stages. Box 5.1 shows the first turns taken by the six groups immediately after the LFS. Five of them used *why don't we*, just as in the task model, to suggest going to the cinema together.

Box 5.1

Utterances made in the opening turns of the post-LFS phase of the CT task for Class B

Group	Opening turns of the post-LFS phase
1	KK: so why don't we go and see a movie this week?
2	MU: why don't we go and see a movie this week?
3	KM: why don't we go (.) and see a movie this week?
4	KO: eh why don't we (.) go and see a (.) movie this week?
5	MS: which day (.) is better Saturday or Sunday?
6	YM: hm:: why don't we go (3.5) to movie? go to see movie?

But, as Figure 5.1 shows, there was less of a concentration of TFUs at the beginning of the post-LFS phase — they were more evenly dispersed throughout the task performance. The abundance of preference statements during the film topic discussions (which typically occurred at the beginning) is one factor, but there were also a number of minimalised structures that appeared. For some of these participants, the proximity of the LFS had less bearing on their inclination to produce the target forms, and the qualitative analysis that follows offers possible explanations for this. Figure 5.1 also neatly illustrates the division between the pre- and post-LFS phases of the task performance with regard to TFU uses. Although there were two examples of the phrase *let's go* to express suggestions in Group 2 and 4, the Class B participants did not use other suggestion phrases when proposing ideas to their interlocutors



5.1.1.4 Summary

To summarise, there was a clear difference in the participants' use of target forms after the during-task LFS intervention. In the two minutes of task time prior to the LFS, most TFOs were filled by

minimalised structures or preference statements. There were two instances of a target form being used, demonstrating some partial knowledge of suggestion phrases. In the post-LFS phase, there were a number of TFUs, although not of the proportion seen in Class A. Another difference to Class A was the pattern of TFUs in the post-LFS phase, which saw the Class B participants continue to use other means to fill TFOs, even immediately after the LFS.

5.1.2 Interaction analysis

For the interaction analysis, I employed a detailed qualitative approach to try to further understand the impact of a during-task LFS on the task interaction, with a specific focus on participant orientation. The nature of the task and the position of the LFS sequencing for the Class B participants provided an opportunity to look at how a during-task explicit teaching strategy impacts participant orientation over the course of a single lesson. Here, I describe how participants initially interacted in the pre-LFS phase, and how they later incorporated the recently covered target forms in the post-LFS phase.

Before the break for the LFS, the participants obviously relied on their own resources, but after the teaching of the target forms, there was clearly a focus on target form production and less of a pure focus on meaning exchange. The participants tended to refer to the materials — and specifically the target forms — at many opportunities. For example, five of the six groups resumed — or perhaps restarted is more accurate — the task by using the exact phrase ("why don't we go and see a movie this week") from the model. This was the same borrowing from the model seen multiple times in Class A. Also, as described above in the quantitative analysis discussion, the participants often used target forms to fill TFOs during the post-LFS phase of the task performance. The qualitative analysis revealed that not only did they use the target suggestions, but, when they did so, the disfluency features typical of the Class A participants were often present, along with occasionally more overt signalling such as self-correction. As I have already given several examples of the kinds of interaction features relevant to my analysis in section 4.2.2, isolated illustrative examples are not presented here.

However, despite certain similarities with the Class A interactions, the quantitative data showed that fewer target forms were found in Class B, with preference statements and minimalised structures often used instead, suggesting that the during-task LFS had a lesser effect. In this section, I further examine this finding.

First, I examine how the LFS impacted the discussion of certain topics within the CT task by looking at how they were approached by the participants in both the pre- and post-LFS phases. For example, it is noteworthy how, in the post-LFS phase, participants reformulated the utterances they had made prior to the LFS. In the two-minute period of the pre-LFS phase, most groups discussed at least one topic. Table 5.4 shows the topics the six groups discussed. By looking at the way specific suggestions were made before the LFS, and comparing them with after, we can see how participants "digested" and chose to use the target forms.

Table 5.4
Topics discussed in the pre-LFS phase of the CT main task for Class B

Group	Topics discussed
1	day, film*
2	film, showing, eating time, eating place*
3	film, showing, eating time & place*
4	day, film, meeting time*
5	day, film, showing*
6	day, film*

Notes. * denotes that the topic was not completed.

I begin by focusing on a single group case — Group 1 — to show how the individual participants went about discussing topics before and after the LFS, and how they used the target forms. This group was chosen as it demonstrates the variety found in individual participants' performances and approaches towards the task. Second, I look at the topic of *film* and examine how all six groups discussed this topic in both the pre- and post LFS phases, with reference to the use of target forms and other key features of the task interaction.

5.1.2.1 Group case analyses

In this section, I compare both phases of Group 1's task interaction. Excerpt 5.1 shows the first segment of the pre-LFS phase, in which AS makes an appropriate alternative suggestion strategy for the day to visit the cinema (lines 1-2) which is approved by both of her interlocutors in lines 6 and 7. (The "how about" in line 5 is not a suggestion, AS is asking about KK's availability, and this question could be reformulated as "How is Sunday for you?") At the end of the topic, we can see the use of "let's go" twice (lines 7 and 8). Here, it is not used as a new suggestion but simply to show that a consensus has been reached; therefore, it was not counted in the quantitative analysis above, but it serves as a reminder that this lexical chunk seems to be commonly used within this group of learners.

Excerpt 5.1 (CB/GI/MT:Pre-LFS)

01 AS: I would like (.) Sunday go- go to the cinema because Saturday
02 (is) my mother birthday
03 NO: congratulation
04 KK: hehe
05 AS: how about you (.) Sunday?
06 KK: I'm I'm hm okay okay
07 NO: [yes let's go
08 AS: [Sunday's schedule okay? let's go? hehe eh? (1.5) what movie

After the LFS, three different suggestions were made on the corresponding topic (Excerpt 5.2), even though they had previously established that Sunday would be a suitable choice for all three members. It is NO that makes the first suggestion, simply using a minimalised structure. When this is rejected (lines 45-48), he uses one of the target forms (line 49) to suggest an alternative, which is also rejected. Next, KK uses the same target form to make a third proposal (line 52), which is approved of by AS

(line 53). Instead of simply stating that Sunday had already been decided, the group go through the motions of using the target form "how about" on two occasions. Further, although NO previously said that Sunday was fine for him, he is now claiming that only the evening is convenient. These points indicate a move away from a *task completion* orientation towards an orientation of using the target forms. They may also be displaying that they are discussing the various options more thoroughly.

Excerpt 5.2 (CB/GI/MT:Post-LFS)

42 AS: when we (.) watch?
 43 NO: today
 44 KK: to- today?!
 45 AS: ah no
 46 KK: no
 47 AS: I'm busy
 48 KK: I'm b=
 49 NO: =how about (.) tomorrow?
 50 AS: no, I'm busy
 51 NO: oh
 52 KK: XXXXX (4.0) how about Sun- Sunday afternoon?
 53 AS: oh (.) good good. (.) afternoon?
 54 KK: afternoon
 55 NO: oh part- part time job
 56 AS: hm hm hm
 57 NO: part time job
 58 AS: huh?
 59 KK: hehe how about (.) late show?
 60 AS: oh good

Group 1 also discussed the film before the LFS but did not reach a decision. As shown in Excerpt 5.3, no participant makes a suggestion; instead, they simply use *I want* statements to convey their preferences (lines 12-15).

Excerpt 5.3 (CB/GI/MT:Pre-LFS)

10 KK: what- what movie do you (.) [watch?
 11 AS: [watch?
 12 NO: I like- I want to watch (1.5) Expendibles
 13 AS: how about you?
 14 KK: I want- (..) I want to see (.) Power Game
 15 AS: eh I want see (.) Beauty and the Beast
 16 KK: hehe hm?
 17 AS: why Expendibles?

When they revisit the topic after the LFS (lines 31-39 of Excerpt 5.5), the participants still use *I want* statements but, significantly, immediately after AS states her preferred film, she uses *how about* (albeit without the necessary -ing form of the following verb *watch*) to suggest watching it. There was also evidence of mining from the model; items like "sounds good" (line 32) and "wanna" (line 35) were probably lifted directly from the task model.

Excerpt 5.4 (CB/GI/MT:Post-LFS)

31 AS: it sounds- it sounds good. I want (..) to: Beauty & the Beast
32 (..) so (1.0) how about (..) watch this movie?
33 NO: I want- (.) I want see Expendibles. (4.0) sorry sorry
34 KK: I- (.) wanna see Power Game but I think (4.0) I think eh I think
35 (.) Beauty & the Beast is good- maybe good
36 AS: yeah
37 NO: me too. me too. (1.5) I want- I want to go to (..) see Beauty (.)
38 & the (.) Beast
39 AS: yeah really? hehe okay decide hehe *eto* hm:? what time- (2.5) what

Throughout the rest of the task, a good portion of participant orientation was directed towards using the target forms. For instance, AS used four more target suggestions during the remainder of the task. As Excerpt 5.5 shows, she uses "how about" once more, essentially repairing what would be a minimalised structure. This might be a kind of correction with AS initially orienting only towards meaning, but in the two-second pause in line 65, she decides to insert the form from the LFS.

Excerpt 5.5 (CB/GI/MT:Post-LFS)

64 AS: okay *eto* hehe twenty o'clock *kara* {t:from} (3.0) eh? *nani kore?*
65 {T:what's this?) twenty two o'clock (2.0) how about (.) this?

AS used "shall we..." on one occasion (Excerpt 5.6); however, it was preceded by a hesitation marker, unfilled pauses and the discourse marker *ja*.

Excerpt 5.6 (CB/GI/MT:Post-LFS)

69 AS: it's late show hm (2.0) *ja* (4.5) hm shall we go to (3.0) dinner
70 together?

As shown in Excerpts 5.7 and 5.8, AS also uses "it might be good" two times: The first time was again preceded by a use of *ja*. Following this, her delivery is very mechanical; the form was apparently not in her spontaneous linguistic repertoire, and she had to make an effort to produce it. The second instance is much more fluent, but it is interesting as it acts as a partial recast of NO's earlier minimalised proposal to visit a *yakiniku* restaurant (L85), rather than a new suggestion per se. All these overt signals indicate at least a partial post-LFS orientation towards producing the target forms.

Excerpt 5.7 (CB/GI/MT:Post-LFS)

77 AS: oh: *ja* (..) it might be good to meet (..) in the (.) Umeda (.)
78 station

Excerpt 5.8 (CB/G1/MT:Post-LFS)

82 AS: eh ah (1.5) where- where eat dinner?
83 KK: where where (1.5) ah::
84 (5.0)
85 NO: *yakiniku* {T:grilled meat}
86 AS: hm! good good good
. . .
101 AS: it might be good (.) to go there, (..) okay?
102 NO: yes

A similar orientation to the target forms was demonstrated by KK. During the post-LFS phase of the task, she used "how about" twice and "it might be good" another time, and, as Excerpt 5.9 shows, her use of the latter caused the typical disfluencies — unfilled pauses and hesitation markers — often seen in form-oriented participants.

Excerpt 5.9 (CB/G1/MT:Post-LFS)

73 KK: okay okay so (1.5) so (1.5) eh (4.0) it might be good to (1.0)
74 mee:t (3.0) at (3.0) six thirty?

As mentioned above with reference to the quantitative findings, NO was less focused on form than his partners (and perhaps he is less focused generally — he appeared quite sleepy, and the teacher even asked him to wake up at one point), using "how about" once (see line 49 of Excerpt 5.2) and then reverting to minimalised structures later to suggest a meeting place and a type of restaurant at which to eat. Of the five TFOs he was presented with in the post-LFS phase of the task, he supplied a target form only once. But this fits the pattern seen throughout the data up to this point; that is, the tendency for some participants to orient more towards form than others, and the apparent significance of individual differences. Boxes 5.2 to 5.4 give a summary of how the Group 1 participants filled the TFOs before and after the LFS, using the colour coding system introduced in section 3.6, Table 3.8. Where direct comparisons are available between the way a participant filled a TFO on a corresponding topic, they are shown adjacent to one another. Box 5.2 and 5.3 show the form-oriented post-LFS TFOs of the participants AS and KK, while Box 5.4 shows NO to be more oriented towards meaning.

Box 5.2

TFOs for Class B participant AS in the pre- and post-LFS phases of the CT task

Main task (pre-LFS)	Main task (post-LFS)
P1 I would like (.) Sunday go- go to the cinema because Saturday (is) my mother birthday	
P2 I want see (.) Beauty and the Beast	M1 I want (..) to: Beauty & the Beast (..) so (1.0) how about (..) watch this movie? M2 twenty two o'clock (2.0) how about (.) this? M3 shall we go to (3.0) dinner together? [...] before movie M4 ja (..) it might be good to meet (..) in the (.) Umeda (.) station M5 it might be good (.) to go there, (..) okay?

Box 5.3

TFOs for Class B participant KK in the pre- and post-LFS phases of the CT task

Main task (pre-LFS)	Main task (post-LFS)
	M1 so why don't we go and see a movie this week?
P1 I want to see (.) Power Game	M3 how about Sun- Sunday afternoon? M4 how about (.) late show? M5 it might be good to (1.0) mee:t (3.0) at (3.0) six thirty?

Box 5.4

TFOs by Class B participant NO in the pre- and post-LFS phases of the CT task

Main task (pre-LFS)	Main task (post-LFS)
P1 I like- I want to watch (1.5) Expendables	M1 I want- (.) I want see Expendibles. M2 I want- I want to go to (..) see Beauty (.) & the (.) Beast M3 today M4 how about (.) tomorrow? M5 Umeda

In this section, I have described in some detail the features of Group 1's main task performance. Next, I focus on one topic and examine how all the groups approached their discussion of it.

5.1.2.2 Topic discussions

In this section, I examine how the six groups discussed which film to watch. This was the one topic that was tackled by all groups in both the pre- and post-LFS phases. A curious feature of Group 1's interaction was the way they continued to use preference statements when discussing which film to watch, unlike their counterparts in Class A. As I will show, this is something that was also seen in some other groups of Class B.

Group 2's pre-LFS phase discussion of this topic is shown in Excerpt 5.11. Here, the participants discuss which film to watch without making suggestions as such, but by simply stating what they each want to see. At one point, it looks like YT is trying to soften his language to convey something more akin to a suggestion (L11), and then tries to persuade the others. The positive responses he receives in lines 14 and 15 perhaps show he was successful.

Excerpt 5.11 (SB/G2/MT:Pre-LFS)

05 MU: I want to watch-*i* Doraemon
06 YT: ah:=
07 SH: =ah: I want to watch-*i* Beauty and the Beast
08 YT: un don't be silly=
09 SH: =hehe=
10 YT: =uh ah (..) I want to watch-*i* Twi-light Sasarasaya (1.5) and-
11 how- how- how (..) okay?
12 SH: no
13 YT: Sasarasaya is (1.5) very romance an:d very popular movie
14 MU: hm: *ja* I try it
15 SH: me too

When discussing the same topic after the LFS in Excerpt 5.12, something similar to the Group 1 exchange happens for Group 2 with no suggestion being made at the beginning of the topic, and the participants simply stating their preferences. This time, YT did not describe the merits of his film choice, and MU brought the topic exchange to an end by making a compromise suggestion using a rather hesitant "let's" (line 40), which is in contrast to her utterance of "I'll try it" (line 14 of Excerpt 5.11) in the same situation during the pre-LFS phase. This topic exchange, like Group 1, lies somewhere between the one seen in the pre-LFS and those typical of Class A form-oriented participants. It mostly mirrors the pre-LFS interaction but with the one stilted use of the target form in line 40.

Excerpt 5.12 (SB/G2/MT:Post-LFS)

31 MU: I want (..) to watch eh Doraemon, (2.0) how about you?
32 (3.0)
33 YT: [hm
34 SH: [I want to see Beauty and the Beast
35 MU: hm
36 YT: hm ah ah I I:: don't want to watch the movie

37 MU: eh? *chotto matte!* {T:wait a moment}
 38 YT: but-o I (2.0) I like Twi-light Sasarasaya
 39 (6.5)
 40 MU: ja let- let's- let's-u (1.5) go and see (.) Twilight Sasarasaya
 41 YT: ah that's so good

Group 4's pre-LFS discussion about which film to see is shown in Excerpt 5.13. In line 14, YY proposes one option with a preference statement; then, without mentioning an alternative, both KO and, to a lesser extent, KI give reasons for approving the initial suggestion of *Doraemon*. It is uncertain whether the use of the target form in "let's go" (L20) is a suggestion, as defined by the criteria of this analysis. It could be more of a closing remark to show that agreement has been reached.⁹

Excerpt 5.13 (SB/G4/MT:Pre-LFS)

12 KI: okay (1.0) hm Saturday (..) hm what mo-movie (.) do (.) we (.)
 13 see- watch=
 14 YY: =I- I want to see Doraemon
 15 KI: Doraemon?
 16 KO: oh (1.5) I want to see (.) Doraemon too [(.) because I have been
 17 (.) watching hehe watching Doraemon (.) from my boyhood
 18 YY: oh hehe
 19 KI: ma- me too (..) I- I want to (.) watch it
 20 YY: let's go
 21 KI: okay Doraemon (6.5) (when) is we meeting?

As Excerpt 5.14 shows, the post-LFS exchange was slightly more limited, with the participants going through the motions of discussing a topic they probably felt had already been covered sufficiently. YY still does not use a target form suggestion, perhaps indicating that she is a little less oriented towards displaying her control of the target forms (L41). KO also uses "I want" to express agreement before YY uses the target form *let's* in a similar, but slightly more complex, way to the pre-LFS use.

Excerpt 5.14 (SB/G4/MT:Post-LFS)

37 KO: eh what movie: (2.5) do you want to see?
 38 YY: I want to see (.) Doraemon.
 39 KO: hm
 40 YY: wha- what do you?
 41 KI: yeah me too
 42 KO: me too (.) oh I also want to see (.) it
 43 YY: let's (.) go to (.) see Doraemon
 44 KO: okay eh

Although Group 6 did not make a decision on the film in the pre-LFS, there was the discussion shown in Excerpt 5.15. After an exchange (featuring minimalisation) related to the relative merits of one of the film's cast members, YM uses a minimalised structure to suggest *Lupen the Third* (line 30). This is

⁹This use of "let's" was included in the quantitative analysis as it could be interpreted to have some suggestive meaning, and it highlights the familiarity that some participants had with its use, especially as a stock phrase with the lexical verb "go".

followed by preferences statements (lines 31, 32, and 37) before they are interrupted by the start of the LFS.

Excerpt 5.15 (SB/G6/MT:Pre-LFS)

24 NI: will- what movie (.) do you want to see?
25 YM: [oh:
26 YU: [hm:
27 YU: Takei Emi Takei Emi
28 NI: ah Take Emi Clover no no no no I like (..) Oguri Shun
29 YU: no no no
30 YM: Lupen the Third?
31 NI: Lupen the Third- I want to see Lupen the Third
32 YM: hm no no no I want to see (1.5) Doraemon Stand By Me
33 NI: no no no no
34 YU: oh I (.) I (.) I watched two- twice
35 NI: hehe
36 YM: hehe oh no! *sore wa nashi da ne* {T:that's a no then}
37 NI: *hai* I want (.) to see Lupen The Third
38 YU: ah no no no (.) I watched Lupen Thursday

Following the LFS, YM repeats the preference statement (lines 59-60) she used in the pre-LFS phase. After this, however, NI makes a rather hesitant target form suggestion in line 63, indicating a shift in orientation. YU does not follow NI's lead and continues to use "want", but with questioning intonation.

Excerpt 5.16 (SB/G6/MT:Post-LFS)

58 YU: what- what we (1.5) what about movie?
59 YM: hm: I want to (.) see (3.0) *mou ikai yaru* {T:I'll do it one more
60 time} (..) Doraemon Stand By Me
61 YU: Doraemon
62 YM: *mita yatsu* {T:film which have been seen} XXXX
63 NI: hm: let- (..) let's:: let's go and-o see (1.0) Lupen the Third
64 YU: I've already seen it
65 NI: hm do you (.) want to see?
66 YU: I want to go to Clover?
67 NI: hm why?
68 YM: why?
69 YU: I love (.) she- her her okay?
70 YM: hehe
71 NI: hehe
72 YU: she is Takei Emi, (1.0) she is very cute okay?
73 YM: okay
74 YU: okay Clover
75 NI: okay
76 YM: sounds good I want- I want to go (..) it
77 NI: okay okay I want to see Takei Emi
78 YU: ah: thank you

There are elements of Group 6's discussion that are slightly artificial, and there are two references in Japanese (lines 59 and 62) to the fact that they have had this very same discussion not long ago. This is, perhaps, an inherent risk of immediate task repetition with the same interactants found in the Class

B during-task LFS approach, and no doubt some participants in the other groups would have found it odd to be having a discussion on a topic for which the outcome had already been decided.

A similar pattern could be seen in Group 1, 2, 4, and 6 with regard to their handling of the film topic. Initially, in the pre-LFS phase, the participants used their own resources (primarily preferences statements) to discuss the topic, and, as there had been no pre-teaching, it can be assumed that they were largely meaning oriented.¹⁰ After, in the post-LFS phase, they mostly continued in the same vein, but there was evidence of a shift in orientation by some of the participants.

A slightly different approach was taken by the participants of Group 5. As Excerpt 5.17 shows, all three group members state their preferences using *I want* statements during the pre-LFS stage. Three different films are suggested, but MS sees a resolution (line 11) and a film is agreed upon.

Excerpt 5.17 (SB/G5/MT:Pre-LFS)

05 MS: I can go both so (.) Sunday. which movie do you want to watch?
06 AO: uh I want to watch (.) Lupen the Third
07 MS: oh
08 MN: I I want (.) to watch Beauty & the Beast
09 MS: I want to watch Hercules
10 MN: oh: oh no
11 MS: but my second choice is Beauty & the Beast
12 AO: ah (..) my second choice
13 MN: hehe
14 MS: okay
15 MN: okay

Following the LFS, the same topic exchange is dealt with more quickly than before, possibly a sign that the group felt they did not need to negotiate as they had already decided on a film (Excerpt 5.18). Whereas MN used a preference statement previously, here he uses "why don't we" (line 33), after a false start, to suggest the same movie that was previously agreed upon before the LFS. MS and AO approve of this suggestion (lines 34-35 and 36), and the exchange proceeds. No preference statements are used this time, which marks this group as different to all the others.

Excerpt 5.18 (SB/G5/MT:Post-LFS)

31 MS: okay (..) both is fine, uh (1.5) what movie shall we watch?
32 AO: ah
33 MN: why don't- (..) why don't we watch (..) Beauty & the Beast
34 MS: uh (2.5) I want- wanted to watch Hercules but (.) Beauty & the
35 Beast is fine. (3.5) how about you?
36 AO: oh (.) me too hehe

The Group 3 participants also stand out as an exception in that there were no discernible differences between their pre- and post-LFS discussions of the film. The group seemed oriented towards task *completion* and appeared intent on moving through the task as quickly as possible with minimal

¹⁰ As noted previously, the presence of the recording devices possibly may have influenced the orientation of some participants towards form and accuracy.

discussion of the potential options. Excerpts 5.19 and 5.20 illustrate their approach in the two phases of the task. That they quickly accept a different film choice in the post-LFS phase is evidence of their orientation towards moving on.

Excerpt 5.19 (SB/G3/MT:Pre-LFS)

01 DS: which movie do you (2.0) er want to go?
02 (4.5)
03 SM: hehe hm I want to watch-*i* (..) Power Game hehe
04 KM: nice (1.5) nice movie
05 SM: hehe thank you hehe

Excerpt 5.20 (SB/G3/MT:Post-LFS)

25 KM: what- what (to do) (..) you wanna see?
26 SM: hm (4.0) I want to see (3.5) Doraemon hehe
27 KM: Doraemon. (1.5) 2D or 3D?
28 SM: hm (1.0) 2D
29 KM: yeah
30 SM: yeah
31 KM: yeah

Looking at only these topic discussions, it is clear that the LFS had an impact on the orientations of some participants such as MU, MH, YY, MN, and NI, who were clearly trying to incorporate the target forms into their post-LFS performances. But overall, there was only a marginal observable change in the Class B participant orientations during their discussion of the film. As Table 5.3 clearly illustrates, the post-LFS use of preference statements was almost exclusively limited to the discussion of the film. Perhaps this topic inherently encourages the use of preference statements, and it might seem quite natural for participants to use them for this discussion (it is observable to some extent in the Class A data set). It is also possible that the immediate repetition of the exact same content does not lend itself well to learners adjusting their language. They may feel that they could successfully conduct the conversation earlier and may not see the need to change (and it is worth reiterating that there is nothing incorrect about using "I want" in most of these situations). Alternatively, the forms and strategies that they used in the pre-LFS may have had a kind of practice effect that encouraged the participants to use the same language, rendering it resistant to change by the explicit instruction. If true, this would have consequences for the pedagogical application of a during-task language focus. If learners are reluctant to adjust language immediately following a during-task language focus, it might be important to not have them repeat the same task procedures. Changing the task content or interlocutors may encourage the uptake of specific taught forms. This is a point that is picked up again in the Chapter 8 Discussion.

5.1.2.3 Summary

The data indicate that the during-task approach had a very similar impact on the ensuing task interaction as the pre-task approach. Far from ignoring the suggestion phrases which were presented during the LFS, most participants tried to incorporate them into the subsequent exchanges, evidence

that their orientation towards the task and meaning had been affected. However, like the observation made in Class A, there was a degree of individual difference between the participants with some apparently orienting quite strongly towards the forms, while others largely continued to use their own linguistic resources.

There were other qualitative differences with the Class B data compared with Class A. With the topic of choosing a film, most participants used preference statements in the same way during both the pre- and post-LFS phases of the task. This tendency led to a quantitative difference between the two classes in terms of the overall proportion of TFOs that were filled by target forms. The distribution of the target forms did not give the same pattern as seen in Class A, in which more of an orientation to form was seen in the earlier stages of the task. If we accept that the two classes are roughly homogeneous, these findings suggest the pre-task approach might have had a greater effect in directing orientation towards reproduction of the target forms.

Further, the repetition of at least some of the topics essential to the task added to the artificial nature of a classroom task. It was noticeable that some students were talking for the sake of talking, and going through the motions of the task, a task situation that was described above in reference to Coughlan and Duff's (1994) study.

5.1.3 Repeat tasks

In this section, I present a comparison between the main and repeat performances of the CT task in order to analyse participant orientation and retention of the target forms after one week. I first present the holistic results, which give information regarding the overall frequency and accuracy with which the target forms were supplied. Following this, I describe some individual cases that represent how certain participants' task performances were still influenced by the previous week's during-task LFS. Fifteen of the 22 potential Class B participants attended both classes in which the main and repeat performances were recorded; the following commentary only refers to those that were present for both sessions.

5.1.3.1 Holistic findings

A summary of how the Class B participants filled the TFOs during the main and repeat tasks is given in Table 5.5. The frequency of TFOs was quite similar over the two tasks, indicating that they were being performed using similar strategies, and the participants were not omitting elements of the topic discussion in the repeat task. However, as seen for Class A, the proportion of TFUs dropped markedly: For the main task, the proportion of TFOs for which target forms were supplied was 57.6% for the post-LFS phase; this decreased to 33.9% in the repeat performance. The proportion of minimalised structures increased slightly, and many of the TFUs were replaced due to a reversion to the kind of preference statements seen in the pre-LFS phase of the main task.

Table 5.5

Forms supplied in TFOs across the main and repeat tasks by Class B (n=15)

	TFOs	TFUs	TF accuracy (%)	Alt	Min	BS	PS
Main task (pre)	20	2 (10.0%)	100	1 (5.0%)	5 (25.0%)	1 (5%)	11 (55.0%)
Main task (post)	59	34 (57.6%)	97	1 (1.7%)	15 (25.4%)	0	9 (15.3%)
Repeat task	58	20 (34.5%)	75	0	17 (29.3%)	1 (1.7%)	19 (32.8%)

Notes. Alt = Alternatively filled TFOs using *be*; Min = minimalised structures; BS = bald statements; PS = preference statements. Numbers shown in brackets denote the proportion of the TFO total.

Table 5.6 shows a comparison between the main (post-LFS phase) and repeat task for individual participants' target form uses. Six of the participants did not have a single TFU in the repeat task, and a further four only had one. However, there were some who were still potentially oriented to form in the repeat task with AO, AS, and NI being the prime examples.

Table 5.6

Class B participants' use of the targets forms over the main and repeat CT tasks (n=15)

Participant	Main task (post-LFS)			Repeat task		
	TFO	TFU	TFU type	TFO	TFU	TFU type
AO	2	2	2	6	4**	2
AS	5	5	3	6	4**	3
DS	3	3	2	4	0	0
KI	3	2	2	1	1*	1
KK	4	4	3	4	2	2
KM	4	2	2	1	0	0
KO	6	5	4	3	1	1
MS	3	1	1	5	1	1
NI	6	4	4	4	4	3
NO	5	1	1	3	0	0
SM	3	1	1	2	0	0
YY	2	1	1	4	0	0
YM	7	2	2	7	2	2
YU	2	0	0	4	0	0
YT	4	1*	1	4	1	1
Total	59	34	29	58	20	16
Mean	3.9	2.3	1.9	3.9	1.3	1.1

Notes. TFU type = the number of different target forms used; * denotes an error with a target form

Table 5.7 shows which of the seven taught suggestion phrases were put to use in the repeat task. As expected, *let's* and *how about* were the most commonly used expressions, but the presence of eight attempts at *it might be good*, *shall we*, and *why don't we* again indicates that some participants were still trying to use a variety of the previous week's target forms.

Table 5.7
Suggestion phrases used in the Class B CT repeat task

Phrase	Total attempts	Correctly used	Incorrectly used
how about	4	2	2
it might be good	3	3	0
let's	8	7	1
shall we	3	2	1
we could	0	0	0
what about	0	0	0
why don't	2	1	1
Total	20	15	5

The quantitative data paints a similar picture to that seen for Class A. The frequency of minimalised structures did not increase greatly in the repeat task, and, while there was a considerable drop in target form frequency, there remained some participants who made conscious attempts to use them.

Considering the paucity of TFUs in the pre-LFS phase of the main task, the repeat task's TFUs seem to be a direct result of the LFS, and indicate a certain amount of medium-term acquisition may have occurred. However, this was not true of all participants, so, once again, individual differences played an important role in determining the effects of the LFS.

5.1.3.2 Case analyses

It is necessary to look beyond the holistic results and towards the individual participants to appreciate what was actually happening, and when this is done the now familiar pattern of individual difference emerges. In this sub-section, I present data for four participants that are representative of different responses to the target forms.

As shown in Table 5.6, there were six participants that did not use a target form at all in the repeat performance, and while four were not particularly oriented towards their use in the main task (NO, SM, YY, and YU), two were but did not continue in the repeat performance (DS and KM). It seems that a strong orientation to form in the main task did not necessarily lead to target form use one week later, or indeed to signs of medium-term acquisition.

Box 5.5 shows the TFOs that arose across NO's task performances. He is clearly orienting towards meaning in the repeat task, using his own linguistic resources to express his ideas, as he did for the most part in the main task.

Box 5.5

TFOs by Class B participant NO in the main and repeat CT tasks

Main task (pre-LFS)	Main task (post-LFS)	Repeat task
P1 I like- I want to watch (1.5) Expendables	M1 I want- (.) I want see Expendibles.	R1 eh (1.0) I want to watch The Expendibles (2.0) don't you?
	M2 I want- I want to go to (..) see Beauty (.) & the (.) Beast	R2 uh (1.0) uh: I wan- (2.0) I want to eat-o (1.0) Sakasegawa
	M3 today	R3 elev- eleven o'clock
	M4 how about (.) tomorrow?	
	M5 Umeda	

Box 5.6 shows the TFOs across tasks for participants DS. He was not presented with a TFO in the pre-LFS phase of the main task, but, in the post-LFS phase, he supplied three target forms on the three occasions that arose. Nonetheless, although four TFOs occurred in the repeat task, he did not supply a target form for any of them, indicating a shift in orientation towards meaning. For both DS and NO, there is no evidence of medium-term acquisition of the suggestion phrases.

Box 5.6

TFOs by Class B participant DS in the main and repeat CT tasks

Main task (post-LFS)	Repeat task
M1 so (1.5) how (.) about-o (1.5) eh: going (2.0) to movie (1.0) eh: at-o eto (2.0) fourteen (.) o'clock	R1 I want to go to Saturday
M2 what about (.) Umeda station?	R2 I want to twelve
M3 how about-o (1.0) eating lunch?	R3 hm ah example Macdonald
	R4 ra-ramen ramen shop

In contrast, three participants (AO, AS, and NI) used target forms on four or more occasions in the repeat task, and it is no surprise that they were among those that demonstrated a more overt orientation to form in the main task. Box 5.7 shows the TFOs across AS's task performances. It illustrates quite clearly that she is still oriented towards using the target forms in the repeat task, although her accuracy sometimes suffers (R4). Her production is very stilted, and in her second attempt at using *it might be good*, shown in R6, the final suggestion is co-constructed with her partner.

Box 5.7

TFOs by Class B participant AS in the main and repeat CT tasks

Main task (pre-LFS)	Main task (post-LFS)	Repeat task
P1 I would like (.) Sunday go- go to the cinema because Saturday (is) my mother birthday	M1 I want (..) to: Beauty & the Beast (..) so (1.0) how about (..) watch this movie?	R1 shall we (.) go to (1.5) eto movie- (1.5) movie watch in (2.5) in Sunday?
P2 I want see (.) Beauty and the Beast	M2 twenty two o'clock (2.0) how about (.) this?	R2 hm::? hm:to I wan:t to see Beauty (.) and the Beast because my friend say (..) interests (.) this.
	M3 shall we go to (3.0) dinner together?[...]before movie	R3 hm: (2.5) hm! it might be (.) good to (1.0) see- (1.0) use (.) late show
	M4 ja (..) it might be good to meet (..) in the (.) Umeda (.) station	R4 ja: unto (3.0) let's-u (1.5) let's eating dinner
	M5 it might be good (.) to go there, (..) okay?	R5 hm: I want to eat osushi
		R6 ja (2.0) ja: un:to dinner (3.0) hm nandakke {T:what is it} it-o (.) might- o- it be [...] =it might be good to (1.0) meet-o (6.0) [...] six PM (1.5) Umeda=

A similar pattern can be seen for participant NI, as shown in Box 5.8. While he had little opportunity in the pre-LFS phase of the main task, NI produced target forms very hesitantly in the post-LFS phase (M2, M3, M4, M5). One week later, he continued to use the target suggestions, and a lingering orientation to form can be seen in R3, where his suggestion is rather stilted, and R4, in which he self-corrects his initially inaccurate *let's* suggestion. For both AS and NI, the repeat task data provide evidence of both a lasting orientation towards form and medium-term acquisition of the suggestion phrases.

Box 5.8

TFOs by Class B participant NI in the main and repeat CT tasks

Main task (pre-LFS)	Main task (post-LFS)	Repeat task
P1 I want (.) to see Lupen The Third	M1 evening?	R1 hm let's go Saturday
	M2 hm: let- (.) let's:: let's go and-o see (1.0) Lupen the Third	R2 shall we: (.) watch (1.5) Miracle
	M3 I I- eto why don't we (.) watch (1.5) why don't we watch- i (2.0) two (.) fifty to XXXX	R3 why- (1.0) why don't we watch (.) two- (.) two fifteen?
	M4 I (.) I chau we- (2.5) we could (.) eat (.) in (.) the dinner or lunch?	R4 yes let's ten o'clock[...] let's- let's meet ten o'clock
	M5 how- how about (.) eating (.) Mac- (.) McDonald?=-	
	M6 twelve o'clock	

5.1.3.3 Summary

To summarise, the frequency of suggestion phrases and the number of participants that oriented towards target form production decreased in the repeat task. Despite this overall trend, there were clearly some participants who recognised that the repeat task was an opportunity to use the forms they had been taught in the previous lesson, and a number were put into practice during the task interaction. For some participants, there were tentative signs of medium-term acquisition. The few that did attempt to use the target forms tended to be those students who were oriented towards their production in the previous week. However, it is not true to say that all those who displayed an orientation to form in the main task continued to use the target suggestions in the repeat performance.

5.2 DESCRIBING PEOPLE TASKS

In this section, I present the findings from the DP task for the Class B participants. All 21 participants were present for the main task data collection session. The same coding system outlined in section 4.2 was used to identify target form opportunities in the task interaction data and make decisions for categorising how the participants filled them. First, I present the quantitative results which show how Class B as a whole used the target forms before and after the LFS. Next, I examine the data qualitatively to look at specific groups and individuals. Finally, I describe the findings from the repeat tasks to look for signs of any remaining orientation to form or medium-term acquisition.

5.2.1 Holistic analysis

5.2.1.1 TFO distribution over phases

The groups approached the task with varying levels of thoroughness in that some made more detailed descriptions than others. Table 5.8 shows the number of pictures that the pairs completed in the two-minute pre-LFS phase and post-LFS.

Table 5.8

Distribution of picture descriptions and TFOs over the two task phases

Group	Pre-LFS		Post-LFS	
	Pictures	TFOs	Pictures	TFOs
1	6	8	6	14
2	5	9	7	14
3	2	6	10	29
4	1	5	11	38
5	2	6	10	23
6	4	8	8	24
7	1	5	11	30
8	1	6	11	31
9	5	10	7	20
10	4	5	8	15

The differences between groups were the result of at least three factors. First, some participants tended to pack a lot of information into a single TFO. For instance, Excerpt 5.21 shows KH from Group 3 making the opening description for picture one, in which he attaches four separate objects to the *wear* verb. Following such a strategy, it is possible to make far fewer separate target forms uses per picture. In most situations, participants tended to attach only single objects to verbs.

Excerpt 5.21 (SB/G3/DP:Pre-LFS)

```
01 KH: er: one
02 KK: number one
03 KH: number one, he- (..) he is wearing (1.0) stripe shirt a:nd (.)
04     leather watch (1.0) er: (1.5) and (1.5) leather bag (.) belt,
05     an:d (.) cot(.)ton pants?
```

The second factor was the speed with which a group found the difference between a pair of pictures; naturally, it took some groups longer than others to find it. Third, for identical pictures, some groups made several descriptions about a picture set before being convinced that they were, in fact, the same picture, while others moved swiftly on after only one or two descriptions; in such cases, they often missed a difference and had to return to it later when they reached the end and realised that they had not found all six different pairs. A look at the post-LFS data also shows the density of TFOs for each picture description was seemingly dependent on the individual groups.

5.2.1.2 Frequency and accuracy of target forms

Table 5.9 shows the data for target form use during both the pre- and post-LFS phases, and there are some key observations that can be made from this data. First, it is clear that many of the participants, in fact, 13 of the 21, made at least one target-like description using present continuous in the pre-LFS phases, and there were 21 accurate uses in total. This suggests that many of the students in this context had at least partial control of the structure for spontaneous use; after all, they had seen it and been explicitly taught its uses over at least six years. For example, YU (Group 2) and KH (Group 3) both made three accurate present continuous descriptions from three attempts. However, of these 13 participants, six also made inaccurate present continuous descriptions, indicating that they had not mastered its use. Illustrative examples include AS (Group 6), who made a single accurate present continuous description yet four that were inaccurate, and NI (Group 9), who made two accurate yet five inaccurate attempts. Overall, 51 of the 69 TFOs (73.9%) were realised by present continuous descriptions; of these, 21 (41.2%) were accurate. These findings were completely in line with expectations following the pilot study with a similar set of participants.

Conversely, there was not a single accurate use of *have (got)* in the pre-LFS stages, and only two TFUs appeared. This is despite there being plenty of possibilities for it being employed. However, it might have been the intention of some to use this structure as there were a further 16 TFOs in which the descriptions were minimalised to such an extent that it was impossible to determine which, if either, of the forms the participants had intended to use or should have used. This brought the overall accuracy figure for all TFOs down to 30.4%. Overall, the data reveal that for making descriptions of actions or possessions, the Class B participants possessed partial knowledge of how to use present continuous but gave no indication of being able to use *have (got)*.

In the post-LFS phase, the participants used the target forms on many more occasions; in fact, there was a nearly four-fold increase from the pre-LFS phase. For present continuous, all of the participants made an accurate description on at least one occasion; there were 102 accurate uses from a total of 146 TFUs, giving an accuracy rate of 69.9% (compared to 57.8% seen in the Class A main task). For *have (got)*, there were 76 TFUs, with all but three participants making at least one attempt. Fifty-seven of these were accurate, giving an accuracy rate of 75% (this time slightly lower than the 79.2% seen in Class A). 18 of the *have (got)* TFUs actually included *got*, of which twelve were accurate; this is evidence that the participants were deliberately orienting towards trying out this structure. Despite the increase in accuracy compared to the pre-LFS phase, there were still 11 TFOs that were highly minimalised, and their intended target form could not be identified. This left the overall TFO accuracy for the post-LFS phase at 68.2% (compared to 57.8% in Class A).

The quantitative data suggest that following the LFS, the Class B participants did not ignore the explicit instruction; they used target forms more frequently and were more accurate overall. While the proportion of accurate present continuous descriptions certainly increased, it was the difference in the use of *have (got)* that was possibly more striking. With only two examples in the pre-LFS phase, the proportion of TFOs realised by *have (got)* reached almost one-quarter post-LFS.

Table 5.9

Class B participants' use of the targets forms in the DP main task

Group (Participant)	Total TFOs		Total TFUs		present continuous						have (got)						UTF		Alt	
					TFUs	(O)	(X)				TFUs	(O)	(X)							
1 (AO)	6	9	6	9	1	4	0	2	1	2	0	3	0	2	0	1	5	2	0	0
1 (MN)	3	4	3	4	2	2	0	1	2	1	0	2	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0
2 (RH)	4	7	4	7	2	3	0	1	2	2	0	4	0	2	0	2	2	0	0	0
2 (YU)	5	7	5	7	3	3	3	2	0	1	0	4	0	4	0	0	2	0	0	0
3 (KK)	3	18	3	18	1	10	1	8	0	2	2	8	0	8	2	0	0	0	0	0
3 (KH)	3	11	3	11	3	5	3	4	0	1	0	6	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	0
4 (NO)	3	21	3	21	3	11	0	5	3	6	0	7	0	4	0	3	0	3	0	0
4 (SH)	2	17	2	17	2	12	2	12	0	0	0	5	0	4	0	1	0	0	0	0
5 (YS)	3	10	3	10	1	6	1	4	0	2	0	2	0	2	0	0	2	2	0	0
5 (YY)	3	13	3	13	3	9	0	4	3	5	0	4	0	3	0	1	0	0	0	0
6 (AS)	5	14	5	14	5	9	1	1	4	8	0	5	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0
6 (KM)	3	10	3	10	3	9	1	1	2	8	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
7 (DS)	2	14	2	13	2	10	0	6	2	4	0	3	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
7 (MU)	3	16	3	16	3	9	1	9	2	0	0	7	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	0
8 (MS)	1	6	1	4	1	4	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
8 (YM)	4	14	4	12	2	10	0	8	2	2	0	2	0	1	0	1	2	0	0	2
8 (YT)	1	11	1	11	0	5	0	5	0	0	0	6	0	0	0	6	1	0	0	0
9 (KI)	2	8	2	8	2	4	1	4	1	0	0	4	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0
9 (NI)	8	13	8	13	7	7	2	7	5	0	0	3	0	1	0	2	1	3	0	0
10 (KO)	2	6	2	6	2	6	2	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
10 (SM)	3	9	3	9	3	8	2	8	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Total	69	238	69	233	51	146	21	102	30	44	2	76	0	57	2	19	16	11	0	5
Mean	3.3	11.3	3.3	11.1	2.4	7.0	1.0	4.9	1.4	2.1	0.1	3.6	0	2.7	0.1	0.9	0.8	0.5	0	0.2
SD	1.6	4.4	1.6	4.5																
Proportion of TFOs (%)	100	97.9	73.9	61.3							2.9	31.9				23.2	4.6		2.1	
Accuracy of TFUs (%)	30.4	68.2			41.2	69.9					-	75.0								

Notes. (O) = Correct use; (X) = incorrect use; UTF = unclear target forms; Alt = alternative descriptions using *be*. Italic bold font denotes the pre-LFS phase; regular font denotes the post-LFS phase.

5.2.1.3 Minimalisation

In the pre-LFS phase, 46 of the 69 TFOs (66.6%) contained some form of minimalisation, while the figure for the post-LFS phase was 56 from 238 TFOs (23.5%). This result demonstrates a very real increase in the proportion of descriptions in which participants used complete grammatical structures.

The extent of minimalisation that occurred in the present continuous descriptions also served as a useful indicator of orientation towards form. Considering once more that an accurate present continuous statement contains four obligatory constituents, the Class B participants included a mean of 3.03 of these in their attempts in the pre-LFS phase, meaning that there were 0.97 constituents omitted or a 75.8% completion rate for each attempt. In the post-LFS phase, the mean rose notably to 3.64, meaning that 0.36 constituent was omitted giving a completion rate was 91.1%. With

minimalisation being the archetypal undesirable feature of task interaction, it seems that the explicit instruction went some way to ameliorating it for those participants in Class B.

5.2.1.4 Summary

The Class B participants essentially had their task performance divided in two by the LFS, and this allows for some comparison of the pre- and post- phases. The data show that the Class B participants certainly increased their production and accuracy of the target forms following the LFS. This was especially so for the use of *have (got)*, which was barely used at all in the pre-LFS phase. There were some participants that used the present continuous accurately to make descriptions in the pre-LFS phase, but the accuracy and completion rate of present continuous statements increased substantially post-LFS.

Over the following pages, I will present the qualitative findings from these task performances to explore the interaction more deeply and try to understand some of the more curious results such as the total absence of *have (got)* in the pre-task phase, the high level of accuracy with present continuous even before the LFS, and, fundamentally, how participant orientation was affected by the during-task LFS.

5.2.2 Interaction analysis

During the task interaction, instances of target-form-focused metatalk or self-correction, along with evidence of mining, offer a relatively strong indication of orientation towards form, as detailed for Class A in section 4.2.2. However, it was more difficult to see clear indications of orientation through disfluency features alone in the DP task. In the CT task, the use of the suggestion phrases was often preceded by significant disfluencies that did not appear to the same extent elsewhere in the conversations. However, for the DP task, the interactions were full of disfluencies as participants were conducting word searches or trying to figure out the details of the pictures. An indirect means to judge orientation for this task was to look at how the LFS affected the way the target forms were actually used with regard to accuracy and specifically minimalisation.

In this commentary, I will not detail the types of interaction features as I did for Class A because they are much the same. I will just provide a few illustrative examples along with some examples of interaction features that were specific to the Class B data set. This is followed by an examination of individual group cases looking at how they used the target forms over the two phases of the main task. The purpose here is not necessarily to comment on the frequency of such features but simply to present examples of the kind of effect the during-task LFS had on some of the participants.

5.2.2.1 Metatalk

In the post-LFS phase, there were no instances of metatalk focused on the target forms. However, in the pre-LFS phase, there were several examples of metatalk with the aim of clarifying how to carry out the task. This is something that was not present in the Class A data, and it shows another way by

which the presence of some explicit teaching can affect task interaction and the way learners navigate a task. The lack of the LFS materials, including the written task model, left some participants unsure how to proceed with the task initially, and this demonstrates the value of task models as a means to guide task proceedings. Excerpts 5.22, 5.23, and 5.24 all show participants using their L1 to conduct metatalk about the task proceedings.

Excerpt 5.22 (CB/G1/MT:Pre-LFS)

03 MN: he:=
 04 AO: =man?
 05 MN: man
 06 AO: man. eh: cloud?
 07 MN: cloud
 08 AO: ☹same same☹
 09 MN: °same°
 10 (2.5)
 11 MN: *fuku no hanashi sen de ii* {T:we don't have to talk about
 12 clothes?)

Excerpt 5.23 (SB/G4/MT:Pre-LFS)

03 SH: he is: wearing-u (..) stripe-u (1.0) shirt (1.5) and-o (2.5) hm:
 04 e:to watch-i (1.0) and (..) pants and (1.0) belt-o
 05 NO: *de ore iu* {T:then it's me to speak}
 06 SH: *tabun* {T:probably}

Excerpt 5.24 (SB/G5/MT:Pre-LFS)

01 YY: he: wears-u check-u (1.0) check shirt-o and-o white pants (1.0)
 02 and-o (..) leather belt and-o leather watch.
 03 YS: *kokode dou suru?* {T:what do I do here}
 04 YY: eh
 05 YS: *chau kattara* {T: if it's different} *different to iu?* {do I say}
 06 YY: *sou kana* {T:yes maybe} *eh kochi mo tabun setsumei:* {T:I probably
 07 describe too}
 08 YS: ah okay

5.2.2.2 Mining

While it is difficult to identify all instances of mining in the post-LFS interaction, there were some illustrative examples of participants clearly using the LFS materials to help them make descriptions of the pictures in the post-LFS phase. One curious set of mined utterances was made by the two participants in Group 2. In part D of the LFS materials (see Appendix 2), possible rules for describing people are given with statements such as "You can use *subject + be + ing*". In Excerpt 5.25, it seems that RH has misunderstood the LFS materials and inserts "can use be" when she should just say "is". Later, as Excerpt 5.26 shows, she adds "can use" into her otherwise accurate description of "she has [a] parker". Later, her partner YU also begins to use this structure. This mistake did not occur elsewhere in any class data set, so it can be assumed that YU copied his partner's utterances and applied this new "rule" to his own descriptions. These examples show orientation to the target forms, although the results were disappointing on this occasion.

Excerpt 5.25 (SB/G2/MT:Post-LFS)

46 RH: a boy (2.0) a boy (2.0) can use be (8.0) singing a song
47 YU: hm okay

Excerpt 5.26 (SB/G2/MT:Post-LFS)

84 RH: she:- [(1.5) she can use has-u- (1.0) she can use has (...) parker
85 YU: [hm
86 YU: oh yes (1.0) same
87 RH: same
88 YU: hm
89 RH: nine
90 YU: nine (1.0) she:- (...) she's-u- (2.5) she's- she can use (be)
91 (1.0) drinking

5.2.2.3 Self-correction

As described and illustrated in 4.2.2.3 for Class A, self-corrections occurring during target form production can be considered to be a sign of a fairly clear orientation towards form. In the post-LFS Class B data, there were several examples where participants corrected an utterance containing a target form. One such example is shown in Excerpt 5.27, where MN at first gives a minimalised description using only a noun phrase before attempting to add the grammatical elements (albeit with the auxiliary omitted).

Excerpt 5.27 (SB/G1/MT:Post-LFS)

104 AO: short-o (1.0) short pants
105 MN: yes short pants (1.0) baseball cap (.) [he wearing
106 AO: [no
107 MN: no?=
[no

In the second example, shown in Excerpt 5.28, YM immediately realises that she has omitted the auxiliary from her present continuous description.

Excerpt 5.28 (SB/G8/MT:Post-LFS)

85 YM: next stage? hehe in picture: six, (1.5) uh: this picture
86 described a: man
87 YT: yes
88 YM: hm:: he: wearing-u- he's wearing-u a (1.5) stripe-u stripe?

The presence of such self-corrections shows that these participants felt it necessary to use the target forms accurately. This is an indication of where their orientations lay at these specific points of the task performance.

5.2.2.4 Group case analyses

The analysis of individual cases at the level of group and participant reveal how specific individuals responded in different ways to the LFS. For Class B, it also gives indications of the participants' knowledge of the target forms prior to the LFS. In this sub-section, I describe the task performance of

two dyads which were selected for being representative of subtly different orientations. First, I detail how the pair of participants in Group 7, who seemed to be oriented towards accurately reproducing the structures outlined in the LFS, navigated the task. Following this, I examine the task interaction of another pair, Group 6, with particular reference to their inconsistent use of the target forms in the post-LFS phase and what this suggests about their orientation.

Group 7 case analysis — A form-oriented group

The LFS appeared to have some effect on both the participants in Group 7. While in the pre-LFS phase there was (with one notable example) little use of the target forms, the interaction in the post-LFS phase contained several instances of accurate use, at least for one of the participants. The first segment shows the two-minute pre-LFS phase. One thing that is immediately striking is MU's accurate use of present continuous in her first turn to make the description in line 5. This clearly shows that MU has knowledge of using this structure to describe current actions and/or states. However, in the two TFOs that follow (lines 7-8), MU uses present simple to make very similar descriptions. It appears that MU's knowledge is incomplete, and she is inconsistent in her use. In the first line, DS describes part of his picture as "stands a man", which sounds rather strange. He uses the same structure in line 2 to describe a tree. After MU makes the accurate present continuous description in line 5, DS states that he was not sure of the appropriate way to make descriptions. In his next attempt, in lines 12 and 14, he uses present simple to make a description (this description was remarkably similar to MU's in lines 7 and 8). It seems that DS saw MU as a good model to copy in this short pre-LFS phase. Neither of the participants made any descriptions using *have* in this phase of the task.

```

01 DS: eh number one (1.0) 's picture: (1.5) stands-u (..) a man (2.0)
02 and (2.0) eh: right side (2.5) stands (..) a tree (1.0) and ·hh
03 eh:: (2.5) a cloud (..) is (..) hm: (2.0) flow. (6.0) how about (..)
04 you?
05 MU: hm? hehe e:to he's wearing (..) check shirt and (5.0)
06 DS: soiu kanji ka? {T:like that, is it} hehe
07 MU: and he (..) wears (..) a plain (3.5) pants e:to (1.5) he (1.0)
08 wears (1.5) a watch.
09 DS: hm
10 MU: (hito yutteinai) kara na wakarahan {T:the (person) isn't
11 (talking) so I don't understand}
12 DS: a man
13 MU: un
14 DS: wears-u (..) eh a watch and-o (..) stripe (1.5) shirt
15 MU: different
16 DS: different=
17 MU: hehe XXX different nantonaku wakattekita {T:somehow I understood}
18 hai ni {T:okay, two} hehe
19 DS: hm:: number two is two: men

```

The second segment shows part of the post-LFS phase in which both participants now seem to be using the target forms deliberately and accurately: MU makes three accurate present continuous descriptions (lines 44, 58, and 59-60), and another using *have* (line 46). DS is also making accurate

present continuous descriptions, as shown in line 53 where he uses two *-ing* forms following the subject and auxiliary. Later, in line 67, DS makes a self-correction while making another present continuous description. After initially omitting the auxiliary, he reformulates his utterance to make it target like. Lines 63 and 65 show DS also making an accurate description with *have*.

43 MU: owatta {T:finished} (5.0) okay next, watashi ga iu wa, {T:I'll
 44 speak} she: sh: ah in picture: three a girl (..) is calling
 45 DS: me too
 46 MU: oh e:to (1.0) she has-u (1.5) short black hair.
 47 DS: ya same
 48 MU: same kanaa? {T:maybe} same
 49 DS: okay same
 50 MU: hai
 51 DS: in picture four
 52 MU: hai
 53 DS: a ma:n is sitting (.) and-o reading book
 54 MU: oh XXX
 55 DS: number four
 56 MU: eto uun ano {hesitation markers} (3.0) not same hehe
 57 DS: not same
 58 MU: different (2.5) he's listening music (..) in my picture chigau na
 59 hai {T:different, okay} (1.5) eto in picture five (.) eh (3.5) a
 60 (.) girl is wearing-u dot t-shirt (1.5) and (1.5) plai:n skirt
 61 DS: yay same
 62 MU: hm [sa::me=
 63 DS: [er (..) she has-u
 64 MU: hm
 65 DS: short hair- short black hair
 66 MU: ah okay same hehe XXXX kana (2.0) hai ja next
 67 DS: in picture six (1.0) a boy (1.5) eh: (..) wea:r- is wearing
 68 stripe (..) jeans

Throughout the post-LFS phase, MU made nine present continuous descriptions and six with *have* (*got*) (four describing possessions and two describing permanent states), all of which were accurate. It appears that the explicit instruction stimulated her implicit knowledge of these forms, and she was able to consistently produce them accurately. While DS demonstrated significant improvement from the pre-LFS phase, he was not as accurate as MU. He made ten present continuous descriptions, six of which were accurate. And of his four uses of *have*, three were target-like. The third segment shows some inconsistency that remained in the way DS used present continuous. While in line 106 he omits the auxiliary from the present continuous description, he is accurate in his next attempt only four lines later, and the self-correction in line 112 indicates a strong orientation to form.

106 DS: eh my picture she: eating (.) ice cream
 107 MU: ah oh okay different hehe
 108 DS: in picture ten
 109 MU: ah
 110 DS: a man is wearing-u stripe-u running shirt
 111 MU: uh (..) same
 112 DS: and (.) she wear- is wearing short-o (1.0) pants (2.0) with two
 113 pockets

Both members of the group seem to have been influenced by the during-task LFS. In the post-LFS phase, there was an increase in accuracy with present continuous, several accurate uses of *have (got)* when previously there were none, and some overt signs of an orientation to form. The forms that DS and MU supplied during both phases of the task are shown in Box 5.9 and 5.10, respectively.

Box 5.9

Descriptions by Class B participant DS in the pre- and post-LFS phases of the DP task

Main task (pre-LFS)	Main task (post-LFS)
P1 stands-u (..) a man	M1 two men in wearing-u (1.5) a man (1.5) eh: stripe
P2 a man[...]wears-u (..) eh a watch and-o (..) stripe (1.5) shirt	M2 the other (1.5) eh (..) is-u e:to plain. (1.0) plain.
	M3 a (..) man(.)'s hair (1.5) is black.
	M4 a ma:n is sitting (..) and-o reading book
	M5 she has-u[...]short hair- short black hair
	M6 a boy (1.5) eh: (..) wea:r- is wearing stripe (..) jeans
	M7 a girl (1.0) wearing (1.5) eh: black parker?
	M8 has-u (1.0) a bag with hand.
	M9 she has a ah eh left-o hand
	M10 she: eating (..) ice cream
	M11 a man is wearing-u stripe-u running shirt
	M12 she wear- is wearing short-o (1.0) pants (2.0) with two pockets
	M13 he's wearing a hat
	M14 a ma:n is singing.
	M15 he- (2.0) he has a white (..) sheet

Box 5.10

Descriptions by Class B participant MU in the pre- and post-LFS phases of the DP task

Main task (pre-LFS)	Main task (post-LFS)
P1 he's wearing (..) check shirt	M1 the other: (1.0) is wearing-u (1.5) black plain,
P2 he (..) wears (..) a plain (3.5) pants	M2 black-u hair (1.0) man eh? is-u (3.0) wea:ring (4.5) white[...]jeans
P3 he (1.0) wears (1.5) a watch.	M3 a girl (..) is calling
	M4 she has-u (1.5) short black hair.
	M5 he's listening music
	M6 a (..) girl is wearing-u dot t-shirt (1.5) and plai:n skirt
	M7 he- he's singing
	M8 a (..) girl has (..) an umbrella
	M9 she has-u (1.0) black short hair (1.0) on flower
	M10 a (1.0) woman is (1.5) walking
	M11 she has ri:ght-u hand-
	M12 she has-u uh? ah ja she- she's wearing-u (2.0) stripe-u one (..) piece.
	M13 he has-u (2.0) very (..) black short hair
	M14 a bo:y is wearing-u eh: stripe t-shirt and-u (..) short pants
	M15 he:- he has ·hh something hehe in eh? right hand

There were not many descriptions in Group 7's task performance that did not involve the taught structures. There is, of course, the meaning-focused talk between descriptions that helps the participants navigate the tasks, but there is only a single example of a description which is not based on one of the target forms. In M3 of Box 5.9, DS makes the following description: "a man's hair is black". While this shows the during-task LFS is successful in directing the participants' orientation to form, it could be argued that, following the LFS, this group are simply reproducing the taught forms and are no longer experimenting with their own linguistic repertoire.

Group 6 case analysis — A less form-oriented group

The first segment of this case analysis shows a large portion of the pre-LFS phase of the task. For AS, there was a degree of minimalisation in all but one of her utterances: she omitted the auxiliary *be* from her present continuous descriptions in lines 3 (which also contains a word order problem, or perhaps a minimalised structure of "there is a standing man") and 7, and the subject from her attempts in lines 42 and 49. However, there were also signs of some knowledge of the form: In line 31, she made a target-like present continuous description, and in her line 7 attempt, she made a self-correction

indicating an awareness that the continuous form of the verb was preferable. There were no uses of *have (got)* in the pre-LFS phase. KM made three descriptions in the pre-LFS phase. The first, from lines 21 to 24, sees KM using the present simple for the verb form then make a lexical correction, changing "stripe" to "hoop". In line 26, KM makes the same kind of description that AS made in line 7. However, in lines 37 to 39, and possibly after hearing AS's accurate description in line 31, KM produces a target-like present continuous description which contains a self-correction indicating a general orientation towards form. Like AS, and indeed all of the other Class B participants, KM did not use *have (got)* in the pre-LFS phase. This segment clearly demonstrates that both participants have some knowledge of how to use the present continuous for describing actions, but it does not seem to be complete. It might be assumed that some explicit teaching would be useful to raise their awareness of how their latent knowledge could be applied.

01 AS: *eto* number one=
02 KM: =number one
03 AS: my number one picture, (1.0) *eto* (.) standing-u (.) man
04 KM: yeah
05 AS: *eto* near the tree
06 KM: hm
07 AS: eh he wear- he wearing-u (..) eh: stripe shirt-u and-o white-u
08 bo- bottom-u with-u leather (..) belt-o (.) and-o watch
09 KM: yeah
10 AS: your picture? huh? hehe
11 KM: XXX (2.5) there is-u cloud-o
12 AS: oh cloud-i
13 KM: same
14 AS: same?
15 KM: same
16 AS: oh huh huh number two
17 KM: number two
18 AS: talking=
19 KM: XXX *ikouka* {T:shall I go?}
20 AS: *un un un*
21 KM: eh (..) *nani kore* {T:what's this} (..) eh (.) left-o left boy
22 (1.0) wears (.) stripe shirt
23 AS: oh oh oh
24 KM: ah *ja wa- e:to* eh hoop (1.0) [shirt
25 AS: [ah:!! uh uh
26 KM: and (1.0) talking-u (1.5) boy.
27 AS: un oh oh oh oh (1.5) eh same
28 KM: same
29 AS: same same
30 KM: same
31 AS: number three (1.5) the girl is-u (1.0) talking-u (.) with (.)
32 telephone.
33 KM: yeah
34 AS: same?=
35 KM: =same same same
36 AS: num[ber four
37 KM: [number four the boy
38 AS: un
39 KM: listening- is listening music
40 AS: no
41 KM: eh?

42 AS: reading book
 43 (1.5)
 44 KM: different
 45 AS: hehe different hehe
 46 KM: different
 47 AS: number five-u (1.5) there is-u sunny
 48 KM: yeah
 49 AS: standing up

The next segment shows the first two picture descriptions from the post-LFS phase. AS resumes the task in line 51 by accurately producing the recommended target form from the LFS, but, as shown in the same line, she very quickly reverts to her pre-LFS habit of omitting the auxiliary *be*. Within the same turn, AS manages to make a *have* description, albeit with some hesitancy. There are two TFOs that present themselves to KM in this segment. In the first, in line 59, KM omits the auxiliary from the present continuous description, although he demonstrates some orientation to form with a self-correction of the plain form of "wear". However, in his very next turn in line 62, he fails to use the present continuous as instructed. This opening segment of the post-LFS phase does not show a strong effect from the explicit instruction. Although the LFS was completed only seconds earlier, and with the LFS materials being immediately accessible, it seems the participants are mostly orienting towards the exchange of meaning to complete the task.

51 AS: the girl-u (..) is-u standing (1.5) eh: (1.5) she (.) wearing-u a
 52 dot-o: t-shirt-u and a white skirt (1.5) umto: sh:e:- she has-u
 53 short hair
 54 (2.0)
 55 KM: yes
 56 AS: same?
 57 KM: same
 58 AS: okay
 59 KM: same (1.5) to (1.5) the boy (2.0) wear- (1.0) wearing-u (.)
 60 stripe-u bottoms.
 61 AS: hm hm
 62 KM: eh: (1.0) he walks (1.5) happy.
 63 AS: hm hm hm
 64 (2.5)
 65 KM: smile
 66 AS: hm hm hm hm same same=
 67 KM: =same

The next segment of the post-LFS interaction has a dense concentration of interesting, and telling, features. It shows AS continuing to omit the auxiliary from her present continuous descriptions, as in lines 122 and 128-129. However, lines 124-125 also reveal a clear orientation towards using *have* and reproducing the model. Her words "he has a hat[...]like a baseball cap" are taken directly from the task model, which she is clearly mining. In line 130, she produces another *have* description, and, when KM makes a comprehension check in the following turn, AS responds by initially starting to say only "drink" before correcting her utterance to give a complete *have* description with subject and

verb. This is a clear demonstration how a form-orientation can reduce minimalisation and indexicality in task interaction.

KM only has one TFO in this segment. In line 126, he begins to use *have* (possibly following AS's use in the previous turn) before changing it to a present simple description, which is representative of his descriptions when faced with a present continuous TFO. This segment demonstrates the dynamic nature of orientation. Even though the participants often appeared more oriented towards meaning and task, there were sporadic occasions of fairly overt orientation to form.

120 AS: number eleven
 121 KM: hm
 122 AS: eh: the boy: standing-u, (1.5) hm: in the sunny.
 123 KM: un
 124 AS: eto he:- he has-u, (1.0) he- (2.0) he has? (..) ah he has a hat
 125 (..) like a baseball cap
 126 KM: he ha- he wear nothing.
 127 AS: hm? [different]
 128 KM: [no hat (..) no hat (..) different
 129 AS: demo XXX she- er he- (1.0) nani kore? {T:what's this} he (1.0)
 130 wearing-u stripe shirt and bottom-u, he has-u milk
 131 KM: milk?
 132 AS: hehe (3.0) dr- he has drink
 133 KM: hm

Box 5.11 shows how AS approached the TFOs through the task. She produced one accurate present continuous description from her five TFOs in the pre-LFS phase (P3). Post-LFS, only her first attempt was accurate (M1), and her subsequent seven present continuous descriptions were missing the auxiliary *be*. Perhaps there is some sign of development in the post-LFS phase in that AS included a subject in each description, something lacking in three of her pre-LFS attempts, showing that the LFS had the effect of reducing the degree of minimalisation. Furthermore, after not using *have* at all in the pre-LFS phase, she made five accurate descriptions in the post-LFS phase. For AS, there did seem to be some orientation towards producing the target forms in places, but the persistent mistakes with present continuous suggest that she may not have been paying as much attention as she might to accuracy. It might be the case that AS's interlanguage was not developmentally ready to consistently produce accurate spontaneous present continuous structures, and when not strongly oriented to form, she was liable to produce minimalised structures such as the frequent omissions of the auxiliary *be*.

Box 5.11

Descriptions by Class B participant AS in the pre- and post-LFS phases of the DP task

Pre-LFS	Post-LFS
P1 standing-u (.) man	M1 the girl-u (..) is-u standing
P2 he wear- he wearing-u (..) eh: stripe shirt and-o white-u bo- bottom- u with-u leather (..) belt-o (.) and-o watch	M2 she (.) wearing-u a dot-o: t-shirt-u and a white skirt
P3 the girl is-u (1.0) talking-u (.) with (.) telephone.	M3 sh:e:- she has-u short hair
P4 reading book	M4 the girl-u (1.5) the girl-u standing-u? (..) in the rainy
P5 standing up	M5 she has-u (..) flower accessory (1.5) and bag
	M6 she wearing-u (.) one piece
	M7 the (..) girl- the- the woman? (1.5) wearing-u (1.5) stripe-u one piece
	M8 she (..) walking (3.5) flower?
	M9 she (.) eating soft cream
	M10 the boy: standing-u, (1.5) hm: in the sunny.
	M11 he:- he has-u, (1.0) he- (2.0) he has? (..) ah he has a hat (..) like a baseball cap
	M12 she- er he- (1.0) <i>nani kore?</i> {T:what's this} he (1.0) wearing-u stripe shirt and bottom-u,
	M13 he has-u milk
	M14 he has drink

Box 5.12 shows the TFOs found in KM's turns of the interaction. KM produced a variety of minimalised present continuous forms in the post-LFS phase, making only one complete and accurate description towards the end of the task. He only had a single attempt at using *have*, but it also suffered from minimalisation (the subject "she" was missing). This indicates that KM was not able to produce these structures spontaneously and needed to strongly orient towards form to maintain accuracy, possibly by referring directly to the materials at hand. That he apparently chose not to do so indicates that he was prioritising meaning over form.

Box 5.12

Descriptions by Class B participant KM in the pre- and post-LFS phases of the DP task

Pre-LFS	Post-LFS
P1 left boy (1.0) wears (.) stripe shirt	M1 the boy (2.0) wear- (1.0) wearing- u (.) stripe-u bottoms.
P2 talking-u (1.5) boy.	M2 he walks (1.5) happy.
P3 the boy[...]listening- is listening music	M3 smile
	M4 the woman[...]walking, walking[...]wearing parker[...]and has bag
	M5 and has bag
	M6 she (.) drink
	M7 the boy (1.5) hm:: wearing-u stripe tank top[...]eh and-o (2.0) bottoms with (.) pocket
	M8 he ha- he wear nothing.
	M9 he- (..) he is singing.
	M10 wearing (.) shirt an:d (.) tie

These data suggest only a partial impact of the during-task LFS on the Group 6 participants, with several examples of minimalised structures in the post-task phase. Despite seemingly having some knowledge of at least the present continuous prior to the LFS, it seems that the LFS only partially directed their orientation towards producing the target forms. Both learners were largely using their own linguistic resources, and their focus remained mostly on meaning exchange throughout their task performance. This shows that the kind of obtrusive form-focused intervention used in this study did not direct all attention away from meaning for some participants, and, once again individual differences dictated the relative impact of the LFS.

5.2.2.5 Summary

The qualitative analysis of the task interaction uncovered some of the same features that were found in the Class A data set, including disfluency markers, incidences of mining, and examples of self-correction. The pre-LFS phase also contained instances of meta-talk aimed at establishing task procedures that were not seen in Class A's interactions.

The two groups that I selected as cases are illustrative of the different ways participant pairs responded to the during-task LFS sequence. Some participants oriented towards producing the target forms, while others focused more on meaning and completion of the task. There was also evidence that participants were influenced by their interlocutor's linguistic choices during TFOs. For some participants, it is likely that they needed to orient more to form to make accurate utterances as their interlanguage may not have been as developed as others, and they needed to allocate more resources

to be accurate. Overall, the group cases show the kind of variation that occurs in response to the dynamic interplay between participants and task demands.

5.2.3 Repeat tasks

In this section, I describe the data from Class B's repeat task interactions and draw comparisons with the main task. I begin with a holistic look at the data before selecting three representative cases of individual participants to examine what durable effects the during-task LFS had on orientation, minimalisation, and medium-term acquisition. Two participants (KM and YM) were absent for the repeat performance, so their data for the main performance is also not considered here; therefore, only data showing 19 of the 21 participants are included in this commentary.

5.2.3.1 Holistic findings

A holistic view of the data, comparing the two phases of the main performance and the repeat task, is shown in Table 5.10. The patterns of use observed in the pre- and post-LFS phases of the main task have already been described, so here I focus on the differences between the latter phase and the repeat task. Naturally, the number of TFUs across the two tasks were very different as the repeat task interactions contained all 12 picture descriptions, while the post-LFS phase of the main task had fewer owing to the fact that some descriptions had already been completed in the pre-LFS phase (see Table 5.8). That being said, the combined total of TFOs from both phases of the main task (273 with three alternative forms) was only a little lower than the repeat task (308 with 24 alternative forms). As described in chapters six and seven, this was also a feature of Class C and D, and it was likely due to an increased awareness of the best strategies with which to approach the task. When they did the task the first time, several dyads did not identify the six different pictures on the first attempt; they had to return to those pictures they had earlier determined to be the same and describe them again in more detail. In the repeat task, it seems they were more thorough in their descriptions of each picture.

Table 5.10
Target form use in the main and repeat tasks for Class B participants (n=19)

	Total TFUs	TFU Acc(%)	PC TFUs	PC Acc (%)	H(G) TFUs	H(G) acc	UTF	Min	PC CR (%)	Alt
Main task (pre)	62	32.3	46	43.5	2	0	14	42 (67.7%)	76.6	0
Main task (post)	211	70.6	127	73.2	75	74.7	9	44 (20.6%)	92.9	3
Repeat task	308	63.3	204	66.7	93	63.4	11	96 (31.2%)	87.5	24

Notes. Acc= Accuracy; PC = present continuous; UTF = unclear target form; H(G) = have (got); Min = minimised structures; PC CR = completion rate of present continuous structures; Alt = alternative description using *be*. Numbers shown in brackets denote the proportion of the TFU total.

Regarding target form accuracy, there were only relatively small decreases for both the present continuous (73.2 to 66.7%) and *have (got)* (74.7 to 63.4%) descriptions in the repeat task. The

proportion of TFUs that contained minimalised structures increased from 20.6% to 31.2%, while a decrease from 92.9% to 87.5% was seen for the completion rate of present continuous descriptions. These two measures show that a moderate increase in minimalisation occurred. All this suggests the during-task LFS had some enduring effect on medium-term acquisition and minimalisation. Conversely, unlike Class A, the number of alternative descriptions increased in the repeat task, indicating some orientation away from the target structures and that learners were using their own linguistic resources.

Table 5.11 shows the number of TFUs and the accuracy with which they were used by individual participants. Regarding the performance difference between the post-LFS phase main task and the repeat task, it can be quickly recognised that there was much variation among the 19 individual participants. While the accuracy decreased for 12 of them, there were six for whom it actually increased, with one — MU — not making any mistakes in either performance. It is also striking how the accuracy of some participants changed greatly, either positively (AO, NI) or — more commonly — negatively (DS, KI, MN, SH, YU, and YS), while for others there was little discernible movement (AS, KK, KH, MS, MU, NO, SM, and YT). To understand what was happening for the individual participants, it is necessary to look at the use of target forms for discrete cases.

Table 5.11
TFOs and accuracy for the main and repeat tasks for individual Class B participants

Participant	Main task (pre-LFS)		Main task (post-LFS)		Repeat task		Accuracy change
	TFUs	Accuracy %	TFUs	Accuracy %	TFUs	Accuracy %	
AO	6	0	9	40	18	72	+32
AS	5	20	14	44.4	20	35.0	-9.4
DS	2	0	13	69.2	8	50.0	-19.2
KI	2	50	8	100	18	72.2	-27.8
KK	3	33.3	18	88.9	27	96.3	+7.4
KO	2	100	6	100	16	81.3	-18.7
KH	3	100	11	90.9	14	92.9	+2
MS	1	100	4	100	15	53.3	-46.7
MU	3	33.3	16	100	11	100	0
MN	3	0	4	50.0	17	23.5	-26.5
NI	8	25	12	66.7	23	87.0	20.3
NO	3	0	21	42.9	15	40.0	-3
RH	4	0	7	42.9	9	66.7	+23.8
SH	2	100	17	94.1	20	65	-29.1
SM	3	66.7	9	88.9	12	100	+11.1
YY	3	0	13	53.8	16	31.3	-22.5
YU	5	60	7	85.7	13	61.5	-24.2
YS	3	33.3	10	60	14	14.3	-45.7
YT	1	0	11	45.5	22	50.0	+4.5

Notes. Accuracy change denotes the change in accuracy from the post-LFS phase to the repeat task.

5.2.3.2 Case analyses

In this sub-section, I describe the way three participants used the target forms in the repeat task. These participants were selected because they represent three broad approaches to the repeat task performances. The first participant that I describe is AS, for whom it seems the LFS had little effect. The second is DS, who represented an intermediate position in that there was apparently some limited impact from the LFS. Finally, I present the case of AO, whose use of the target forms actually improved in the repeat task.

Individual case (I) — AS

As detailed in 5.2.2.4, the LFS did not appear to have a large effect on AS's performance in the post-LFS phase of the main task, with examples of minimalised present continuous structures throughout. Box 5.13 shows the 20 TFOs for which AS supplied descriptions in the repeat task. If AS had accuracy problems in the main task's post-LFS phase, it would be expected for this to continue a week later, which is exactly what transpired. In her 11 present continuous descriptions, there was only one occasion, shown in (8), in which AS did not omit the auxiliary *be* verb. Also, in (14), AS even reverted to the omission of the subject which was a feature of her pre-LFS performance. Conversely, AS made six accurate descriptions using *have*, indicating that she was reasonably comfortable using this structure, despite one slip in (13). The two minimalised structures in (17) and (20) indicate that any orientation towards full target form production may have been waning later in the task. Overall, it seems that the LFS had a limited impact on AS's performance in the repeat task, just as it did for the post-LFS phase of the main task.

Box 5.13

Descriptions by Class B participant AS in the DP repeat task

Descriptions	
(1) she: has-u (...) short hair.	(11) he standing-u (1.0) in sunny.
(2) the boy:, (...) wearing-u (...) e:to white-o shirt (.) with tie	(12) check-u shirt[...]he wearing-u check shirt
(3) she:- eh ja he: (...) walking-u (3.0) happy.	(13) she's-u (1.0) has short cut.
(4) she: wearing-u (...) dot shirt	(14) wearing-u (...) t-shirt (...) and denim.
(5) she has-u watch	(15) she has-u (1.0) bag
(6) he wearing-u (...) white-o shirt with-u tie	(16) he- (...) he:- he: has-u eto book-u
(7) he: singing-u with mike	(17) black hair black hair
(8) white-o hair: boy is wearing-u (...) stripe-u t-shirt,	(18) she has-u long hair:
(9) black boy:- black hair boy (.) wearing-u black t-shirt.	(19) she wearing-u (1.0) stripe (1.0)
(10) he:- he: has a (1.0) pet bottle	(20) very long hair.

Individual case (2) — DS

As also detailed in 5.2.2.4, although DS was only presented with two TFOs in the pre-LFS phase of the main task (both requiring present continuous), he did not supply an appropriate structure in either. However, in the post-LFS phase, 10 of his 15 descriptions were accurate, and there were two clear examples of self-corrections while producing a present continuous description, demonstrating an orientation towards form. One week later, in the repeat task (Box 5.14), there was some evidence of a residual effect from the LFS, with three of the six present continuous attempts being successful. Nevertheless, there were problems with some of the other descriptions. In (1), DS uses the present simple, and later a degree of minimalisation returned with the omission of the auxiliary *be* in (6) and (8), and with the subject and *have* in (7).

Overall, it seems that although DS could produce accurate descriptions when he was oriented that way, the inconsistency shown in the repeat task indicated that he did not have full implicit knowledge of the present continuous. Still, that some of the descriptions were accurate suggests that the LFS and the practice opportunities afforded by the post-LFS phase of the main task fostered some medium-term language development.

Box 5.14

Descriptions by Class B participant DS in the DP repeat task

Descriptions	
(1) she calls-u (1.0) eh eh: someone eh (..) by a phone.	(5) e:to a boy has a eh? <i>nani kore?</i> {T:what's this} hehe pet bottle?
(2) h:e's wearing-u stripe-u (..) eh denim	(6) a boy[...]wearing stripe shirt
(3) she is wearing-u eh plain (..) short skirt.	(7) and black hair
(4) he: is wearing-u a belt-o, ·hh and-o eh white denim.	(8) a boy, (1.0) wearing ah eh glasses

Individual case (3) — AO

AO was one of only a small number of participants whose accuracy actually improved in the repeat task. In fact, as Box 5.15 demonstrates, her improvement from the pre-LFS phase of the main task is quite striking. Prior to the LFS, AO used exclusively minimalised structures, but this was somewhat reduced and her accuracy improved in the post-LFS phase. In the repeat task, this development continued. Furthermore, the improvement is arguably even greater than the data in Table 5.11 suggested. AO makes subject-verb agreement errors in the *have* descriptions in R5, R9, R10, and R12, a linguistic point which was not the main focus of the LFS stage, while the self-correction in R5 demonstrates a continued orientation to form. Besides the minimalised structure in R7, all AO's other descriptions were target-like and complete. AO is an example of a participant for whom the during-task LFS had both an immediate and durable effect on both his inclination for using complete structures, his orientation towards form, and medium-term acquisition.

Box 5.15

Descriptions by Class B participant AO in the main and repeat DP tasks

Main task (pre-LFS)	Main task (post-LFS)	Repeat task
P1 AO: stripe, stripe? MN: stripe-u sh:irt	M1 she is-u (1.5) eh: wearing-u white one piece.	R1 girl is-u (..) carrying (.) telephone
P2 right boys is-u (1.5) black (.) shirt	M2 she has-u (.) umbrella	R2 he is walking
P3 AO: left is, (2.5) MN: stripe AO: @stripe (..) same@	M3 she has-u bag	R3 he is singing.
P4 telephone?	M4 she (.) wearing-u (2.0) eto (1.0) parker	R4 she: (1.0) has white skirt
P5 eto (1.0) listening music	M5 drin- drinking juice	R5 he is-u (1.0) have- he have mike
	M6 little boy[...]short- o (1.0) short pants	R6 singing
	M7 he is singing?	R7 they're (.) talking
	M8 ah: ne- eh necktie	R8 he: (1.5) is wearing-u short pants
	M9 short hair?	R9 she: have (6.5) uh: (..) black hair?
		R10 he have (1.0) wa: watch-i (1.0) right hand
		R11 he: is wearing-u lo:ng pants
		R12 she: (1.0) have- she (.) have bag
		R13 she: is-u wearing parker.
		R14 he: is-u (.) reading book
		R15 he: is sitting-u bench
		R16 he: is wearing-u white shirt.
		R17 she is drinking-u drink
		R18 she is walking

5.2.3.3 Summary

To summarise, while the frequency of TFOs could not be compared with the main task, the accuracy with which the Class B participants used both the target forms in the repeat task only reduced slightly. The same could be said for minimalisation of present continuous TFUs. The individual quantitative data showed great diversity with both the frequency and accuracy of TFOs among the Class B participants. The representative case analysis showed that the during-task LFS had varying durability for participants, although it did have a widely seen positive impact on reducing minimalisation.

5.3 UPTAKE REPORTS

All 18 Class B participants reported uptake of the target forms for the CT task, while 18 of the 21 present did so for the DP task. A summary of the reported items is shown in Table 5.12.

In the CT task, although the number of reported items (105, mean=5.8) was somewhat higher than Class A, the proportion of language points followed the same pattern. All but one of the grammar items, and two of the vocabulary items, referred directly to the target suggestion phrases, 49.6% of the total. Most vocabulary items were mined from the task model (*late show*, *admission*) or pre-task activities (*drama*, *suspense*), though five were cited as being from peers (*wanna*, *science fiction*).

For the DP task, the 122 reported items (mean=5.8) was a much greater number than the 70 seen in Class A. There was a high proportion of vocabulary items, which largely consisted of words from the pre-tasks such as *plain*, *striped* and *combat*. This reduced the proportion of items connected to the target forms to 27.9%, less than half the share seen in Class A. In both tasks, it was the teacher that was cited as the main source of reported items, followed by the materials then fellow students.

Table 5.12

Types and sources of items from the Class B uptake reports

Number of reported items									
Language point						Source			
	G	V	P	total	mean	T	S	M	Total
CT task	51 (48.6%)	40 (38.1%)	14 (13.3%)	105	5.8	75 (61.5%)	8 (6.6%)	39 (32.0%)	122
DP task	34 (27.9%)	60 (49.2%)	28 (23.0%)	122	6.8	75 (61%)	8 (6.5%)	40 (32.5%)	123

Notes. G = Grammar; V = vocabulary; P = pronunciation; T = teacher; S = student; M = materials.

The specific target forms that were reported were similar to Class A. In the CT task, it was *how/what about* and *it might be good* which appeared most frequently, while *have got* was reported by 17 of the 21 participants in the DP task data.

For the most part, the uptake report data resembled those for Class A. However, for the DP task, the much greater number of vocabulary items cited suggested participants were not only oriented towards the target forms and had more of a lexical focus.

5.4 CLASS B FINDINGS REVIEW

The participants of Class B received during-task explicit instruction of the target forms in a similar way to Samuda's (2001) seminal paper on form-focused intervention during a communicative task. Samuda claimed that in the initial exchange of the task (operationalised as the pre-LFS phase in this thesis) learners become aware of the language forms which are necessary to successfully communicate their intended meanings and that a during-task intervention can provide the linguistic tools for learners to improve their performance. The during-task LFS used in this study was perhaps more explicit and intrusive than in Samuda's study. Because of this, it might be expected to have a greater impact on learners in the ensuing interaction.

In both task types, the Class B participants mostly incorporated the target forms in the post-LFS phases. For the CT task, there was careful and accurate use of the suggestion phrases. For the DP task, the use of *have (got)* went from negligible to consistent for many of participants, while the accuracy of present continuous descriptions increased considerably. It is noticeable, however, that there was a degree of individual difference between the way participants used the target forms in both task cycles. The increase in target form frequency and accuracy in the post-LFS phase and repeat task is some reflection of short- and medium-term acquisition, respectively.

There was also other discernible effects on participant orientation from the during-task LFS. The presence of such interactional features as self-corrections and mining betrayed an attention towards producing the forms accurately. This was also seen in the task performances of Class A, and it questions the claim (Little & Fieldsend, 2009) that a during-task intervention somehow reduces the risk of structure trapping. Participant orientation was also indicated by the level of minimalisation and indexicality seen in the task interaction.

For minimalisation, the interaction analyses for all task performances showed how forms were being omitted from descriptions. The limited data from the pre-LFS phase of the CT task did not indicate that minimalisation was an extensive feature of those initial exchanges, but minimalisation did decrease in the post-LFS phase nonetheless. One week later, in the repeat tasks, it increased again as the impact of the LFS weakened. Owing to the number of TFUs in the DP task, a deeper understanding of minimalisation could be gained. In the task interaction that followed the LFS, there was a substantial decrease in both the number of descriptions that contained minimalisation and the degree of minimalisation for present continuous descriptions specifically. The repeat tasks showed that the effect of the LFS on minimalisation was quite resilient — minimalisation increased, but not to pre-LFS levels. A similar pattern was seen for the overall frequency of minimalised descriptions.

CHAPTER 6: FINDINGS — CLASS C

In this chapter, I present the findings from the data collected from the participants of Class C, those who did not receive explicit instruction of the target forms until *after* they had performed the main task. As detailed in section 2.4.5, there are some who argue that any explicit focus on language in classroom instruction only belongs after learners have completed a task (Shintani, 2016; Skehan, 2014; Willis & Willis, 2007). It is claimed that the teaching of specific linguistic forms prior to the task will divert learners' attention away from meaning during their task interaction, consequently being at odds with the core meaning-based principles of TBLT.

Prior to the task, along with the other schema-building activities, the Class C participants listened to a recording of the model task and answered some comprehension questions (see Figure 3.1). After performing the main task, they were given the LFS materials and completed the same exercises and practice activities as Class A and B did before and during the task.

Following the structure of the previous two findings chapters, I have divided the current one into two main sections for the CT (6.1) and DP (6.2) tasks, respectively. Within each section, I first describe the holistic analysis and then seek to explain the findings more fully through the interaction analysis. These are followed by section 6.3, in which I describe the findings from the uptake reports.

6.1 CINEMA TRIP TASKS

In this section, I first present the holistic results of the main CT task, focusing on whether — given the absence of the LFS — the Class C participants used any of the target forms, and, if not, what forms or strategies were used instead. There were 21 of a possible 22 participants present for the class in which the data collection took place, so they could be evenly divided into seven groups of three. In the interaction analysis, I focus on two salient findings from the data: First, I look at unexpected uses of target forms by some of the participants. Next, I examine a representative case to see the other strategies that were used to propose ideas for the group's day trip to the cinema. Finally, I present the results from the repeat tasks and describe the apparent medium-term impact of the LFS.

6.1.1 Frequency of target form use

The absence of the LFS before or during the main task led to a fundamental difference with the data collected from Class A and B. Given the results of the pilot study, which indicated that learners in this context do not readily produce appropriate suggestion phrases when required, it was not anticipated that many target forms would be observed.

Table 6.1 shows the results obtained for the 21 participants. The total and mean number of TFOs (79, mean=3.8) were comparable to Class A (73, mean=4.3) and the post-LFS phase of Class B (69, mean=3.8), superficially suggesting that the learners carried out the task in a similar way. The Class C TFOs were mostly filled by preference statements (38%) and minimalised structures (30.4%). However, for thirteen of the 79 TFOs (16.5%), the participants actually supplied target suggestion

phrases. There were also some instances of appropriate alternatives (6.3%) and bald statements (8.9%).

Table 6.1
Target form use by Class C in the CT main task

Group number	TFOs	TFUs	Alt	Min	BS	PS
1	10	1*	0	3	1	5
MH	5	0	0	3	1	1
MM	3	1	0	0	0	2
SS	2	0	0	0	0	2
2	15	7	2	3	1	2
HT	4	2	0	1	0	1
MI	1	0	0	0	0	1
SM	10	5	2	2	1	0
3	9	0	2	3	2	2
MS	2	0	0	1	0	1
RH	6	0	2	2	1	1
YW	1	0	0	0	1	0
4	11	0	0	4	2	5
AN	4	0	0	1	0	3
NS	2	0	0	2	0	0
YT	5	0	0	1	2	2
5	9	0	0	3	1	5
AM	4	0	0	1	0	3
ET	4	0	0	2	1	1
TF	1	0	0	0	0	1
6	10	0	0	4	0	6
AY	6	0	0	2	0	4
KI	3	0	0	2	0	1
TN	1	0	0	0	0	1
7	10	5*	1	4	0	5
KT	3	1	0	2	0	0
MY	9	3	0	2	0	4
NN	3	1	1	0	0	1
Totals	79	13	5	24	7	30
Mean	3.8	0.6	0.2	1.1	0.3	1.4
SD	2.5	1.3				
Proportion of TFOs (%)	16.5	6.3	30.4	8.9	38.0	

Notes. Alt = Alternatively filled TFOs; Min = minimalised structures; BS = bald statements; PS = preference statements, * denotes an error with a target form.

6.1.2 Interaction analysis

In this section, I begin by taking a closer look at the way participants used the target forms and comment on their orientation towards meaning. I also present a detailed analysis of one group's task

interaction with particular reference to the alternative approaches to making suggestions that they took having had no pre-task instruction of suggestion phrases.

6.1.2.1 Use of target forms

Arguably a surprising feature of the data shown in Table 6.1 is the number of TFUs. This was unanticipated due to their general absence in the pilot study, the pre-task phase of Class B, and Class D, and is worth examining more closely. As Excerpt 6.1 shows for Group 1, MM uses "why don't" to suggest an eating place (line 78). However, although they were to be dining together, MM uses the second person pronoun instead of the first-person plural pronoun *we*; thus, the utterance sounds slightly odd, and it is likely that MM had internalised the *why don't you* chunk in her previous learning. Despite the error, the suggestion is delivered quite fluently without the stilted delivery often seen by the Class A and B (post-LFS phase) participants.

Excerpt 6.1 (SC/G1/MT)

71 MH: =hm:: we-we eat in- in (1.0) in home- (..) in home lunch. we eat
72 lunch in home
73 SS: hm: so after ah: watching movie, (..) uh we want- uh I want to go
74 (..) [eat dinner
75 MH: [I have no
76 MH: I have no money so please (1.0) not expensive
77 SS: [ah::
78 MM: [why don't you go to (.) Macdonald? Macdonald.
79 SS: oh it's very (.) cheap

In Group 2, there were seven TFUs, demonstrating that at least some of the members were already proficient with suggestion phrases. A closer look reveals that five of the TFUs were made by one individual — participant SM. In fact, SM was a particularly proficient and highly motivated student who had intentions of joining a study abroad programme in the United States the following year. He seemed comfortable with using *let's* and *how about* to make suggestions, as in the fairly fluent examples shown in Excerpt 6.2 and 6.3. Elsewhere in his task performance, SM made two more *let's* suggestions, and one more with *how about*, none of which contained any disfluency markers of note.

Excerpt 6.2 (SC/G2/MT)

01 SM: how about going to cinema (.) to watch the movie? (4.5) eh? wh-
02 why?
03 HT: o-okay.
04 SM: okay?
05 MI: okay.

Excerpt 6.3 (SC/G2/MT)

144 SM: hm (2.0) I- I think- (2.0) ah I want to (..) sleep
145 HT: sleep hehe
146 SM: as possible as late so
147 HT: so
148 SM: let- (.) let's get together (.) at (1.5) eleven thirty

In the same group, HT also used *how about* on two occasions to make suggestions. The first, shown in line 57 of Excerpt 6.4, was delivered very fluently, with only a micro-pause after the suggestion stem. The second was part of a co-constructed utterance with MI, the third member of the group. This can be seen in lines 131 to 133 of Excerpt 6.5. The false start can be probably attributed to HT being unsure of the actual place to meet rather than the production of the suggestion, which is delivered without any other hesitation markers.

Excerpt 6.4 (SC/G2/MT)

53 SM: I think the final time is (.) too late
 54 HT: too late
 55 SM: hm
 56 MI: yes
 57 HT: how about (.) the first time?
 58 SM: okay

Excerpt 6.5 (SC/G2/MT)

124 HT: where- (..) where will we meet?
 125 SM: uh (3.5) er (3.0) er where (.) do you live?
 126 HT: I live in Kyoto
 127 SM: Kyoto? (..) where?
 128 MI: I live in Kobe
 129 SM: Kobe. me too Kobe. oh (..) you should- ah
 130 (2.0)
 131 HT: how about- eh::
 132 MI: Umeda station
 133 HT: how about meeting at Umeda station, Hankyu

Finally, in Group 7, there were four more instances of target forms being used. This group had three members: KT, NN and MY. KT fluently used *let's*, albeit erroneously, to begin the task, as shown in Excerpt 6.6. MY also made two fluent deliveries of *let's* during the task. Later, NN used *what about* to suggest a day, as shown in line 20 of Excerpt 6.7. Although the suggestion was preceded by a lengthy pause, there were no other disfluency markers.

Excerpt 6.6 (SC/G7/MT)

01 KT: let's trip to the cinema (.) this weekend. (1.5) so, (4.0) ah:
 02 (5.0) so er:
 03 (12.0)
 04 NN: whe- when do you want to go (.) to (.) see a movie?

Excerpt 6.7 (SC/G7/MT)

18 MY: Sunday? I can't go to cinema Sunday hehe *ikehen* {T:I can't go}
 19 (4.0)
 20 NN: what about Tuesday? (..) what about Tuesday?
 21 MY: okay Tuesday is okay.

Although it was surprising to see this number of TFOs, it allowed for a comparison to be made with regard to the manner in which they were delivered. For the Class C participants, having had no

instruction of these target suggestion phrases, it can be assumed that their orientation was towards meaning and task completion and that these forms were part of their existing L2 knowledge or mined from the listening model. As a result, there were no significant disfluencies around the target forms, the feature that was so typical of those participants in Class A who did the task directly after the LFS.

These data also illustrate how within any group of seemingly homogeneous learners, there will also be some outliers. It once more supports Kumaravadivelu's (2006) assertion that it is individual differences between students that affect task outcomes more than other factors. In the case of these classes, SM clearly has fairly solid implicit knowledge of at least two of the target forms. It seems that HM also is quite comfortable with using *how about*, even using it with an -ing form rather than a basic noun phrase, which may be more straightforward for some learners.

6.1.2.2 Use of alternative forms — a group case analysis

The following analysis looks at the task interactions of the three members of Group 1. It provides an illustration of the typical way in which many of the Class C participants proposed ideas throughout the task. While there is one, albeit inaccurate, attempt at a target suggestion phrase from the LFS (discussed in Excerpt 6.1), the other nine TFOs were all filled using different structures and/or strategies. In this description, each of these TFOs are shown in bold type. The first segment shows the group discussing the day on which to go. SS uses "I want" to convey his preference for "Saturday", to which MM and MH immediately accept.

01 MH: day.
 02 SS: [hm
 03 MM: [er
 04 MH: hm I don't want to- want to (go) on (.) Sunday
 05 (2.0)
 06 SS: ah me too. (2.0) **I want to go (..) hm: on Saturday.**
 07 MM: I want to go on (Saturday).
 08 MH: Sun- Saturday, okay Saturday
 09 SS: okay Saturday

The next topic discussed was the meeting place. In line 12, MH initially begins to ask a question to elicit suggestions; however, she changes her mind and makes a bald statement of her intention to meet at "Umeda". There follows some negotiation to establish mutual understanding before MH uses a minimalised structure to suggest a specific part of the station.

12 MH: ah where- where hm: (1.5) **I will go to (.) Umeda**
 13 MM: me too
 14 SS: ah station Umeda?
 15 MH: Umeda station?
 16 MM: Umeda station
 17 SS: okay
 18 MM: okay
 19 MH: **south- south gate?**
 20 MM: ah yes=
 21 SS: =ah yes south gate

The next segment shows the exchange regarding the meeting time. In line 29, MH makes a minimalised suggestion (or it might be better classed as a request) to meet in the afternoon. Later, in line 36, MM makes an "I want" statement to put forward a more concrete meeting time, which is again accepted by the other two group members.

24 MH: =when?
 25 SS: ah:
 26 MM: uh:
 27 (4.5)
 28 SS: ah:
 29 MH: I am very far (...) so (1.5) **please (.) in afternoon?**
 30 MM: ah
 31 SS: oh:
 32 MM: okay okay
 33 SS: okay okay. I want sleep (...) hehe in er: morning.
 34 MH: hm
 35 (2.5)
 36 MM: **I want (.) to (.) go- eto (1.5) about (2.0) two o'clock**
 37 MH: two o'clock?
 38 SS: two o'clock?
 39 MH: eto hm well um Umeda south gate (.) two o'clock?
 40 MM: yes
 41 SS: yes, okay okay

The next topic discussed was the film itself. In line 46, MM makes an "I want" statement to express his preference for "Doraemon", and, once again, it is accepted immediately by the other members of the group. MH then uses a minimalised structure — possibly intended as a suggestion — to ask which version of the film to see. It is decided to see the 2D version of the film, and, as there is only one showing available, the discussion of the showing time in lines 54 to 56 is simply confirmation.

44 MH: what movie we (...) watch?
 45 SS: hm:
 46 MM: **I want to watch (.) Doraemon**
 47 MH: Doraemon
 48 SS: Doraemon
 49 MH: **3D?**
 50 MM: no. 3D is
 51 SS: hm [expensive
 52 MM: [expensive so I don't want
 53 MH: okay okay. (2.5) i- it start eto eh:
 54 MM: two o'clock
 55 MH: eto two o'clock- two o'clock er fifteen?
 56 SS: fifteen
 57 MH: okay

The final topic discussed by Group 1 concerned their dinner plans. In lines 71-72, MH states that they will eat their lunch at home, which SS then adds to by using an "I want" statement to propose eating an evening meal after the film. It is during the following exchange that MM uses the *why don't* suggestion discussed above.

69 MH: showing eating.
 70 SS: ah: hm:
 71 MH: **we-we eat in- in (1.0) in home- (...) in home lunch. we eat home**
 72 **in home**
 73 SS: hm: **so after ah watching movie, (...) uh we want- uh I want to go**
 74 **(...) [eat dinner**
 75 MH: [I have no
 76 MH: I have no money so please (1.0) not expensive
 77 SS: [ah::
 78 MM: **[why don't you go to (.) Macdonald? Macdonald.**
 79 SS: oh it's very (.) cheap
 80 MH: I never go
 81 MM: it very cheap
 82 SS: hm
 83 MH: *eto* Macdonald?
 84 MM: Macdonald
 85 SS: Macdonald

Overall, Group 1's task performance is a representative case for Class C; that is, rather than the consistent use of target forms used in Class A and B (post-LFS phase), the participants relied on their own linguistic resources with a high prevalence of minimalised structures alongside bald and preference statements. While the latter two may often be grammatically and lexically acceptable, their pragmatic appropriacy is sometimes more questionable. Using "I want to watch Doraemon" or "I will go to Umeda" gives little space for an interlocutor to refuse the suggestion without damaging *face* (Brown & Levinson, 1987). For this reason, the teaching of appropriate suggestion phrases might be a suitable target for explicit post-task instruction; indeed, this was the next stage in the instructional sequence for Class C.

6.1.2.3 Summary

In this section, I have described how the Class C participants performed the CT task without receiving either pre- or during-task explicit instruction of forms. The data showed that while the most common means for filling TFOs was to make preferences statements or simply to use minimalised structures, there were some participants who supplied the target forms that had yet to be taught. Moreover, these TFUs were delivered with high levels of fluency, indicating that they were part of these participants' existing L2 knowledge, in contrast to the more hesitant productions seen in Class A and B (post-LFS phase).

6.1.3 Repeat tasks

In this section, I present the findings from the repeat tasks. Unlike the previous two chapters, the repeat performances that I describe here contain the first task interactions following the LFS. I first present the holistic findings and then focus on some individual cases in the interaction analysis, which illustrate some of the typical patterns observed in response to the previous week's post-task LFS. Of the 22 learners in Class C, 19 were present in both data collection sessions, and it is their data alone which are considered here.

6.1.3.1 Holistic findings

The comparative data for the main and repeat tasks are shown in Table 6.2. Whereas in Class A and B the number of TFOs did not change greatly between the main and repeat tasks, for Class C there were considerably more TFOs in the repeat performances, indicating that the participants were discussing the topic more deeply, or at least not simply accepting the first proposal for each topic. There was also a notable increase in the proportion of TFUs, and the accuracy with which they were supplied did not decline. This finding indicates that, for at least some participants, medium-term acquisition occurred along with a shift in orientation towards the target forms. The repeat task also saw a decrease in minimalisation, suggesting some medium-term effect of the post-task LFS, possibly related to orientation and/or acquisition. Finally, although the number of appropriate alternatively filled TFOs decreased, the proportion of bald and preference statements stayed roughly the same, with preference statements remaining the dominant strategy for suggestion TFOs.

Table 6.2
Forms supplied in TFOs across the main and repeat tasks by Class C (n=19)

	TFOs	TFUs	TF Acc (%)	Alt	Min	BS	PS
Main task	74	12 (16.2%)	91.7	5 (6.8%)	21 (28.4%)	7 (9.5%)	30 (40.5%)
Repeat task	102	35 (34.3%)	91.4	1 (1.0%)	18 (17.6%)	6 (5.9%)	42 (41.2%)

Notes. TF Acc = Target form accuracy; Alt = alternatively filled TFOs using *be*; Min = minimalised structures; BS = bald statements; PS = preference statements. Numbers shown in brackets denote the proportion of the TFO total.

In the main task, there were five participants that used the target forms in some capacity. This number rose to twelve in the repeat task (curiously, two participants — MM and MY — that used target forms in the main task did not do so in the repeat performance). Table 6.3 shows the types and accuracy of target suggestions used, and it tells a familiar story with *how about* and *let's* being the most common, making up the majority of TFUs. There were a few instances of the other forms, but *we could*, once again, had no uses in the repeat task. The LFS seems to have awakened latent knowledge of forms the participants have learned and used in the past. At the same time, it may have shown them how this knowledge can be applied by demonstrating the ways in which these forms can be used in context.

Table 6.3
Suggestion phrases used in the Class C CT repeat task

Phrase	Total attempts	Correctly used	Incorrectly used
how about	16	15	1
it might be good	1	1	-
let's	11	10	1
shall we	3	3	-
we could	-	-	-
what about	2	2	-
why don't	2	1	1
Total	35	32	3

6.1.3.2 Case analyses

In this section, I describe some individual cases and how they appeared to respond to the post-task LFS, as manifested in their repeat performances. Following the same pattern of the other classes, there was a high degree of individual difference between the participants of Class C. There were five participants that did not use any target forms in the main task and continued to exclusively use alternative strategies in the repeat task too (AM, AN, ET, MI, and TF). AN is probably the best case of this to describe as she was presented with the nine TFOs during the repeat task. Box 6.1 shows the forms that AN supplied for the TFOs in both the main and repeat tasks. In the main task, she used a preference statement on three occasions (examples M1, M2, and M3), and a minimalised structure (M4) once to propose her ideas. In the repeat task, she used an assortment of preferences statements (examples R1, R3, R5, and R6) and minimalised structures (R2, R4, R7, and R9), along with a single bald statement (R8). For participants such as AN, there was no evidence of medium-term acquisition and/or an orientation towards the target forms. Additionally, there was no clear sign of the post-task LFS reducing minimalisation in the repeat task.

Box 6.1

TFOs by Class C participant AN in the main and repeat CT tasks

Main task	Repeat task
M1 I want to watch- <i>i</i> (.) Expen:dibles 3	R1 hm:: (..) I want to go: (1.0) eh: this week,
M2 I want to eat- <i>o</i> (2.0) omuraisu	R2 o:n Saturday.
M3 I want to: (.) go shopping (.) before (.) movie	R3 I want to watch- <i>i</i> Expendibles 3
M4 so: (1.0) three o'clock	R4 five- <i>u</i> five o'clock
	R5 I want to: go: (1.5) [go:[...]later
	R6 hm: I like- <i>u</i> omrice
	R7 eight- <i>o</i> o'clock.
	R8 I will go: your home. (1.0) ah home <i>chau</i> [...]Hankyu line
	R9 so: (3.5) four o'clock

Conversely, there were four learners (MH, RH, YW, and YT) that did not use any target forms in the main task, yet they appeared to actively produce them in the repeat task. The TFOs from YT's task performances, shown in Box 6.2, are especially illustrative of this pattern of use. In the main task, YT used preferences statements (M1 and M2), a minimalised structure (M3), and bald statements (M4 and M5) when she proposed ideas. In the repeat task, there were still examples of preferences statements (R3 and R4) and a minimalised structure (R7), but there were also some suggestions and other language from the LFS. For example, in R1, YT began the task by using a target form, albeit with a morphology error. Then, in R2 and R5, he used two different target suggestions phrases, and, as he used the target forms, there is evidence of an orientation towards their production with the variety of disfluency markers present. YT is not only aiming to reproduce one of the previous week's target forms but he seems intent on using a variety of them to display his productive knowledge. For participants like YT, the post-task LFS did not completely stop them from using alternative strategies, which, of course, may be perfectly appropriate at times anyway; nonetheless, there was evidence of medium-term acquisition with the accurate use of target forms. The very fact that the target forms were used indicates an orientation towards them, which, in turn, served to reduce the degree of minimalisation found in YT's task interaction.

Box 6.2

TFOs by Class C participant YT in the main and repeat CT tasks

Main task	Repeat task
M1 I want to: watch Twilight Sasarasaya	R1 let's talking
M2 I want to eat (..) after (..) movie	R2 e:to: hehe shall we go to (..) cinema?
M3 abou:t eight o'clock?	R3 I:- (1.5) I: (1.5) hm. (3.0) hm, I want ah: Sunday.
M4 I eat pasta	R4 I want to watch (.) Twilight Sa-Sa- Sasarasaya
M5 so (..) we go Italian	R5 okay eh: (..) how bout dinner?
	R6 I- (1.5) I suggest[...]Italian
	R7 eh in front of (.) Umeda station?

As described above, a surprising finding from the main task was the six participants that used the target forms prior to the LFS. Their repeat performances were interesting in that two of them (MM and MY) did not use the target forms at all, but the other three (HT, NN, and SM) used them almost exclusively when TFOs presented themselves (one of the six participants was absent from the repeat task data collection session). The case of NN, shown in Box 6.3, illustrates this finding clearly.

Box 6.3

TFOs by Class C participant NN in the main and repeat CT tasks

Main task	Repeat task
M1 what about Tuesday? (...) what about Tuesday?	R1 I want to see: (...) Interstellar.
M2 I want to see Expendibles 3	R2 what about uh movie (...) that (...) will start (1.0) eto: at one (...) o'clock
M3 I think eleven forty five is (...) best	R3 what about lunch? R4 how about (1.0) okonomiyaki? R5 how about sushi? R6 it might be good to: meet at-o (...) eh: twelve (...) thirty

In the main task, NN used *what about* accurately to make one suggestion M1. In the other two TFOs, he used different strategies, although both seem reasonable choices. In the repeat task, after an initial preference statement R1, NN used a target suggestion phrase in each of the following five TFOs (R2-R6). Although very fluent, the variety of forms suggests that NN oriented towards target form production in the repeat task, and the use of *it might be good* possibly shows some medium-term acquisition of the taught forms.

6.1.3.3 Summary

To summarise, the repeat task data provides evidence that medium-term acquisition may have occurred and that the frequency of minimalised structures reduced for Class C as a whole. Also, the qualitative interaction analysis showed some evidence of orientation towards target form production. However, these features were not seen in all interactions, with some participants continuing in much the same manner as in their main task, that is, not using target forms and continuing to follow other strategies when they proposed ideas to their interlocutors. For these participants, the LFS seemed to have little or no effect on their subsequent performance.

6.2 DESCRIBING PEOPLE TASKS

In this section, I present the data for the main and repeat DP tasks. In the holistic analysis of the main task, I show the frequency and accuracy with which the target forms were used when the opportunities arose and the amount of minimalisation that occurred. In the interaction analysis, I give concrete examples of the ways in which the Class C participants attempted to describe their pictures during the task. For the repeat task description, I first present a quantitative comparison with the main task, with specific attention to accuracy and minimalisation. This is followed by an examination of some specific cases which shed light on the use of target forms during the repeat task and how it was influenced by the previous week's post-task LFS.

6.2.1 Holistic analysis

6.2.1.1 Frequency and accuracy of target forms

The holistic data for the 18 Class C participants that were present for the main task is shown in Table 6.4. First, it can be seen that there was some disparity between the number of TFOs each participant had. Although the mean number of TFOs was just over 13, the range was quite substantial. For example, for the pair in Group 2, there was a combined group total of only 14 TFOs. In contrast, the two participants in Group 8 — AN and TF — had 28 and 29 TFOs, respectively, giving a much larger group total of 57 TFOs. They took a very thorough approach towards the task and described several aspects of each picture quite carefully. Even though they only managed to complete 10 of the 12 twelve pictures (class time actually ran out), they easily made the most descriptions out of the nine groups in Class C (and indeed in any of the four classes). While the TFOs in Group 8 were evenly divided between the two participants, this was not always the case, and it seems that intra-dyad dynamics had an impact on the number of TFOs which an individual faced. For example, in Group 1, MH tended to take a lead role in the picture descriptions while TN was mostly restricted to the role of responder.

Regarding the use of the TFUs, the Class C participants (like those in the pre-LFS phase of Class B, and Class D) did not receive any instruction prior to embarking on the main task. Despite this factor, the greater degree of intrinsic task-essentialness, compared to the CT task, that this task possessed pushed the participants towards producing present continuous or *have (got)* structures when describing the pictures. In fact, 11 of the 18 participants produced at least one accurate present continuous description, although ten of these participants also made a number of inaccurate attempts too, suggesting their control of this form was far from complete, as predicted by the pilot study. Nonetheless, it was not surprising that the overall number of accurate present continuous descriptions was somewhat low at 29.5%. For *have (got)*, there were 27 attempts to use this structure, of which 13 were successful, giving an accuracy rate of 50%. However, of these 27 TFUs, none were attempts to use *have got* (including *got*), they all either used only *have* only or were minimalised structures that contained no verb. This provides further evidence of the lack of productive knowledge of this structure among the participants and that those uses in Class A and B indicate an orientation to form. Finally, the number of alternative descriptions was negligible at only nine.

Table 6.4
Class C participants' use of the targets forms in the DP main task

Group (Participant)	Total TFOs	Total TFUs	present continuous			have (got)			UTF	Alt
			TFUs	(O)	(X)	TFUs	(O)	(X)		
1 (MH)	13	12	1	0	1	0	0	0	11	1
1 (TN)	3	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0
2 (SM)	7	7	7	7	0	0	0	0	0	0
2 (AM)	7	7	6	3	3	1	1	0	0	0
3 (MS)	16	16	14	0	14	0	0	0	2	0
3 (AF)	4	4	3	0	3	0	0	0	1	0
4 (MM)	20	20	17	5	12	3	0	3	0	0
4 (KT)	4	4	3	0	3	1	0	1	0	0
5 (KI)	10	10	8	0	8	0	0	0	2	0
5 (MY)	13	12	11	0	11	0	0	0	1	1
7 (HT)	14	12	11	8	3	1	0	1	0	2
7 (NS)	15	14	10	2	8	3	0	3	1	1
8 (AN)	28	27	21	3	18	6	5	1	0	1
8 (TF)	29	28	19	11	8	8	5	3	1	1
9 (MI)	13	13	11	3	8	2	0	2	0	0
9 (RH)	23	22	20	4	16	0	0	0	2	1
10 (ET)	8	8	6	3	3	1	1	0	1	0
10 (NN)	9	8	5	2	3	2	1	1	1	1
Total	236	227	173	51	122	28	13	15	26	9
Mean	13.1	12.6	9.6	2.8	6.8	1.6	0.7	0.8	1.4	0.5
SD	7.8	7.5								
Proportion of TFOs (%)		96.2	73.3			11.9			11.0	3.8
Accuracy (%)		28.2		29.5			46.4			

Notes. (O) = Correct use; (X) = incorrect use; UTF = unclear target forms; Alt = alternative descriptions using *be*.

6.2.1.2 Minimalisation

Of the 227 TFUs in the Class C data set, 139, or 61.5% were minimalised versions of target forms. Perhaps unsurprisingly, this proportion was similar to that seen in the pre-LFS phase of Class B, but much higher than in the post-task phase and in the Class A data set.

The degree of minimalisation for the present continuous was calculated to be 3.0, meaning there was 1.0 constituent omitted for each attempt at its use. This gives a 75% completion rate, similar to the 75.8% seen in the pre-LFS phase of Class B, but lower than both Class A (82.5%) and the post-LFS phase of Class B (91.1%).

Class C is the first to be described where the participants completed the whole task without any explicit instruction of the target forms. The quantitative data which I have presented support Seedhouse's (1999) claim that unfocused task interaction is abundant with minimalised structures as learners orient towards the task and the exchange of meaning.

6.2.1.3 Summary

The holistic analysis showed that there were substantial differences in the number of TFOs faced by the Class C participants, and, due to the task-essentialness of this task, there was a large number of TFUs. Some participants successfully supplied target forms on occasion, but the accuracy and completeness of utterances were inconsistent. Overall, the accuracy was relatively low and the prevalence and degree of minimalised structures was high, when compared with Class A and B (post-LFS).

6.2.2 Interaction analysis

In this section, I describe how the Class C participants filled the task's TFOs. First, I will detail some of the minimalised structures that characterised much of the Class C interaction before looking at some other errors that occurred when learners made picture descriptions. Finally, I will show how a small number of the Class C participants were apparently already quite comfortable with the selected target forms for this task.

Not surprisingly, many of the target forms supplied were incomplete or contained other errors. This was found in both present continuous and *have (got)* description attempts. Possibly the most striking feature of these TFUs was the frequency and degree of minimalised structures. Box 6.4 shows three examples of the most extreme form of minimalisation, in which the participants only used the single crucial lexical element to convey their meaning. In examples (1) and (2), it is even unclear whether the most appropriate target forms would be present continuous or *have (got)*. Such indexicality indicates an orientation towards task and meaning, and outside the context of this particular task, their meaning would be difficult to understand. However, within this specific task, participants could understand each other's meaning clearly.

Box 6.4

Descriptions by Class C participants in the DP main task

Descriptions	Group
(1) MH: eh number five, er dot- dot-o (.) t-shirt.	1
(2) KI: ru- running-u (.) shirt. (3.5) half-u pants.	5
(3) TF: white-o (..) white hair.	8

The utterances in Box 6.5 are examples where the -ing morpheme was omitted from the present continuous descriptions. This was a common type of minimalised structure found in the data set.

Box 6.5

Descriptions by Class C participants in the DP main task

Descriptions	Group
(1) MY: one, (3.5) he- he wear, (.) check t-shirt	5
(2) NS: e:to the ma:n (1.5) wea:r stripe (.) shirts.	7
(3) RH: er:: next (.) picture number eight, (3.0) uh: (3.5) a lady, (1.0) wear: (1.0) black, (..) and plain, (.) parker.	9

Next, Box 6.6 shows a set of less minimalised structures where the participants omitted only the auxiliary *be* from their present continuous descriptions. This was also common in the data set.

Box 6.6

Descriptions by Class C participants in the DP main task

Descriptions	Group
(1) MS: number one, (2.0) a: man, (..) wearing stripe shirt	5
(2) AM: number two, (2.0) two boys (.) talking	2
(3) MS: okay, (1.0) number three, (2.0) [a gir:l [(.) calling.	3
(4) MY: four e:to (1.5) the boy, (.) sitting the (1.0) hm? (.) chair- chair- bench	5
(5) MI: the girl, (1.0) eh:: (1.0) wearing (..) black dot.	9

As discussed, most of the inaccurate descriptions contained omissions of key elements. However, there were some other descriptions that would not be considered accurate for different reasons, which are shown in Box 6.7. In example (1), and indeed many of her descriptions, MM produced fragments of complex sentences containing relative pronouns. This was the same kind of error as the one made by HT in example (2). In example (3), KT produced a rather odd sounding noun phrase using "listening music" as a modifier. Finally, example (4) shows another fragmented sentence that could benefit by having existential *there is* preceding the description of the "taller man".

Box 6.7

Descriptions by Class C participants in the DP main task

Descriptions	Group
(1) MM: the man, [...]who is reading books.	4
(2) HT: ah: (2.0) a wo- woman who wear:s er (..) white- (1.0) white-o? dress.	7
(3) KT: =so, my:- my photo- my: number four photo eh:: listening (.) music man	4
(4) RH: picture number one, eh: (2.5) (taller) man, (.) with (1.0) uh: striped, (1.0) half (.) shirt.	9

Finally, it is useful to point out the accurate use of the target forms by a few outstanding participants within Class C. As described in 6.1.2.1 for the CT main task, there were some participants that could

already use the target forms quite accurately. One such participant was SM. For the DP task, SM also demonstrated his comfort with the target forms. As shown above in Table 6.4, although there were only seven TFOs, he supplied an accurate present continuous description for all of them. Participant HT's use of suggestion phrases in the CT task was also highlighted above in 6.1.2.1. While HT's 14 TFOs were not flawless like SM, eight of his eleven present continuous TFUs were accurate, and some of them contained an extra level of complexity. Box 6.8 shows a selection of these accurate, sometimes more complex, and often quite fluent deliveries of present continuous descriptions by SM and HT.

Box 6.8

Descriptions by Class C participants in the DP main task

Descriptions	Group
(1) SM: number one, (3.0) a man, (.) is standing, (.) near the tree	2
(2) SM: a woman is: standing (..) with the glasses, and it- the weather is: sunny.	2
(3) HT: oh: eh: (3.0) eh: a boy sitting- eh sitting on the be: nch is lis- listening to music	7
(4) HT: eh: (2.0) eh: a girl wi: th black hair, (1.0) eh: (.) is ca- calling	7

In this sub-section, I have shown some of the ways in which the TFOs were filled by Class C participants. Although there were a number of accurate uses of the target forms, minimalised structures were rife, and a variety of other erroneous utterances were also present. It is important to reiterate that such examples of inaccurate and often minimalised descriptions occurred for almost all participants of Class A and B. However, the quantitative findings show that they were more prevalent for these participants of Class C who had not received any explicit instruction.

6.2.3 Repeat tasks

Compared to Class A and B, there were more cases of missing data for the participants of Class C, due to technical problems and absences. Of the 22 potential participants in this class, data for four could not be collected for the main task, and data for a different three participants were missing for the repeat task. Therefore, in the following section, only data from the 15 participants who attended both lessons are considered.

6.2.3.1 Holistic findings

The holistic data comparing the main and repeat tasks are shown in Table 6.5. The first point of interest is the marked increase in TFUs from the main task (185 with 6 alternative forms) to the repeat task 214 with 22 alternative forms). This continues the trend seen for the DP task in Class A and B and will be returned to in Chapter 7. Not only did the quantity of TFOs change but the forms which were supplied for them did too. The number of present continuous uses actually decreased in the

repeat task, although on those occasions when participants did attempt it, they were much more accurate than in the main task. This might suggest that those participants who were not confident in their ability to produce present continuous descriptions simply avoided them and supplied another form instead. The rise in accuracy was also reflected in the fall of the number of utterances from which the intended form could not be determined. These decreases were partially compensated for by the considerable increase in *have (got)* descriptions, which, like the present continuous descriptions, were used far more accurately. Of the 93 *have (got)* TFUs, 30 were actually instances which included *got*, a strong indication of an orientation towards target form production. The number of alternative forms also increased in the repeat task. These findings demonstrate a notable impact of the post-task LFS on medium-term acquisition and a beneficial effect on minimalisation.

Table 6.5

Target forms use in the main and repeat tasks for Class C participants (n=15)

	Total TFUs	TFU Acc (%)	PC TFUs	PC Acc (%)	H(G) TFUs	H(G) Acc (%)	UTF	Min.	CR (%)	Alt
Main task	185	25.9	141	28.4	21	42.9	23	116 (62.7%)	75.2	6
Repeat task	214	69.0	111	56.8	93	90.3	10	56 (26.3%)	87.0	22

Notes. Acc = Accuracy; PC = present continuous; UTF = unclear target form; H(G) = have (got); Min = minimalised structures; CR = completion rate of present continuous structures; Alt = alternative description using *be*. Numbers shown in brackets denote the proportion of the TFU total.

Table 6.6 shows the individual data for Class C, which, while displaying the now familiar pattern of individual differences, is more uniform than the equivalent data for Class A and B in that no participants regressed in terms of accuracy. (There was, however, one participant — AF — that failed to produce any accurate target forms in either the main or repeat task.) Also, there were two participants — SM and TF — that barely had any TFUs during their repeat performance; they seemed happy to allow their partner take the lead throughout the task and make almost all the descriptions. The remaining twelve participants all improved their accuracy with the target forms in the repeat task, indicating that the post-task LFS had a widespread impact.

Table 6.6

TFUs and accuracy for the main and repeat DP tasks for individual Class C participants

Participant	Main performance		Repeat performance		Accuracy change
	TFUs	Accuracy (%)	TFUs	Accuracy (%)	
AM	6	50	5	100	+50
AF	4	0	11	0	0
ET	8	50	14	100	+50
KI	10	0	13	46	+46
KT	4	0	15	87	+87
MH	12	0	20	25	+25
MS	16	0	29	97	+97
MM	20	25	31	81	+56
MY	12	0	19	16	+16
MI	13	23	8	100	+77
NN	8	38	15	93	+55
NS	14	14	13	46	+32
RH	22	18	18	94	+76
SM	8	100	1	100	0
TF	28	54	2	100	+46

6.2.3.2 Case analyses

In this section, I present some individual case analyses for representative Class C participants. As shown in Table 6.4, five of the participants (KI, KT, MH, MS, and MY) did not make a single accurate TFU in the main task, but in their repeat performances, various degrees of medium-term acquisition could be observed. Therefore, I take a closer look at the descriptions that some of these participants made, which illustrates how their use of the target forms changed from the main to the repeat task, and what this means for the effect of the post-task LFS on medium-term acquisition, minimalisation, and orientation. In this section, I also present the case of MM, who was representative of a group of participants that extensively used *have got* in the repeat task.

Individual case (1) — KI

KI is a good example of one of the participants that demonstrated clear improvement in the repeat performance. There were several examples in KI's two task performances which corresponded with each other, allowing a clear look at the development that took place. These are shown in Box 6.9. In the corresponding examples M1/R1 and M2/R2, KI's descriptions evolved from two different minimalised structures in the main task to complete and accurate examples of the present continuous in the repeat task.

The main task examples M3, M4, and M5 contain highly minimalised structures. In three roughly corresponding descriptions found in the repeat task (R3, R4, and R5), the utterances are more complete and more fully resembled present continuous utterances, barring the auxiliary *be* which was omitted in each case. While not perfect, they were an improvement on the previous week's attempts. Finally, in M6, KI's description is fragmented, and he seems unsure how to describe his picture. In the corresponding description in the repeat task R6, KI makes an accurate utterance using *have* (the only

issue remaining was the omitted indefinite article, but this was not explicitly part of the LFS), once more a demonstration of his improved performance.

This snapshot of target form use shows an apparent effect of the LFS on medium-term acquisition for KI, evidenced by increased accurate control of the target forms. This coincided with a reduction in the frequency and degree of minimalisation. Although these two effects indirectly suggest a shift in orientation, it was less easy to observe overt signs of an orientation to form (self-corrections or metatalk) in KI's repeat performance interaction. However, a close look reveals a number of hesitation markers before the target forms that were not present to the same extent in the main task, illustrated best by the corresponding examples of (M1/R1) and (M5/R5).

Box 6.9

Descriptions by Class C participant KI in the main and repeat DP tasks

Main task	Repeat task
M1 three, (1.0) the girl, (1.0) calling (..) now.	R1 okay (..) number: one, (1.0) she: (..) she: (2.0) she is-u (2.5) calling now.
M2 oh (..) di- different, (..) he: (1.0) read-o books	R2 he- (..) he is reading book. (..) (alone).
M3 number: nine, (3.0) the girl, (..) wear: (1.0) <i>nani kore?</i> {T:what's this} (1.0) s- strip- (1.0) dress.	R3 he- (1.5) she wearing-u stripe, (..) one piece.
M4 ru- running-u (..) shirt. (3.5) half-u pants.	R4 number: eight, (1.0) he- he: (1.0) he wearing-u check shirt-check (..) half shirt?
M5 wear (..) cap	R5 number nine, (3.5) he- (..) he wearing-u (1.0) glasses?
M6 the boy[...]and-o (2.0) bri:ng-u (1.5) wa-water	R6 number (..) six. (5.5) the boy (..) has (1.5) water bottle.

Individual case (2) — KT

In the main task, KT only had four TFOs, but he failed to make an accurate description in any of them. In the repeat performance, KT had 18 TFOs, 15 of which were filled by an attempt to use a target form, 13 of them accurate. Box 6.10 shows representative descriptions made by KT over the two task performances. Example M1 roughly corresponds with R1, R2, and R3 of the repeat performance in that KT used the lexical verb *wear* to describe clothing. While in the main task, KT omitted the auxiliary *be* from his description, his three corresponding utterances in the repeat performances were all accurate, indicating medium-term acquisition for present continuous. The self-corrections made in both R1 and R2 demonstrate a clear orientation towards the accurate production of this form. The disfluency markers in R3 may also be the result of his attention being directed towards form. Given that the error seen in the main task was an omission, the accurate descriptions in the repeat task contributed to a reduction in minimalisation.

Evidence of medium-term acquisition is also on display in M2 of the main task and three corresponding descriptions from the repeat task. In the main task, KT struggles to use *have* correctly to describe his picture. However, these problems disappeared one week later as he made three accurate descriptions using this form, as shown in R4, R5, and R6. The minimalised structure that KT produced as M3 from the main task also has a corresponding description in the repeat performance in which KT produced an accurate present continuous description, shown in R7, which contained another incidence of self-correction. This example demonstrates a reduction in minimalisation which was related to the overt orientation to form displayed by KT during his repeat task performance.

Box 6.10

Descriptions by Class C participant KT in the main and repeat DP tasks

Main task	Repeat task
M1 my first (.) picture is-u the man, er wearing-u: t-shirt, a:nd (pants) and a- a watch so (.) number same. same same	R1 so right boys: ha- ah: weari- is wearing-u (..) ah:: black tshirt. R2 s:o: ·hh uh half oh pants wearing-u (1.0) he is wearing half pants. R3 he- he's-u (.) wearing wat- oh oh oh glasses
M2 so broking-u umbrella (.) have? [...]this woman, eh: having-u: breaking umbrella.	R4 there is one girl, so she has:-u telephone? R5 so: (..) she has:-u (..) watch R6 so she has denim:,
M3 drinking er:: ah: juice. [oh:: this woman.	R7 drinking-u?- she is drinking-u juice:-u?

Individual case (3) — MM

MM is an example of a participant who demonstrated at least partial knowledge of both the target forms in the main task, and, unlike many of her peers, minimalisation was not really an issue for her. Indeed, as Table 6.4 above shows, 25% of her main task TFUs were accurate, and she made five accurate present continuous descriptions (including one with a self-correction indicating a general attention to form). Box 6.11 shows the way in which her descriptions developed over the two tasks. Whereas in the main task MM often inserted an unnecessary *who* between the subject and the auxiliary *be* (in ten of the 17 present continuous TFUs), in the repeat task this was not seen. On some occasions in the repeat task, MM used the target forms as taught in the LFS, as shown in the corresponding examples M1/R1, M2/R2, and M3/R3. However, MM did not consistently employ this strategy for all of the present continuous TFUs she was faced with in the repeat task. Examples M4 and R4 show corresponding descriptions, but this time MM uses existential *there* with ellipsed *who* is to make an alternative yet appropriate description in the repeat task. She uses another kind of existential *there* construction in R5 and R6; however, this time they would not be considered standard

use due to the word order of the subject and the -ing form (Swan, 2005b). Finally, there were two examples of MM using *have* in the main task in an -ing form. The corresponding examples M7/R7 and M8/R8 show how her *have* descriptions became more target-like in the repeat task as she adhered to the forms taught in the LFS.

Box 6.11

Descriptions by Class C participant MM in the main and repeat DP tasks

Main task	Repeat task
M1 eh: the woman, [...]who is (..) calling	R1 she is (.) calling (..) telephone.
M2 the man (.) who: wearing (2.0) T-shirt, [...]and (..) pants, and (..) watch	R2 he: (1.0) °eto° wearing- he's wearing (1.0) tie? and- black tie and, (1.5) [shirt
M3 the boy, [...]eh (.) who is wearing (.) stripe shirt,	R3 left boy (..) is wearing (.) border shirt
M4 the man, [...]who is reading books.	R4 eh: (..) there is (1.0) a boy. (2.0) reading book- (.) reading a book.
M5 the girl, [...]who: (.) is standing.	R5 there is (.) standing girl
M6 the boy, [...]who is (1.5) walking.	R6 there is (..) walking, (.) boy.
M7 she- she: having- she is having (.) bag.	R7 she has (1.0) er: bag
M8 (he is-) (.) his (.) right hand (.) having (.) mike.	R8 he has mike

As alluded to above, MM's main task performance was not devoid of self-corrections. She made three in total, showing that she was orienting towards general accuracy, even without the explicit instruction of the LFS. However, in the repeat task, MM made several more self-corrections during her performance. In addition to example R2 near the beginning of the interaction, she made a further eleven corrections during the remainder of the task, seven of which were directed at target form utterances. Excerpt 6.8 shows four such corrections over a short sequence of turns, one being a rare instance of peer correction. In line 96, MM makes a complete description where initially it appears she intended to simply give the minimised description "watch". Line 98 sees her making an unnecessary correction, changing "one" to "a" as the determiner for "tree". In lines 104 to 107, MM decides against trying to use what might actually be an accurate relative clause and instead uses an accurate present continuous utterance preceded by hesitation markers. Finally, there is another correction not directed at a target form with "glass" becoming "glasses".

Excerpt 6.8 (SC/G2/RT)

95 TF: =watch
96 MM: wa- he has watch oh: his (.) right hand,
97 TF: yes=
98 MM: =and (..) his background is (.) tr- eh: one tree- eh a tree,=
99 TF: =yeah=
100 MM: =and cloud.
101 TF: yes
102 MM: same
103 TF: eight (.) is (.) same.
104 MM: number nine (1.0) there is a (1.5) a (1.0) boy
105 TF: yeah
106 (2.5)
107 MM: who is- ah: eh he (1.0) 's wearing (.) glass- (1.0) glasses.
108 TF: hm:: hm?
109 MM: he is wearing glass.
110 TF: uh glasses? eh=
111 MM: =glasses, megane {T:glasses}
112 TF: ah eh: no
113 MM: no? ah okay
114 TF: don't wearing

Overall, the LFS appeared to affect MM's repeat task performance in several ways. While minimalisation was not a problem for MM in the main task, her accuracy was still quite low. The LFS seemed to have an impact on medium-term acquisition for MM, with a much higher proportion of target-like descriptions in the repeat task. Moreover, while MM demonstrated some orientation to form in the main task, this seemed to increase in the repeat task, with several repairs directed at the target forms.

Individual case (4) — MS

MS was another of those participants that failed to make a single accurate description in his 16 TFUs in the main task, usually due to omissions, yet, in the repeat task, he had an accuracy rate of 93% with 14 accurate present continuous and *have (got)* descriptions each. Therefore, MS was a further example of a participant that seemed to benefit from the LFS in terms of medium-term acquisition gains and reduction of minimalisation. A further interesting factor was his extensive and consistent use of *have got*, as opposed to only *have*.

In the main task, MS tended to attempt present continuous descriptions, invariably omitting the auxiliary *be*, and sometimes also the subject. There were two TFOs for which it was impossible to determine a target (such was the extent of the minimalisation) and there were no descriptions of permanent states (e.g. hair, eyes) which necessitate the use of *have (got)*. Examples (1) through (4) of Box 6.12 show some of the ways MS used *have got* in the repeat task. He used *have got* on three occasions to make descriptions of clothing along with 11 *have got* descriptions of permanent states. Example (4) contains a self-correction as he seems intent on producing complete *have got* utterances.

Box 6.12

Descriptions by Class C participant MS in the repeat DP task

Descriptions
(1) °oh° (.) she has got (.) white watch.
(2) sh- he: has got black tie, [...]hm: (2.5) white shirt[...]white pants
(3) she has got black hair
(4) black- (..) she has got black (.) short hair.

As mentioned earlier, *have got* did not appear in the pilot studies or in any participant's task interaction prior to the LFS across the four classes. The frequent use of this form by MS and others in Class C (e.g. ET and NN both used it on five occasions each) demonstrated both medium-term acquisition and an overt orientation towards its use, where *have* would probably be the default for these participants.

Individual case (5) — MY

While all of the Class C participants improved in the repeat task with regard to accuracy, there were still some very noticeable individual differences between them. One notable case was MY, who, although she did not make any accurate target form descriptions in the main task, only improved her accuracy by a comparatively small margin of 16% in the repeat task, in which the only accurate TFUs were three *have* descriptions. Box 6.13 shows some corresponding descriptions that MY made over the two tasks. In the main task, the most common way that MY made descriptions was to use *subject + infinitive (+ object)* as in examples M1 and M2. In the repeat task, she used the same structure on three occasions, as in example R1, but more often employed the form seen in example R2, which more closely resembles the target present continuous, albeit with the auxiliary *be* still omitted. Another instance of this form is shown in R3, in which MY makes a self-correction, changing "has" to "wearing", in an indication of orientation towards producing the present continuous accurately.

Box 6.13

Descriptions by Class C participant MY in the main and repeat DP tasks

Main task	Repeat task
M1 he- he wear, (.) check t-shirt	R1 he (.) wear white tshirt.
M2 eto (..) she:- ja the girl wear (1.0) dot t-shirt	R2 eh? she- (..) SHE wear- wearing (.) skirt
	R3 eto (2.0) woman- (..) a woman, [...]has- hm? (.) wea:ring black parker.
M3 the woman[...]bri:ng-u bag- (..) white bag	R4 a woman[...]and has-u ba- white and black- @white and black (.) er chau white bag@

The accurate descriptions in the repeat task were all made by using *have*. The roughly corresponding examples M3 and R4 give an indication of the way MY managed to produce her three target-like utterances.

Overall, MY did improve her performance in the repeat task, just not to the same extent as many of her peers. This improvement, along with the self-correction, suggests some orientation to form but also that she was not at the same developmental stage for this use of present continuous as some of the others in Class C.

6.2.3.3 Summary

To summarise, this section described data from the 15 participants that were present for both DP task data collection sessions. Unlike Class A and B, the number of TFOs increased considerably in the repeat task, and the same was found for the accuracy of the target forms. The amount of minimalisation decreased, with the number of target forms containing omissions reducing along with the degree of minimalisation, shown by the increased completion rate of present continuous descriptions. Overall, the previous week's post-task LFS appeared to have a beneficial effect on medium-term acquisition and minimalisation.

None of the individual participants of Class C saw a decrease in the accuracy of their target form use in the repeat task. However, there was, naturally, a degree of individual difference both in the extent of their improvement and the ways in which they approached the target forms in terms of minimalisation and orientation, with some participants seeming particularly oriented towards using the target forms fully and correctly.

6.3 UPTAKE REPORTS

Uptake of the target forms was again widespread with 20 of 21 participants present for the CT task, and 20 and the 22 for the DP task, reporting noticing the suggestion phrases and language for descriptions. A summary of the report data is shown in Table 6.7. The CT task results again look similar to Class A and B; it seems that the post-task LFS did not seem to alter the types of language points which the participants had in mind at the end of the lesson. All the grammar points directly referred to the target forms, but none of the vocabulary or pronunciation items did; therefore, 48.4% of the reported items were linked to the LFS. For the DP task, the data mirrored those of Class B; that is, there was a high proportion of vocabulary items from the pre-task activities reported (*dotted*, *floral*). It seems that it was the Class A participants who were the exception in not reporting many vocabulary items.

An interesting point about the Class C uptake reports was the sources of the language points. Whereas in Class A and B there were very few language points attributed to *students*, in Class C the proportion was higher. Indeed, there was actually a larger proportion of *student* sourced items than *materials* for both the CT and DP tasks. These items probably first appeared in the pre-task activities

(*horror, tragedy, plain, linen*), and it suggests that the lack of a pre- or during-task LFS somehow allowed or encouraged participants to recall these items more clearly at the end of the lesson.

Regarding the types of target forms, the Class C participants reported in the same way as Class A and B, stating that they noticed *how/what about, it might be good, and have got* most frequently. This partially supports the interaction data insofar as there was little sign of these forms in Class C's main task interactions (although, as detailed in 6.1.2.1, there were some target suggestions made by a limited number of participants).

Table 6.7
Types and sources of items from the Class C uptake reports

Number of reported items									
Language point						Source			
	G	V	P	<i>total</i>	<i>mean</i>	T	S	M	Total
CT task	46 (48.4%)	37 (38.9%)	12 (12.6%)	95	4.8	68 (60.7%)	24 (21.4%)	20 (17.9%)	112
DP task	29 (26.3%)	59 (53.6%)	22 (20.0%)	110	5.0	68 (61.3%)	23 (20.7%)	20 (18.0%)	111

Notes. G = Grammar; V = vocabulary; P = pronunciation; T = teacher; S = student; M = materials.

6.4 CLASS C FINDINGS REVIEW

The participants of Class C performed the initial tasks without any prior explicit teaching of potentially useful linguistic forms. Once the task was completed, they received the same instruction during the LFS that Class A had prior to, and Class B had during the main task. This is the kind of task sequencing that has been strongly advocated by prominent voices in the field of TBLT, who have argued that it allows undivided focus on meaning during the main pedagogic task, while the post-task instruction of specific linguistic forms facilitates future noticing.

The data obtained from the Class C participants certainly do not dispute this view. Naturally, the participants used their own resources to perform the initial tasks. With a few notable exceptions, they did not use the target forms accurately and instead relied on alternative forms and strategies, or often minimalised structures, to make the suggestions and picture descriptions to successfully complete the respective tasks. It is not controversial to say that the Class C participants were oriented towards meaning and task completion in the main task, and one consequence of this was the presence of the archetypal minimalisation and indexicality of the interaction.

One week later, in the repeat task, participants demonstrated that they had both retained and chosen to employ some of the language that was introduced during the LFS. Although there were the same individual differences seen in the other classes, almost all the participants improved their performance in the two repeat tasks. For the CT task, this was manifested by fewer minimalised and inappropriate suggestions, while an increase in accuracy was exhibited in the DP task. These findings suggest a degree of medium-term acquisition took place for most of the Class C participants. Further, in the task interaction of both repeat performances, the amount of minimalisation and indexicality

around the target forms was reduced. Finally, there were also indicators, for some participants, of deliberate attention to producing the target forms, suggesting that the post-task LFS influenced orientation to taught forms even a week after it was conducted.

CHAPTER 7: FINDINGS — CLASS D

In this chapter, I describe the findings from the last of the four classes of learner participants, Class D. Although they completed the same schema-building activities prior to the main task, these participants did not receive the explicit LFS instruction during the data collection period¹¹; therefore, the language they produced in both the main and repeat tasks was entirely from their own linguistic resources.

As well as providing a comparison group for data analytical purposes, the teaching approach that was operationalised in Class D certainly does reflect one utilised by some practitioners. Tasks might be used either as supplemental fluency-building activities that are employed alongside other classrooms procedures; alternatively, some teachers may prefer a more naturalistic approach to L2 acquisition. This kind of non-interventionist, or zero grammar (Ellis, 2005a), teaching approach has been advocated by some over many years, most famously in the early 1980s by Krashen and Terrell (1983). However, for the reasons outlined in 2.4.1, the arguments for its use do not seem as convincing as they might have done in past decades.

Like the previous findings chapters, I describe the *cinema trip* (7.1) and *describing people* (7.2) tasks separately, first using a more holistic, quantitative means of presenting the data, followed by a qualitative analysis of the task interaction. The conditions from which the main task data were collected were the same as Class C; that is, both sets of participants had not received any instruction before performing the task. For this reason, the presentation of the Class D findings is more akin to that of Class C, rather than Class A and B. Section 7.3 describes the data gathered from the uptake reports.

7.1 CINEMA TRIP TASKS

In this section, I report how the Class D participants filled the TFOs for the CT task. As examples of task interaction features have been described and illustrated in some detail in the earlier findings chapters, I only touch on relevant points of contrast in the following description. First, I look at the holistic findings of the main task before providing some brief examples of the major patterns of use. Of the 22 students enrolled on the course, 21 were present for the main task data collection session. Next, I describe the findings from the repeat task, the participants of Class D being the only ones that did not receive any instruction before repeating the task.

7.1.1 Frequency of target form use

The TFO data for Class D are shown in Table 7.1. As might be expected, when compared to Class A and B's post-LFS phase, the task performances of Class D contained far fewer TFUs. While the

¹¹ It is perhaps worth reiterating here that the Class D participants received the LFS after the data collection period. This was done to ensure that the learners in this class were not withheld any potential benefits of the explicit instruction.

frequency of TFOs (74, mean=3.5) was comparable to the other classes' main task totals, only five TFUs were present (four instances of *let's*; one of *how about*); this constituted 6.8% of the total opportunities, which was somewhat lower than seen in Class C (16.5%). However, this did indicate that — as expected and as seen in Class C — at least four of the participants had a degree of knowledge regarding the common use of *let's* or *how/what about* phrases for making suggestions, or at least were able to successfully mine from listening to the task model.

Table 7.1
Target form use by Group D in the CT main task

Group number	TFOs	TFUs	Alt	Min	BS	PS
1	10	0	0	8	0	2
MM	4	0	0	2	0	2
RM	1	0	0	1	0	0
TM	5	0	0	5	0	0
2	8	0	0	3	1	4
KT	0	0	0	0	0	0
KI	3	0	0	2	1	0
RT	5	0	0	1	0	4
3	12	1	0	6	1	4
KF	2	0	0	1	0	1
RH	3	1	0	1	0	1
RO	7	0	0	4	1	2
4	16	2	0	10	0	4
KA	6	0	0	4	0	2
KS	8	2	0	5	0	1
RY	2	0	0	1	0	1
5	13	1	1	8	0	3
NO	6	1	0	4	0	1
SW	0	0	0	0	0	0
YN	7	0	1	4	0	2
6	12	1	0	3	0	8
KE	5	0	0	1	0	4
MK	3	1	0	0	0	2
RI	4	0	0	2	0	2
7	3	0	0	0	0	3
AK	1	0	0	0	0	1
YT	1	0	0	0	0	1
YI	1	0	0	0	0	1
Totals	74	5	1	38	2	28
Mean	3.5	0.2	0.0	1.8	0.1	1.3
SD	2.4	0.5				

Proportion of TFOs (%) 6.8 1.4 51.4 2.7 37.8

Notes. Alt = Alternatively filled TFOs; Min = minimalised structures; BS = bald statements; PS = preference statements.

Minimalised forms were the most common means in which TFOs were filled here in Class D, with 51.4% of utterances featuring the kind of indexicality typical of task interaction. This figure was considerably higher than the 30.4% seen in Class C. Class D apparently not only contained fewer participants with existing knowledge of some suggestion phrases, there were also fewer examples of alternative forms and bald statements. However, the proportion of TFOs that were realised by preference statements — 37.8% — was almost identical to the 38% seen in Class C. These data suggest that collectively the participants of Class D may have either been less proficient with the use of suggestion phrases and strategies or more task-oriented than their peers in Class C.

7.1.2 Interaction analysis

37 of the 73 TFOs involved minimalisation of some kind. These forms were often accompanied by a rising tone to indicate a suggestion or question, of which a typical example can be seen in Excerpt 7.1. Here, YN makes a suggestion in response to the selected topic of discussion — where to eat dinner. He suggests the area of *Umeda*, using only the place name and rising intonation, which is promptly accepted by NO.

Excerpt 7.1 (CD/G5/MT)

72 NO: =where to eat
 73 YN: where to eat
 74 YN: Umeda?
 75 NO: Umeda.

Excerpt 7.2 shows two further examples of this feature. First, in line 27, KA suggests watching the 3D version of the movie *Percy Jackson* using only rising intonation. This suggestion is not accepted by KS due to the expense and, consequently, a 2D show is chosen. Next, in line 31, KA asks which of the two showings is better. After receiving no response, KA takes control and suggests that ten o'clock might be better, which KS accepts.

Excerpt 7.2 (CD/G4/MT)

27 KA: Percy Jackson, eh 3D?
 28 KS: no [I don't have money
 29 KA: [oh yes
 30 KA: me too. 2D 2D hm: which time? (1.0) what time (1.0) do we see?
 31 KA: ten start or two (1.5) twenty (.) which
 32 (2.5)
 33 KS: hm:::=
 34 KA: =ten! ten o'clock
 35 KS: okay ten

There was also a notable use of preference statements, which constituted 28 of the 74 total TFOs. As discussed previously, while on the surface they might seem target-like, they could sometimes be considered too direct, and, consequently, pragmatically inappropriate. (However, on other occasions, between participants that were friends, these may have been an entirely suitable way to make a suggestion.) Their extensive use shows either a lack of knowledge of suitable suggestion phrases or

that the Class D participants felt this to be the best strategy to conduct the task. These preference statements took the same form as I have described in the previous findings chapters. Excerpt 7.3 illustrates such a case from Group 1 of Class D, in which MM uses *I want* to state her movie preference. This proposal was accepted in line 6 by TM.

Excerpt 7.3 (CD/G1/MT)

```
01 TM: what (.) movie (1.5) we will hm? (2.0) what movie do you want to
02     see?
03 RM: I don't like horror
04 TM: horror? hm:
05 MM: I want to (1.0) Room Mate- watch Room Mate
06 TM: ah me too! me too me too. (1.5) okay let's see (.) Room Mate
```

The Class D participants supplied minimalised structures or preference statements for almost four-fifths of the TFOs, which, while being a greater proportion than seen in Class C, followed the same pattern in being the dominant strategies used by participants to propose ideas. From the combined findings of Class C and D, it appears that some kind of instruction is necessary for most participants in this context to use suggestion phrases in this decision-making task. Without it, they naturally relied on their own resources to complete the task. It can be confidently stated that they oriented towards meaning, without the constraints that explicit pre- or during- task instruction brings, as seen in the Class A and B data.

Another feature of the Class D interactions was the lack of orientation towards task completion for at least two of the groups. In the task performance of Group 6 and 7, the participants appeared only loosely focused on the stated task goals. For example, in the first three and a half minutes of Group 6's interaction, despite a combined total of 12 TFOs occurring, the three participants had only decided on the film to watch, the showing time, and a place to eat. In the subsequent seven minutes for which they continued to talk, they went off on a tangent and performed a kind of role play of their imagined meeting, with the two male students regularly teasing the one female student. This group seemed to enjoy their L2 conversation, but it would be fair to say that they only partially oriented towards the task. Something similar was seen in the Group 7 interaction. Although they talked for over 13 minutes, their conversation drifted away from the central theme and towards other topics such as popcorn flavour, the number of people in late shows, and other loosely related details. They were also quick to revert to Japanese throughout their interaction. By the end of their task performance, they had not actually made a decision on any of the relevant topics that constituted the task goals. Like Group 6, the participants of Group 7 did not seem to be oriented towards the task.

7.1.3 Repeat tasks

In this section, I describe the findings from the repeat task performances and how they compared with those from the main task. Although there were 22 potential participants in Class D, one participant was absent for the main task, while two were not present for the second data collection session.

Therefore, only data for the remaining 19 participants who were present for both sessions are considered here.

7.1.3.1 Holistic analysis

A holistic comparison of the main and repeat tasks is shown in Table 7.2. The first observation that can be made is that the number of TFOs increased in the second task, suggesting that the participants were discussing the various options in more detail. (Although the lack of task focus shown by the main task of Group 7 also contributed to this difference.) This was also seen in Class C, and could be a task repetition effect where more attention had been freed up to focus on a successful task performance, or the participants were more confident to hold a more in-depth discussion. The use of only a small number of target forms in the main task was seen again in the repeat task. Once more, a limited number of participants demonstrated some knowledge of *let's* (four uses) and *how about* (three uses) to make accurate suggestions. The alternative strategies that were employed to navigate the task were remarkably similar over the two performances. In both tasks, there were no alternatively filled TFOs, and the number of bald statements was low. Additionally, there was very little change in the proportion of minimalised structures and preference statements. These results are quite different to those seen in Class C, the other class without a pre- or during-task intervention. They show that without any instruction, performance in terms of the focus of this study is likely to remain the same in a repeat task.

Table 7.2
Forms supplied in TFOs across the main and repeat tasks by Class D (n=19)

	TFOs	TFUs	TF Acc (%)	Alt	Min	BS	PS
Main task	62	5 (8.1%)	80	0	31 (50%)	2 (3.2%)	24 (38.7%)
Repeat task	83	7 (8.4%)	100	0	39 (47.0%)	4 (4.8%)	33 (39.8%)

Notes. TF Acc = Target form accuracy; Alt = Alternatively filled TFOs using *be*; Min = minimalised structures; BS = bald statements; PS = preference statements. Numbers shown in brackets denote the proportion of the TFU total. Numbers shown in brackets denote the proportion of the TFO total.

In sum, there was no apparent change in the frequency or degree of minimalised target forms, no evidence of medium-term acquisition, and, of course, no evidence that learners were producing the target forms. This result, of course, is entirely what we might predict with the Class D participants not having received the explicit instruction that the other three classes had prior to the repeat task.

7.1.3.2 Interaction analysis

A closer look at the interactional data sheds light on how individual participants went about suggesting ideas in the two task performances. For the qualitative analysis, I examined the way in which the five participants who had four or more TFOs in each task made suggestions.

Box 7.1 shows the TFOs that TM had over the two task performances. In the main task, TM used almost fully lexicalised language to suggest times (M1, M2, M4) and places (M3, M5). In the

repeat task, the forms used in TM's TFOs were slightly more expansive. While he used "I want" in R1, the suggestions made in R2, R3, and R4 were highly minimalised. The meeting time proposal shown in R5 was not far short of an accurate bald statement, and it was undoubtedly fuller than the meeting time suggestions in M1 or R4. This might be a small nugget of evidence for a repetition effect, but it is equally likely to be due to TM simply feeling that this more direct structure was necessary to convey his meaning. Overall, with regard to suggestion phrases, TM performed the repeat task in much the same manner as the main task.

Box 7.1

TFOs by Class D participant TM in the main and repeat CT tasks

Main task	Repeat task
M1 fourteen thirty	R1 hm: (1.5) I want see (1.0) action or (.) love story.
M2 hm: today	R2 Roonin- Ronin[...]or Red 2 (..) or (1.0) The Family.
M3 at Umeda.	R3 this-u (..) The Family,
M4 af- after movie after movie	R4 e:to (..) eighteen? (..) eighty five eight[...]eighte- eighteen fifteen
M5 Bikkuri Donkey	R5 so[...]we meet (1.5) eighteen? to eighty two-? eighteen twenty (.) i:n station.

Box 7.2 shows the same TFO data but for participant NO. After the initial preference statement in M1, NO demonstrated some knowledge of *how about* to suggest a movie, shown in M2. For the remainder of the main task, however, he used only fully lexicalised language to make suggestions. One week later, in the repeat task, NO continued using highly minimalised structures, with even the preference statements R1 and R3 containing omissions. The place and time suggestions shown in R4 to R7 all consist of fully lexicalised language.

Box 7.2

TFOs by Class D participant NO in the main and repeat CT tasks

Main task	Repeat task
M1 uh::: hehe I want to (.) watch er (.) Carrie	R1 I want (..) afternoon.
M2 how about Kagoyahime?	R2 I want to s:ee:: Carrie
M3 oh 3D?	R3 I want (..) this
M3 late late show	R4 before
M5 Mac?	R5 meet? um: (..) Umeda station?
M6 Saizeria	R6 or front of cinema
	R7 uh:: (1.0) four o'clock?

The examples of TM and NO serve to illustrate how the strategies and linguistic choices typically made by Class D participants did not seem to change from the main to the repeat task. For this group of learners, there did not seem to be an obvious repetition effect that improved their suggestion making.

7.1.4 Summary

In sum, the findings for the CT task are precisely as one might have predicted. Due to the lack of any LFS in the main task session, the participants had to rely on their own resources to navigate the task. This resulted in many minimalised suggestions and preference statements, although there were some occasional uses of target forms. In the repeat task, the participants' TFOs were remarkably similar to those produced one week earlier. While an increase in the actual number of TFOs indicated that more discussion occurred during the interactions in the repeat tasks, the proportions for how the TFOs were filled remained mostly the same as before.

7.2 DESCRIBING PEOPLE TASKS

In this section, I describe the Class D findings for the main and repeat DP tasks. Following the structure established throughout the thesis, I first show the holistic data and identify some overall patterns regarding how the Class D participants went about making their picture descriptions. This is followed by a brief qualitative analysis of individuals' task interaction. Next, I describe the holistic findings from the repeat tasks and draw some comparisons with the main task performances. Finally, I examine some interactional data to illustrate some apparent effects of the task repetition without explicit instruction.

7.2.1 Holistic analysis

7.2.1.1 Frequency and accuracy of target forms

The Class D data for the DP task is shown in Table 7.3. Due to four participants being absent from the main task session, this discussion concerns the 18 (nine dyads) that were present and from whom data were collected. In the nine groups of this class, there were 270 TFOs (mean=15). Of these, 176 were filled with present continuous TFUs, and 45 with *have (got)* TFUs. Of the 45 *have (got)* TFUs, there were no examples of *got* being used, providing further evidence that this form was not part of the productive knowledge of the learners in this context. There were a further 20 TFUs for which the target form could not be determined due to minimalisation. Finally, there were 29 alternative descriptions made using copula *be*, although the majority of these were made by the two participants KF and SW. There were some pairings for which the TFOs were distributed quite equally — examples include Group 4, 7, and 8. However, for many dyads, there was quite an imbalance. For example, the disparity on display for Group 2, 5, and 6 was rather pronounced.

For Class D, the accuracy for present continuous TFUs was much lower than the other classes — notably even Class C, the other class that received no LFS — at 10.8%. The vast majority of these inaccurate TFUs were the result of minimalisation, with only six that contained other sources of error (such as word order and pronoun errors). The success rate for *have (got)* was lower too, with only 37.8% of TFUs being target-like. These findings support those for the CT task in that overall Class D may have been of a lower proficiency than their counterparts in Class C.

Table 7.3
Class D participants' use of the targets forms in the DP main task

Group (Participant)	Total TFOs	Total TFUs	present continuous			have (got)			UTF	Alt
			TFUs	(O)	(X)	TFUs	(O)	(X)		
1 (RO)	16	16	12	0	12	1	0	1	3	0
1 (YI)	10	9	6	5	1	1	0	1	2	1
2 (KF)	28	18	14	1	13	4	0	4	0	10
2 (KN)	10	9	7	0	7	2	0	2	0	1
3 (RM)	12	12	10	1	9	1	0	1	1	0
3 (RY)	16	14	11	0	11	3	2	1	0	2
4 (MK)	16	16	9	1	8	5	5	0	2	0
4 (NO)	15	13	9	2	7	2	0	2	2	2
5 (RI)	22	21	15	1	14	5	0	5	1	1
5 (KA)	7	7	2	0	2	3	0	3	2	0
6 (SW)	22	15	12	0	12	2	1	1	1	7
6 (YT)	10	10	9	0	9	1	1	0	0	0
7 (KI)	13	12	10	4	6	2	1	1	0	1
7 (YN)	15	15	11	0	11	4	4	0	0	0
8 (AK)	13	13	12	2	10	1	1	0	0	0
8 (KS)	10	10	8	1	7	2	2	0	0	0
9 (RT)	14	13	12	0	12	0	0	0	1	1
9 (RH)	21	18	7	1	6	6	0	6	5	3
Total	270	241	176	19	157	45	17	28	20	29
Mean	15.0	13.4	9.8	1.1	8.7	2.5	0.9	1.6	1.1	1.6
SD	5.4	3.6								
Proportion of TFOs (%)		89.3	65.2			16.7			7.4	10.7
Accuracy (%)		14.9		10.8			37.8			

Notes. (O) = Correct use; (X) = incorrect use; UTF = unclear target forms; Alt = alternative descriptions using *be*.

7.2.1.2 Minimalisation

As noted above, minimalised structures were found in the vast majority of picture descriptions in the Class D data set. Indeed, of the 238 TFUs, 189 contained some degree of minimalisation. At 79.4%, the proportion of minimalised structures was much higher than seen in the other classes, including Class C (62.1%).

The degree of minimalisation for the present continuous was calculated to be 2.27, meaning that there were 1.73 constituents omitted, on average, for each present continuous description. This resulted in a completion rate of only 57.0%, which was again lower than the 65% seen in Class C.

If it is assumed that Class D are more oriented towards meaning and task completion, at least relative to Class A and B (post-LFS phase), then it would be expected for both the frequency of minimalised structures and the extent of minimalisation to be greater. The data presented here certainly support this supposition. The difference with Class C can possibly be accounted for by a combination of lower overall proficiency, individual differences, and the effect of participant pairings.

7.2.2 Interaction analysis

Perhaps the most significant point regarding the Class D data for the DP task is the overall lack of accuracy with the target forms, along with the frequency and degree of minimalised structures. However, as with Class C (though not to the same extent), there were a very small number of participants that demonstrated some proficiency with the said forms. YI was one such participant with half of the ten descriptions being accurate uses of the present continuous. The first five descriptions he made are shown in Box 7.3. These demonstrate that YI was quite comfortable using the present continuous for making picture descriptions, though the -ing omissions in (2) and the unclear target in (4) reflect inconsistency in accuracy. In light of some of the findings from other classes, YI might have been a prime candidate to have performed to an even higher level if he had received some explicit instruction of the target forms.

Box 7.3

Descriptions by Class D participant YI in the DP main task

Descriptions
(1) the man (.) is standing-u (..) under the tree.
(2) the man is-u: wear- weari- wear- wear- wear (.) a wrist watch.
(3) two boys is-u talking, (.) talking.
(4) and-u (1.0) eh: one- one boys is-u border [border shirt
(5) my picture is-u (1.0) this boy is-u (1.0) listening to a music

Box 7.4 shows some of the forms supplied by participant KF. In contrast to YI, KF did not demonstrate high proficiency with present continuous descriptions. Although he made 13 attempts, he was only successful on one occasion. His first three attempts, which include his single correct effort, are shown in (1) to (3). Perhaps the most notable characteristic of the forms that KF supplied was his propensity to make descriptions using the copula *be*, as in (4) and (5). In total, KF made ten such descriptions, which was much more than any other learner from the other classes for the main task. While there were few of these descriptions by other Class D participants (besides SW), the element of freedom afforded by the absence of the LFS allowed KF to produce a structure that he clearly felt was within his linguistic repertoire.

Box 7.4

Descriptions by Class D participant KF in the DP main task

Descriptions
(1) a man, [...]stand-o- stands up-u,
(2) eto two- in the two picture eh: eto two- two boys-u (1.0) eh: (.) are talking?
(3) he: eto left-o[...]boy[...]wear kore nan to iu no? {T:how do you say this} (1.0) striped shirt
(4) he- his-u ah her eyes-u are: black.
(5) dot dot dot eto: he- (..) his dot-o (..) is one two three four five six seven eight nine? nine gurai {T:about} ten gurai

In sum, relatively few of the Class D participants' TFOs were filled by the target forms for which other classes received instruction in the LFS. In addition, general accuracy was lower, and both the frequency and degree of minimalised structures were higher. While most participants matched this pattern, there were some that stood out for contrasting reasons. The interaction analysis demonstrated how one learner could supply the present continuous quite readily when an occasion arose. It also revealed the extent to which one learner used alternative forms in their task performance, to a greater extent than previously seen for other classes' participants.

7.2.3 Repeat tasks

Sixteen Class D participants were present for both DP task data collection sessions, so only these individuals are considered in this discussion. The holistic data comparing the two task performances are shown in Table 7.4. First, as with the other classes, the number of total TFUs and alternative forms increased in the repeat performance. In the main task there were 209 TFUs (with 29 alternative forms) but this number rose to 254 (with 42 alternative forms) in the repeat task. It seems that the dyads in Class D also became more thorough in their descriptions of each picture set.

While the number of present continuous descriptions decreased, the accuracy seemed largely unchanged; that is, it remained low. Regarding *have (got)* descriptions, there was a notable rise in their occurrence, which was accompanied by a modest increase in accuracy. Once again, however, there were no examples of *got* being used. Concerning minimalisation, while there was an increase in the number of descriptions that contained minimalisation, this rose in line with the total TFUs, so the resulting proportion was very close to the main task. Also, the completion rate of present continuous structures stayed largely the same. However, a look at the over threefold increase in descriptions with an unclear TF shows that some participants were using more highly minimalised structures than they had previously in the main task.

Table 7.4

Target form use in the main and repeat tasks for Class D participants (n=16)

	Total TFUs	TFU Acc	PC TFUs	PC Acc (%)	H(G) TFUs	H(G) Acc (%)	UTF	Min	PC CR (%)	Alt
Main task	209	13.9	155	11.0	39	30.8	15	168 (80.4%)	56.9	29
Repeat task	254	17.3	136	13.2	70	37.1	48	202 (79.5%)	56.6	42

Notes. Acc = accuracy; PC = present continuous; UTF = unclear target form; H(G) = have (got); Min = minimalised structures; CR = completion rate of present continuous structures; Alt = alternative description using *be*. Numbers shown in brackets denote the proportion of the TFU total.

The individual data for the Class D participants is shown in Table 7.5. It reveals that while there was little change in accuracy for most of the participants, there were some whose accuracy increased or decreased somewhat. There was YI, for instance, whose number of TFUs increased as notably as his accuracy dropped. Conversely, the TFUs produced by both NO and KS increased in accuracy in the repeat task. A point unique to Class D was the three participants that failed to make a single accurate TFU in either task performance (KA, KN, and RT), something not seen in the other classes' data. Table 7.5 also shows that there were some participants — AK and KA — that hardly produced any TFUs in the repeat task. This highlights the point discussed above that some task interaction conducted in dyads is dominated by one learner that may be more proficient, confident, and/or motivated.

Table 7.5

TFUs and accuracy for the main and repeat DP tasks for individual Class D participants

Participant	Main performance		Repeat performance		Accuracy change
	TFUs	Accuracy (%)	TFUs	Accuracy (%)	
AK	13	23	1	0	-23
KA	7	0	2	0	0
KN	9	0	10	0	0
KF	18	6	17	6	0
KI	12	42	16	38	-4
KS	10	30	14	50	+20
NO	13	15	30	43	+28
RM	12	8	26	19	+11
RH	18	6	27	7	+1
RI	21	5	19	5	0
RT	13	0	15	0	0
RY	14	14	8	13	-1
SW	15	7	18	6	-1
YT	10	10	17	18	+8
YN	15	27	10	20	-7
YI	9	44	25	8	-36

Excerpt 7.4 shows YI and his partner RO describing a pair of pictures in the main task. It is an example of YI both making an accurate present continuous description (line 54) and deciding rather

hastily to proceed to the next picture (line 58) without giving many details. Although YI only made four accurate target form descriptions in the main task performance (and one more that only contained a subject-verb agreement error), this superficial approach to picture descriptions meant that his accuracy did not suffer as much as in the repeat task.

Excerpt 7.4 (CD/G1/MT)

53 RO: okay? (4.0) six (2.0) a boy- (2.5) a boy (..) walking.
 54 YI: okay (1.0) a boy is-u (..) wearing a: border pants.
 55 RO: yeah
 56 YI: yeah okay
 57 RO: *nana* {T:seven} eh:=
 58 YI: =seven

In the repeat task, the picture descriptions with which YI was involved contained more TFUs but only two that were accurate; this led to the large drop in his accuracy shown in Table 7.5. Excerpt 7.5 provides an illustration of this as YI and his partner ostensibly describe the same picture (it actually contained a small difference from the version used in the previous week) talked about in Excerpt 7.4. This time YI does not make an accurate target form description in either lines 11, 14, or 16. Instead, he and his partner work to find a point of difference between the pictures before advancing to the next. This characteristic of the interaction, repeated several times over the task performance, simultaneously led to the increase in both TFUs and minimalisation seen in the quantitative data for YI.

Excerpt 7.5 (CD/G9/RT)

09 YI: eh: second picture,
 10 TM: *hai*=
 11 YI: =second picture is-u walking a boy.
 12 TM: yeah
 13 (2.0)
 14 YI: an:d-o (..) eh: (..) shirt colour is border
 15 TM: yeah, border
 16 YI: and-o the boy, eh: wear: a necktie
 17 TM: two picture?
 18 YI: two picture.
 19 TM: no neck- (..) nonecktie.
 20 YI: no necktie?
 21 TM: no necktie.=
 22 YI: =*ja* (..) *kore* {T:this} different.
 23 TM: three?

Excerpt 7.5 is also a good example of participants being more thorough in terms of the number of descriptions they made in their repeat DP task performances, which was a general trend seen in all four classes of this study. During the main task performance, several groups finished describing the 12 picture sets without finding the six pairs that contained a difference. In the repeat performances, it seems that many participants were careful to more fully describe each picture before being satisfied that a pair was identical. The tendency to make more descriptions can partly explain the increased minimalisation seen in the repeat task. When participants made multiple descriptions of the same

person, they were inclined not to restate certain elements, and their descriptions became more lexicalised, like the pair shown in lines 14 and 16 of Excerpt 7.5. A further illustration of this is provided by the interaction in Excerpt 7.6. Both RH and RI produced a large number of TFUs (27 and 19, respectively), but the forms they supplied were almost all judged to be inaccurate. For the picture seven description shown, RI begins by making a full description in line 100. However, the descriptions that follow in lines 105, 107, and 111 are fully lexicalised. In the context of the task, this may be entirely appropriate, and it clearly reflects the task directed orientations of the participants.

Excerpt 7.6 (CD/G6/RT)

```

100 RI: and seven, the girl (.) have long hair.
101 RH: yeah
102 RI: is hold his- (.) her hand in front (..) of his-u
103 RH: not umbrella?
104 RI: not umbrella=
105 RH: =yeah (..) raincoat-o?
106 RI: raincoat.
107 RH: black hair?
108 RI: black hair.
109 RH: ohana?
110 RI: no
111 RH: flower: (..) on head-o
112 RI: no no no no
113 RH: oh different
114 RI: differ- different

```

7.2.4 Summary

Overall, the repeat task data for Class D shows what might be expected for participants that did not receive any explicit instruction of the target forms. Unlike Class C, there was no increase in accuracy or reduction in minimalisation to be seen in the repeat task. In fact, there was a decline in performance for many of the participants, caused mainly by an increase in the number of minimalised structures. A look at the interaction data revealed that some participants were more thorough and tended to make more descriptions per picture in the repeat task although many of these descriptions were highly lexicalised.

7.3 UPTAKE REPORTS

Of the 21 Class D participants who attended the CT task data collection session, no one reported noticing one of the LFS target forms. However, four of the 18 who were present for the DP task did, in fact, report one item each related to the target forms. While it would not be expected for the number to come close to that seen in the other classes, it was certainly plausible that participants could have mined target forms from the pre-task listening or from one of the few participants that did use them effectively.

Table 7.6 shows a summary of the uptake report data collected for Class D. Grammar items accounted for just over a quarter of the total reported items, and they contained items mined from the pre-task activities (*have + PP*, *better than*), from the blackboard task instructions (*where to meet*), and

others sourced from peers, probably during the main task (*few people = small number of people*). Class D was alone in having the source of grammar items reported as the teacher. Vocabulary items made up over half of the total reported items, and, in addition to those items noticed in the pre-task activities, there were many seemingly unconnected items noticed at different points of the lesson both from their peers (*pay attention to, bad things, disaster*) and the teacher (*what kind of, prefer, pronounce*). Like the other classes, pronunciation items were cited the least.

With only 37 reported items, Class D's task reports for the DP task were the most sparsely filled of the eight sets collected. Vocabulary items were the type that was reported most, making up 29 (78.4%) of the total. Two of these vocabulary items were of target forms (*has black hair*) and were cited as being sourced from their peer. The most striking difference with other classes was perhaps the small number of grammar items reported. Of the six items, two appeared to be related to the present continuous target form (*be ~ing, ~ing*), and the source of both items was *student*. The four examples of target forms show the desired, albeit limited, effect of a focused task directing learners towards specific forms.

The final point to make about the Class D uptake report regards the sources of noticed items. In a very different result to the other classes, it was from their fellow students which the participants noticed the majority of language points. Without explicit instruction, those in Class D relied primarily on interaction with their peers to receive language input.

Table 7.6
Types and sources of items from the Class D uptake reports

Number of reported items									
Language point						Source			
	G	V	P	total	mean	T	S	M	Total
CT task	21 (27.3%)	41 (53.2%)	15 (19.5%)	77	3.7	5 (13%)	32 (84.2%)	1 (2.6%)	38
DP task	6 (16.2%)	29 (78.4%)	2 (5.4%)	37	2.1	5 (12.8%)	33 (84.6%)	1 (2.6%)	39

Notes. G = Grammar; V = vocabulary; P = pronunciation; T = teacher; S = student; M = materials.

7.4 CLASS D FINDINGS REVIEW

The decision to have a fourth class in this study which did not receive the LFS instruction was taken for two primary reasons. First, while many researchers and teachers would claim that some kind of language focus is necessary for classroom learning, some practitioners would advocate a teaching approach that eschews explicit instruction. In addition, as discussed in Chapter 2.3.2.1, there is a not insignificant body of research that endorses the benefits of learner-learner interaction for L2 acquisition. The second reason was to provide a comparison with the other classes who all worked through the LFS at some point in main data collection session.

In the main task, the Class D participants were much freer than their counterparts in Class A and B to use their own linguistic resources to complete the tasks. Although there were a few uses of

target forms, especially for the more task-essential DP task, they were rare compared to the aforementioned classes and were often inaccurate and/or minimalised. The lack of the LFS may have also had an effect on the way the participants conducted the task. Two of the groups seemed far from task-oriented when they were discussing only partially related topics during their interaction.

For the repeat tasks, there were some notable differences between the CT and DP tasks. For the CT task, the interaction data looked reasonably similar for both the main and repeat performances. Although more TFOs appeared — a sign that participants were discussing the individual topics in more detail — the proportions for the different ways in which the TFOs were filled remained approximately the same. There was little evidence for a general repetition effect that might promote fewer indexical utterances. For the DP task, the most important factor affecting the repeat task seemed to be the number of descriptions that were made for each picture set. As participants were more rigorous in their character descriptions to avoid missing a point of difference between corresponding pictures, they produced more lexicalised descriptions, thus betraying a strong orientation towards the task. For Class C, the increase in TFOs was not accompanied by minimalisation. Therefore, it might be the case that the post-task LFS tempered the orientation to task seen for Class D.

Overall, the Class D data adds a valuable alternative view of task interaction without any explicit focus on language. The orientation to meaning and task, along with the low accuracy and tendency for minimalisation and indexicality, accentuate the apparent effect of the LFS as described in the findings chapters for Class A, B, and C.

CHAPTER 8: DISCUSSION

This study was initially conceived of a desire to empirically investigate seemingly incompatible claims — made in the middle of the last decade but with enduring influence — about teaching approaches that position explicit linguistic instruction prior to learners embarking on a task. The pedagogically-focused TBLT books by Nunan (2004) and Willis and Willis (2007) contained quite different frameworks that teachers were advised to follow. Nunan saw no problem with learners explicitly focusing on language before performing a task, while Willis and Willis argued that there should be some explicit learning but that it must be done after the main task is completed. It was particularly the criticism that Willis and Willis made of methods such as P-P-P that I wished to investigate further, especially in light of the apparent resurgence in interest in pre-task approaches based on skill acquisition theory (J. Anderson, 2017; Arnold, Dörnyei, & Pugliese, 2015; DeKeyser, 2010; Lyster & Sato, 2013). I wanted to understand the impact that the pre-task teaching of forms has on task outcomes, and this approach was operationalised in this study by Class A. The post-task teaching of forms was operationalised by Class C. In the research and pedagogic literature, most realisations of a during-task attention to language are through incidental focus-on-form (Long, 1991) with an emphasis on teacher feedback (Lightbown & Spada, 2008; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Meddings & Thornbury, 2009). However, the during-task teaching conducted in Samuda's (2001) oft-cited study was actually quite explicit, and it is an interesting third-way to the placement of explicit instruction, which was operationalised by Class C in this study. Finally, teaching methods with no focus on language may have fallen out of favour recently, but they remain an approach used by some practitioners and were operationalised in this study by Class D. Despite much discussion over the years regarding the place for language focus, there have been few studies which have empirically investigated it.

The research question set forth in the introduction was one that was deliberately vague and potentially wide-ranging, and was formulated as follows:

How does the position of explicit instruction within a sequence of classroom activities affect task outcomes?

The open nature of the research question facilitated the largely inductive approach taken to the qualitative data analysis of the task interaction. This detailed examination of 129 interactions involving 84 participants revealed a variety of interesting and noteworthy features that were sometimes restricted to one class and at other times shared by two or more. Some of these features lent themselves well to quantification and could reveal holistic patterns of use up to the level of class.

The following sections both summarise the individual class data and draw together the findings from the four classes to answer the research question. I also consider what implications these findings have for practice before describing the limitations of this study and possible avenues for

future research. As a point of reference for the proceeding discussion, Table 8.1 provides a summarised comparison of the key findings.

Table 8.1

A summarised comparison of the study's key findings

Class				
	A (pre-task LFS)	B (during-task LFS)	C (post-task LFS)	D (no LFS)
Main task	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Participants did not ignore TFs: 77.0% of TFOs were filled by TFs in CT task. Proportion of accurate TFUs was high at 62.6% in DP task. Minimalisation was low: 13.5% of TFOs contained minimalised forms in CT task, 33.6% of TFUs in DP task; completion rate for PC TFUs was 82.5% in DP task. Many examples of stilted, deliberate production around TFs, indicating an orientation to TF production. Orientation to forms was not constant, and it tended to fade as tasks progressed. Significant differences between groups and individuals in terms of orientation. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> There was a notable increase in TF use in post-LFS phase: For the CT task, 8% and 59.4% of TFOs were filled by TFs in the pre-task and post-task phases, respectively. Proportion of accurate TFUs rose from 30.4% pre-LFS to 68.2% post-LFS. Minimalisation decreased after LFS: In CT task, 28.0% of TFOs contained minimalised forms pre-LFS, 23.2% post-LFS; in DP task, 66.6% of TFUs contained minimalisation pre-LFS, 23.5% post-LFS; completion rate for PC TFUs increased from 75.8% pre-task to 91.1% post-task. Several examples of stilted, deliberate production around TFs in post-LFS phase, indicating an orientation to TF production for some participants. Significant differences between groups and individuals in terms of orientation in post-LFS phase. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Although there were some uses (demonstrating prior knowledge), only 16.5% of TFOs were filled by TFs in CT task. In CT task, delivery of TFs by limited number of participants was noticeably fluent compared with Class A and B (post-LFS). Proportion of accurate TFUs was low at 28.2% in DP task. Minimalisation was high: 30.4% of TFOs contained minimalised forms in CT task, 61.5% of TFUs in DP task; completion rate for PC TFUs was 75% in DP task. These features of task interaction all point towards a task and/or meaning orientation. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 6.8% of TFOs filled by TFs in CT task. Proportion of accurate TFUs was low at 14.9% in DP task. Minimalisation was a persistent feature: 51.4% of TFOs contained minimalised forms in CT task, 79.4% of TFUs in DP task; completion rate for PC TFUs was 57.0% in DP task.

Class				
	A (pre-task LFS)	B (during-task LFS)	C (post-task LFS)	D (no LFS)
Repeat task	<p>For those participants who attended both main and repeat tasks:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Proportion of TFOs filled by TFs decreased from 77.5% to 42.5% in CT task. Proportion of accurate TFUs decreased from 60.3% to 36.2% in DP task. Minimalisation increased in DP task: Proportion of TFUs containing minimalised forms increased from 32.7% to 46.2%; completion rate for PC TFUs decreased from 84.2% to 72.6%. Range of apparent orientations with some participants seemingly oriented towards TFs (evidenced by combinations of self-corrections and disfluencies) and others not. 	<p>For those participants who attended both main and repeat tasks:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Proportion of TFOs filled by TFs decreased from 57.6% to 34.5% in CT task. Proportion of accurate TFUs slightly from 70.6% (post-LFS) to 63.3% in DP task. Some increase in minimalisation for both tasks: In CT task, proportion of TFOs containing minimalised forms rose from 25.4% to 29.3%; in DP task, proportion of TFUs containing minimalised forms increased from 20.6% to 31.2%; completion rate for PC TFUs decreased from 92.9% to 87.5%. Wide range of apparent orientations with some participants seemingly oriented towards TFs (evidenced by combinations of self-corrections and disfluencies) and others not. 	<p>For those participants who attended both main and repeat tasks:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Proportion of TFOs filled by TFs increased from 16.2% to 34.3% in CT task. Proportion of accurate TFUs increased from 25.9% to 69.0% in DP task. Minimalisation decreased: In CT task, proportion of TFOs containing minimalised forms fell from 28.4% to 17.6%; in DP task, proportion of TFUs containing minimalised forms fell from 62.7% to 26.3%; completion rate for PC TFUs increased from 75.2% to 87.0%. Some evidence of medium-term acquisition and orientation towards TFs. Significant differences between groups and individuals. 	<p>For those participants who attended both main and repeat tasks:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Proportion of TFOs filled by TFs remained very low in CT task — 8.1% to 8.4%. Proportion of accurate TFUs also remained very low in DP task — 11.0% to 13.2%. Minimalisation remained at roughly the same level: In CT task, proportion of TFOs containing minimalised forms fell slightly from 50.0% to 47.0%; in DP task, proportion of TFUs containing minimalised forms fell marginally from 80.4% to 79.5%; completion rate for PC TFUs also fell very slightly from 56.9% to 56.6%.
Uptake reports	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 95 items reported for CT task, 70 for DP task. For the DP task, notably fewer items than in Class B and C. High proportion of reported items were LFS-related: 61.1% for CT task, 57.1% for DP task. Few reported items sourced from peers: 10.5% for CT task, 10.8% for DP task. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 105 items reported for CT task, 122 for DP task. Notably more than Class A. Compared with Class A, lower proportion of reported items was LFS-related: 49.6% for CT task, 28.0% for DP task. Like Class A, few reported items sourced from peers: 6.6% for CT task, 6.5% for DP task. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 95 items reported for CT task, 110 for DP task. Notably more than Class A. Compared with Class A, lower proportion of reported items was LFS-related: 48.0% for CT task, 26.0% for DP task. Higher proportion of items sourced from peers than Class A and B: 21.4% for CT task, 20.7% for DP task. Indicates more noticing of items from sources other than LFS. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 77 items reported for CT task, 37 for DP task. Notably fewer than other classes. Much lower proportion of reported items were grammatical forms. Majority of reported items were sourced from peers: 84.2% for CT task, 84.6% for DP task.

8.1 EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION, TASKS, AND ORIENTATION

Although the analysis began with unmotivated looking at the task interaction, much of the literature which motivated this study discussed the overlapping and often synonymous concepts of *attention*, *focus*, and *orientation* towards aspects of task performance such as meaning, form, and task.

Throughout this thesis, the term *orientation* has been used, subsuming *focus* and *attention*. This discussion presents some of the claims made over the years regarding learner orientation in second language classrooms, particularly those which use tasks as the chief medium for fostering communication. I will show to what extent the findings from the current study corroborate these claims.

8.1.1 Claim one: The pre-teaching of forms drives task orientation away from meaning, resulting in halting and stilted language production (Willis & Willis, 2007) and structure trapping (Samuda, 2001; Skehan, 1998).

The data presented for Class A quite clearly showed that, for many participants, pre-task explicit teaching led to hesitant and disfluent production during certain parts of their task interaction. There were many occasions where participants' fluency appeared to be affected by their conscious efforts to use the target forms. Such disfluency events were manifested by the incidence of vowel marking, unfilled pauses, hesitation markers, repetitions, and false starts. Although these disfluency markers are to be expected by any speaker in any situation, the manner in which they were often concentrated immediately before and during target form production suggests that the form orientation did indeed have a detrimental impact on fluency. The widespread form orientation also manifested itself in a number of self-corrections, and even discussion of the forms, that further affected smooth delivery.

As the cases examined in 4.1.2.6 and 4.2.2.5 demonstrated, despite the many examples of stilted production caused by the form orientation, there remained plenty of spells during the tasks where the participants did not appear to be oriented in this direction. These included instances of general attention to form realised by self-corrections of other structures. There were also further meaning-oriented discussions of the different options in the CT task, and certainly not all TFOs were filled by the two target forms in the DP task. Furthermore, some of the picture descriptions in the DP task did not focus on the characters and instead targeted peripheral background features. Likewise, diversions into discussion of popcorn flavours and the like during the CT task did not give the impression that all participants were trapped into the sole production of the target forms. In addition, the purpose of many turns during the task performances was to organise the task interaction according to the goals and instructions, whether through questions to gather proposals in the CT task or evaluations of whether picture sets were identical in the DP task.

The findings from Class C and D offer a window onto what interaction looks like without any pre-task teaching. While there was limited use of some of the target forms in the CT tasks for these classes, the delivery was quite fluent and mostly devoid of the strong disfluencies seen in Class A. In both tasks, there was a degree of minimalisation of alternative linguistic choices not seen in the pre-task instruction class. There were also examples in Class D of some participants veering away from

the stated task goals and discussing other, loosely related topics. The pre-task LFS may not have only directed learners towards certain forms, it may also have influenced the way groups conducted their interactions.

With all these elements considered, this thesis contends that it is likely pre-task teaching orients learners towards form and that this may have an adverse effect on their fluency. However, the interaction data suggest that instances of form orientation are a series of temporary, isolated events that occur in the background of a mostly meaning-based activity and that the frequency of these shifts to form is heavily determined by the tendencies and inclinations of individual learners. Orientation manifested itself as a dynamic entity that changed for individuals over the course of a task in response to factors both internal (e.g. when a participant suddenly consciously reasserted their focus towards form) and/or external (e.g. when a learner heard a peer using a target form).

8.1.2 Claim two: During a task, some learners will simply choose not to use the forms that were pre-taught (Larsen-Freeman, 2009; Nunan, 2004; Willis & Willis, 2007).

Though the degree to which the target forms were used differed, there were no participants in Class A that disregarded the target forms entirely. As reported in Chapter 4, in 77% of the TFOs that occurred in the six CT task interactions, the participants supplied a target suggestion phrase. The proportions for Class C and D, which did not receive any LFS, were 16.5% and 6.8%, respectively. For the DP task, because of the higher degree of task-essentialness, it was more difficult to identify the deliberate use of the forms; learners with even partial knowledge of the forms sometimes supplied them accurately. Nonetheless, even if only accurate TFUs are considered, there was a higher proportion than seen in the pilot studies or the pre-LFS interactions seen in Class B, C, and D. In Class A, 59% of TFOs were filled with accurate target forms. Also, the seven instances of *have got* (including *got*) provided further examples of forms lifted directly from the LFS as it was not seen elsewhere in pre-LFS interactions. Therefore, the class as a whole did not disregard the target forms, yet, there were certainly some individuals who clearly oriented away from them, to a greater or lesser extent, during periods of their task interaction.

While the main charge against pre-task teaching of forms has been the one discussed above in claim 1, it has also been argued that some learners would simply ignore the target forms, rendering the pre-teaching a waste of valuable class time (Larsen-Freeman, 2009; Willis and Willis, 2007). However, this study's findings suggest that this dichotomous view is too simplistic, and the reality is rather more nuanced. This thesis argues that a learner's task performance lies at some point along a continuum from strongly oriented towards form to strongly oriented to meaning. This orientation point is not stable and inevitably ebbs and flows during the course of a task in response to task demands, especially on occasions when certain forms are required. In addition, it will be individual differences which predominantly dictate the extent to which an individual learner is inclined to orient towards form.

However, this proposal may only be applicable for a specific task performance. When learners perform another task on a different day, there may be myriad factors which will affect

orientation including interlocutor pairings, the target forms, the teacher, and positive or negative factors from their lives outside of school. The logical conclusion of these arguments is that task interaction, like classrooms generally, is a complex system (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008), and individual outcomes are extremely difficult to predict. However, when there are a number of groups working on the same task within a class, it is possible to observe certain general trends, and the Class A data show that learners in the context of this study did not ignore the target forms.

8.1.3 Claim three: Introducing language during a task avoids the structure trapping of pre-task approaches (Little & Feldsend, 2009; Samuda, 2001).

The post-LFS data collected from Class B showed many instances of target form production for both the CT and DP tasks. However, in light of this thesis' assertions that such periods of strong orientation to the target-forms are transitory, I would maintain that these isolated and temporary moves do not wholly constitute structure-trapping.

In section 2.3.5, the case was put forward for a during-task language focus primarily based on Samuda's (2001) framework, but whose merits have also been advanced by others (Bygate, 2016; Lightbown & Spada, 2008; Little & Fieldsend, 2009). Samuda claimed that after the teacher provides some during-task instruction, learner orientation will return to meaning in the ensuing task interaction, but they will incorporate the taught forms into their linguistic output. Little and Fieldsend (2009) contended that a during-task approach avoids the structure trapping (Skehan, 1998) which occurs with pre-task teaching.

The findings presented in Chapter 5 showed that several Class B participants oriented to form following the during-task LFS. The pre-LFS phase invariably contained minimalised structures and/or alternative means to fill TFOs, while the post-LFS phase looked somewhat similar to Class A; that is, most participants seemed oriented to form with many TFUs containing disfluencies, mining, and self-corrections. In the CT task, target suggestion phrases were used extensively, and, in the DP task, over a quarter of the *have (got)* descriptions contained *got*, a strong indicator of an orientation to form. These data suggest that if the periods of strong orientation to form in Class A are to be deemed "structure trapping", then the same label can surely be applied to Class B too. However, as previously described, the orientation shifts towards form are only temporary, and there is an underlying meaning-oriented base to the way learners approached these tasks, even the DP task which demanded more target form uses than the CT task.

There was one interesting finding that resonates with the central premise of Samuda's framework. Samuda stated that as learners initially tackle a task (before the teacher-led language focus), they may become aware of some gap in their L2 knowledge that is required to convey their meaning. The teacher can then provide form-focused instruction that may help learners to fill that gap. The implication of this is that if learners do not recognise their deficient L2 form(s), the language focus may be less effective. In the pre-LFS phase of the CT task, when participants were discussing which film to see (see 5.1.2.2), there was little difference in the forms they supplied before and after the instruction. In the pre-LFS phase, the participants successfully used their own linguistic resources

and choices (primarily using "I want...") to propose film ideas. It is possible that because they were successful, they would not have perceived a gap in their knowledge that needed to be filled. As a result, there was a tendency for them to continue using the same linguistic choices in the post-LFS phase.

8.1.4 Claim four: A lack of pre-teaching allows learners to focus on meaning during task interaction (Skehan, 1998; Willis & Willis, 2007)

In addition to describing the negative effects of a pre-task focus on language, Willis and Willis (2007) also outlined the benefits of a post-task approach which, they claimed, gives learners freedom to use their existing language resources to exchange ideas and complete the task goals. Indeed, the findings from this study showed that learners selected forms from their linguistic repertoire — which sometimes involved the fluent use of target forms from the LFS — and they were not constrained in their choices. In the CT tasks, participants often used other strategies such as minimalised suggestions and preference statements. In the more task-essential DP tasks, most of the descriptions were classed as TFUs, but they were often highly minimalised as learner orientations were directed primarily towards meaning. Therefore, while this thesis concurs that a post-task approach will steer learner orientation towards meaning, it may promote the kind of lexicalised task interaction that has been the object of criticism by some researchers (Groom & Littlemore, 2011; Prabhu, 1987; Seedhouse, 1999, 2004; Skehan, 1996).

8.1.5 Other findings

8.1.5.1 Enduring effects of explicit instruction in the repeat task performances

Any lasting impact of the LFS which was seen in the repeat task, one week after the main task, is considered a *medium-term* effect in this thesis. Although the findings from the repeat tasks will be mostly considered in terms of medium-term acquisition rather than orientation, there is a natural overlap in the way these two constructs can be observed. The very fact that the Class A and B participants maintained a certain level of accurate target form use from the main task, and Class C's increased substantially, implies that there was an overall orientation to form. But where it seems most appropriate to discuss orientation is in situations where there was clearly careful use of target forms in the repeat task. In Class A, there were some instances of the kind of disfluencies and self-corrections around target forms that betray an orientation towards them (Excerpt 4.34, Box 4.1 and 4.6). This was also seen for some participants in Class B (Box 5.7 and 5.14) and C (Box 6.2, 6.9, and 6.10). There appeared to be an enduring medium-term effect on some of the participants who overtly oriented towards form in the main task. Those without implicit knowledge would need to orient towards the forms to produce them, resulting in some of the hesitant deliveries seen in the repeat task. In addition, some participants used a variety of target forms in the repeat task, seemingly for display purposes. This was most interesting for participants like YT and NN in Class C. One of the main claims for a post-task explicit language focus is that it leads learners to noticing and using taught forms in the

future. This thesis proposes that if a post-task approach is followed, a repeat task may be the perfect vehicle for learners to practise their newly obtained knowledge in the medium-term and push interlanguage development. If it is left only to chance that learners may encounter the need to use a particular form, it is highly possible that the explicit knowledge gained will be forgotten.

8.1.5.2 Implications from uptake reports

The uptake reports were intended to supplement the interaction data and to add an element of triangulation to the analysis. Especially, they were able to indirectly show whether LFS position influenced to which forms learners paid attention as evidenced by the forms which participants recalled when looking back on the lesson. As Schmidt's (1990) idea of noticing is often cited alongside the interaction hypothesis (Long, 1996), which is fundamental to most models of TBLT, an attempt to measure the extent to which learners noticed other forms during the task performances was thought to be extremely valuable. In addition, as Willis and Willis (2007) pointed out, learners find it motivating to study language forms. Therefore, approaches that foster the uptake of linguistic forms could be considered valuable for developing this aspect of motivation.

As discussed in the third main section of each findings chapter, the uptake report data offered some support for the findings gathered from the task interaction. Regarding Class A, the interaction data suggested that most participants (though not all) oriented towards the LFS target forms and made deliberate efforts to incorporate them into their production. The uptake report data corroborated this finding and revealed that when participants looked back on the lesson they had just completed, it was predominantly language points directly related to the target forms which they reported noticing. Further, when the four classes were compared, it could be seen that the Class A participants reported target forms more than their peers in the other classes, particularly for the DP task. Table 8.2 includes a comparison of the proportion of reported items which referred to target forms across the four classes. While other variables between the classes may have been at play, these data do tentatively suggest that the LFS had more of an impact on the Class A participants.

Table 8.2

A comparison of target form related and peer-sourced items in the uptake reports

	Proportion of target form related items (%)				Proportion of peer-sourced items (%)			
	Class				Class			
	A	B	C	D	A	B	C	D
CT task	61.1	49.5	48.5	0.0	10.7	6.6	24.0	84.0
DP task	57.1	27.9	25.5	10.8	10.8	6.5	20.7	84.6

Another noteworthy point was from the Class C and D data and involved the noticing that took place between peers. As shown in Table 8.2, the proportions were greater than seen in Class A and B, and this pattern was observed for both task types. As the interaction analysis showed, while the participants were performing the task, they were focused towards meaning exchange and task completion; therefore, they were not oriented towards the reproduction of target forms like their peers

in Class A and B (post-LFS phase). This may have caused the participants to be more amenable to noticing language produced by their interlocutors. In Class C, because they had just completed the LFS at the time of filling out the uptake reports, they naturally also cited a number of target forms from the teacher and materials. In Class D, the reported items were overwhelmingly cited as being noticed from peers. While they were doing the task, it seems they were noticing language forms being produced by their interlocutors, demonstrating that even tasks without an explicit instruction phase are not devoid of a focus on language form. In fact, throughout the complete data set, there were a number of self-corrections of non-target forms, demonstrating a general orientation to accuracy for some learners. As alluded to in some of the case analyses in the findings chapters, the presence of the recorders may have played a role in encouraging such an orientation.

8.2 EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION, TASKS, AND MINIMALISATION

The minimalisation of structures, resulting in highly lexicalised language, in learner-learner task interaction has been posited as a concern by some researchers (Groom & Littlemore, 2011; Parsons, 2016; Prabhu, 1987; Seedhouse, 1999). It has been claimed that TBLT can promote the use of classroom pidgins that do little for interlanguage development. The presence, frequency, and degree of minimalisation were elements that became an important part of the findings of this study; from the onset of the data analysis, it soon became apparent that minimalised forms were widespread. Seedhouse (2004) described how minimalisation was a sign of learners being oriented towards the task, a proposition that this thesis does not dispute and has explored in some depth. It is certainly true that highly proficient speakers of a language might communicate in an indexicalised manner for convenience and efficiency when performing certain tasks. However, minimalisation may also occur due to gaps in L2 knowledge, and it is extremely difficult to tease apart orientation and proficiency when attempting to determine the cause of individual examples of minimalised structures. In the CT task, even if they could not produce appropriate suggestion phrases, most participants demonstrated that they could use some kind of alternative structure to make proposals for the cinema trip. Therefore, on those occasions where fully lexicalised utterances occurred, it seems likely that participants were simply oriented towards conveying their meaning and advancing the task. In the DP task, the picture was more opaque. While there were many occasions where participants fully lexicalised their descriptions, there were also numerous partially minimalised structures, especially those involving present continuous descriptions. The cause of the minimalisation in such instances was more difficult to determine — was it orientation, L2 knowledge, or a combination of the two? For example, those participants with partial knowledge may need to strongly orient to form to process the explicit knowledge they have gained from the LFS and concentrate on producing less minimalised structures.

What *could* be directly observed was the impact of the LFS on minimalisation. In the three classes which received the LFS, there was a marked decrease in both the frequency and degree of minimalisation after the explicit instruction. This can be explained in terms of L2 knowledge and

orientation. For the CT task, the proportion of minimalised forms was much lower in Class A than in Class C and D. It seems likely that the LFS both oriented the participants towards the suggestion phrases as well as providing the linguistic tools for accurate production. The during-task LFS in Class B also had a curtailing effect on minimalisation in the post-LFS phase. The impact of the post-task LFS on medium-term minimalisation was notable too; there was a definite reduction in the frequency of minimalised structures in the repeat task of Class C, while in Class D, there was little overall change over the two tasks. The same pattern was seen for the DP task, with both the frequency and the degree of minimalisation being responsive to the explicit instruction.

Considering these findings, this thesis corroborates with earlier studies regarding the indexical nature of task interaction, as clearly demonstrated in the Class C and D data. However, explicit instruction is clearly one useful means to alleviate the extent of minimalisation. It most likely serves to both direct orientation towards producing certain complete forms while simultaneously providing explicit knowledge of useful structures that may fill the gaps in some learners' L2 knowledge.

8.3 EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION, TASKS, AND MEDIUM-TERM ACQUISITION

While a certain degree of overlap with the minimalisation discussion is unavoidable, there were some formal changes which may be better described in terms of medium-term acquisition. Without an experimental pre- and -post test design, this study can only present tentative interpretations of the findings; nevertheless, both the quantitative and qualitative data from the repeat tasks give an indication that the LFS was responsible for some degree of learning over the medium-term.

A different means to operationalise acquisition was employed for the two task types. In the CT task, the target forms were invariably used without error, so a better indication of acquisition was the proportion of TFOs that were filled with target suggestion phrases. This thesis considers the use of these suggestion phrases as being indicative of learning, and any uses in the repeat task may be signs of medium-term acquisition. In the DP task, the number of target-like uses did not rise much over 70%, even in Class A and B. It seems that learning, or being reminded of, a chunk (the suggestion phrases) and adding an appropriate phrase was easier for these learners than applying grammatical knowledge to accurately piece together the component parts of the present continuous structure. Also, with the sheer number of TFOs in the DP task, it might have been more difficult to attend to form for the whole task. The participants were inconsistent with their target forms use, indicating that they were having to use their explicit knowledge to make such descriptions, and when their orientation drifted away from the forms, they made more mistakes. The present continuous simply was not a complete part of these learners' interlanguages.

Accuracy for the DP task could be measured simply as the proportion of TFUs that were filled by accurate present continuous or *have (got)* structures. A summary of the accuracy scores for all classes is given in Table 8.3.

Table 8.3

Accuracy changes over the two task performances for all classes

Class	CT task		DP task	
	TFU proportion (%)		TFU accuracy (%)	
	Main task	Repeat task	Main task	Repeat task
A	77.5	45.2	62.1	47.1
B	10 / 57.6	34.5	32.3 / 70.6	62.3
C	16.2	34.3	25.9	69
D	8.1	8.4	13.9	17.3

Notes. The slashes [/] denote the LFS. Numbers to the left of the slash indicate the data from the pre-LFS phase; numbers right to the right indicate the data from the post-LFS phase.

Evidence of learning can probably be most easily observed for Class C. For the CT task, the proportion of TFUs that were filled with suggestion phrases increased from 16.2% to 34.3%. This may have been a sign of learning of the form itself (e.g. with *it might be good*) or the pragmatically appropriate way to use it (probably the case with *let's* or *how about*). For the DP task, it was possible to obtain a more focused measure of accuracy due to the higher number of TFUs. The combined accuracy for *present continuous* and *have (got)* increased from 25.9% to 69%; in fact, there was only one participant that did not improve their accuracy (see Table 6.6). When these data are compared to those of Class D, the difference is striking. In Class D, both the CT and DP tasks showed very little change from main to repeat tasks.

Although it was more problematic to determine the pre-existing knowledge for Class A and B, it was assumed to be fairly similar to Class C and D. For both task types, the repeat task accuracies decreased from the main task highs. This kind of decline might be expected as durability problems with explicit instruction have been well documented (Tode, 2007; White, 1991), with Long (2015) noting that "once pedagogical focus shifts to new linguistic targets, learners revert to an earlier stage on the normal path to acquisition of the structure they had supposedly mastered in isolation" (p 22). Nevertheless, after one week, a notable medium-term effect of the LFS remained for many learners. Indeed, Ellis (2012) noted that several studies have shown lasting effects for instruction.

8.4 EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION, TASKS, AND PRACTICE

According to some advocates of skill-acquisition theory (DeKeyser, 2007, 2010; Johnson, 1996; Lyster & Sato, 2013), tasks are ideal vehicles for systematic practice. It is argued that freer practice is essential for developing procedural knowledge of targeted linguistic forms. This approach to language pedagogy was operationalised through Class A. The LFS allowed learners to develop their declarative knowledge of the target forms during the consciousness-raising sections, and their procedural knowledge through some controlled practice. The task that followed was intended to provide obligatory occasions for practice, but, as Ellis (2003) warned, learners are often quite skilled at avoiding forms that they may not want to attempt to produce. Also, as discussed above, Willis and Willis (2007) claimed learners may simply ignore forms taught in pre-task instruction, but this study's

Class A learners did seem to use the task as an opportunity to practise the target forms. This was even the case in the less-focused CT task. Although it did not provide the same amount of TFOs as the DP task, there were several practice opportunities for all the participants throughout the course of the task. The group cases described in 4.1.2.6 showed many of the participants taking the opportunity to practise the suggestion phrases, and there was even a kind of shared orientation to practice which was manifested by some of the metatalk and co-constructions that occurred. The DP task provided many opportunities for practice of present continuous and *have (got)*, and the cases presented in 4.2.2.5 showed how Class A learners mostly used the target forms to describe the pictures. Therefore, from the perspective of skill-acquisition theory, the tasks provided an ideal opportunity for practice in the pre-task approach operationalised in Class A.

8.5 INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AND TASK OUTCOMES

A theme that arose consistently was the non-uniform nature of participants' task interaction. Naturally, each participant had a unique starting point not only in terms of language proficiency but also other traits including motivation, personality, language aptitude, and intelligence. The complex and dynamic interaction of these factors might even lead them to approach a task differently on another day.

The quantitative results showed some general patterns for the three classes that received the explicit instruction. However, the same effects of the LFS were not observed for all participants: For Class A, while the quantitative data indicated that the participants were oriented towards target form production, as evidenced by the frequency of target forms used, the individual numbers and the qualitative analysis revealed that the form-orientation was not universal. For Class B, the story was similar, with some participants switching their orientation strongly following the during-task LFS towards target form production, while others continued to orient towards meaning. The Class C main task interaction primarily revealed that there were some participants who already had reasonable control of the target forms, and the same was observed to a lesser extent in the Class D interactions. The repeat tasks showed that some learners were both oriented towards and capable of producing the target forms, but others were either not oriented towards their use, not developmentally ready to produce them, or perhaps lacked confidence and avoided them. The varying responses towards the LFS and the tasks could have been due to individual differences between the participants, or the relations and dynamics within the groups.

8.5.1 Impact of individual differences

It is not difficult to speculate how individual differences could result in some of the variation in performance that was observed. Participants with higher overall proficiency may have already been comfortable with using suggestion phrases, the present continuous, and/or *have (got)*. Those with partial knowledge may have had it activated by the LFS (and the practice opportunities afforded by the main task in Class A and B). Class A or B participants who were not developmentally ready for

the forms may have been able to produce them by referring to the LFS materials during the main task, yet this was not possible in the repeat task, and their accuracy suffered or they avoided the forms completely. Similarly, participants with high language aptitude might, for example, be able to simply recall new suggestion phrases more easily than others.

Motivation could have had a similarly strong effect on the task outcomes. Often, those participants who appeared to be highly motivated were also those that demonstrated an orientation towards producing the target forms. This might have been the result of a desire to push their linguistic skills and try new forms, or they may have been responding more positively towards the presence of the recording devices and were demonstrating their mastery of the target language. This was something seen in those participants that appeared to deliberately use a variety of suggestion phrases during the CT task. Of course, some may have been motivated to use the forms as they assumed it may please the teacher and lead to higher grades. Motivation could also have impacted the repeat tasks in a different way: Highly motivated learners were more likely to have reviewed their lesson notes before the next meeting, which might help them perform better during the repeat tasks. Alternatively, a motivated individual might have tried to covertly look at them just before beginning the actual task. The reviewing of notes is also related to learning strategies. Some participants may have had a routine in which they regularly reviewed new material, which would surely have had a positive effect on repeat tasks, while others would have simply filed their notes and lesson materials away.

Personality factors could have influenced task performance in a similar way to motivation. Those extraverted participants with risk-taking tendencies might have been more inclined to try out forms for which they had incomplete knowledge, especially in the repeat task when access to the LFS materials was ostensibly not possible. Other participants with higher levels of language anxiety would probably have been more hesitant to use structures of which they were unsure and may have resorted to using only their existing linguistic resources with which they felt comfortable; during analysis, such avoidances would have appeared to be an orientation towards meaning rather than form.

8.5.2 Impact of social factors

Undoubtedly, the pairings that were made during the data collection lessons had consequences for the task interaction that ensued. Bowles and Adams (2015) have described how the content of interaction and the respective roles that learners take up can be affected by the relative proficiencies of learners within a group. Similarly, McDonough (2015) cited learners' attitudes towards their grades as being an influential factor on interaction. The relationship of the interlocutors is another aspect that is likely to shape the task interaction: Storch (2002) reported how some learner-learner pairs worked more collaboratively than others, with the former approach more productive in terms of fostering attention to form, while Philp et al. (2010) found that interlocutor familiarity influenced the degree to which dyads focused on meaning or form.

In this study, with some 129 task performances analysed, there was much variation along the collaboration spectrum. In some groups, one participant of higher proficiency or confidence would at

times tend to dominate the interaction while at other times such participants would take a back seat and guide others through the task. In many groups, the interaction was deliberately collaborative in that participants seemed to develop quite a regimented structure to the proceedings, taking turns to discuss cinema trip-related topics or describe characters in pictures. The patterns of interactions would naturally affect the number of TFOs that each participant in a group would be presented with.

The disparity between participants across classes can be seen for the DP task in Table 8.4, which displays the mean differences between the participants in terms of their contributions towards the total number of TFOs. The intra-group disparity was more pronounced for Class C and D. In Class A and B, the average differences between two dyads was 13% and 17%, and there was little change in the repeat tasks. However, in Class C and D, there was a higher difference in proportion of 28% and 24%. This increased again in the repeat tasks, which contained some quite unbalanced interactions. As speculated in Chapter 7, it may be the case that the lack of LFS somehow allowed one participant to dominate the interaction. It may have been that weaker students were disempowered without a pre-task LFS to support them, and consequently pre-task instruction could be a useful means to balance task talk between participants.

Table 8.4

The difference in the proportion of TFO contributions between dyads for the DP task

Class	Difference in TFO contributions (%)	
	Main task	Repeat task
A	13	11
B	17	14
C	28	40
D	24	41

Notes. Class B includes the post-LFS phase only.

In addition, the way in which a participant's interlocutor supplied a form for a TFO might impact their partner. If a participant saw their interlocutor as being more proficient, they may have been inclined to copy their language. Throughout the data, there were numerous examples where this seemed to occur.

Overall, the variety that was observed in individual participants' interactions suggest that individual differences and the influence of pairings were strong determining factors in task outcomes. In fact, they were so influential that all other findings have to be considered in light of them.

8.6 PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Being a classroom-based investigation with a pedagogical focus from its inception and through the entire process, this thesis has several implications for instructed language learning. The first implication for practice comes from the pilot studies and the issue of the inherent task essentialness of classroom tasks. As considered in section 2.5, tasks have previously been categorised as being either focused or unfocused (Ellis, 2003; Nobuyoshi & Ellis, 1993); that is, they either inherently require the use of specific linguistic forms, or they allow learners to freely choose the language to be used.

However, I suggested that instead of a simple dichotomy, tasks may lie somewhere on a continuum between focused and unfocused. The DP task was the more focused task of the two used in the main study, but, as Ellis (2003) noted, learners can be highly skilled at avoiding targeted forms. As seen throughout the data set, the participants did not always choose the present continuous or *have (got)* to describe the actions and states of the characters in the pictures. Some chose alternative means to describe their pictures, and this thesis contends that this was often due to their orientation. The key point to take away here is that even apparently strongly focused tasks allow some room for learners to make their own linguistic choices. Conversely, the CT task was considered to be an unfocused task. Nevertheless, from the piloting phase through to the main study, this ostensibly unfocused task certainly encouraged learners to use certain forms, most significantly the suggestion phrases which were elected to be target forms. It seems that even an unfocused task can be used to direct learners towards predetermined forms, though this may not be obvious when a task has been selected or is being designed. It may require teachers to make recordings of such tasks actually being performed by learners to identify potentially useful forms, and naturally these forms may change depending on the groups of learners. The main implication of these observations is that teachers can take a more flexible approach to the use of (un)focused tasks. They can try to strike an appropriate balance between focused and unfocused based on their goals, and those of the learners and the institution.

This study also offers some support for previous claims about the position of explicit instruction around tasks; however, the findings suggest that they are incomplete descriptions of the true complexity of classroom task interaction, which is far more nuanced and context-specific.

For those teachers who are practicing a pre-task approach, possibly based on the P-P-P model, this thesis shows that it may indeed draw learners' attention overtly towards target form production and negatively influence fluency. If the aim of an activity is to allow learners to communicate primarily using their own resources then perhaps this approach should not be taken. However, there may still be many opportunities for learners to use their own linguistic repertoire outside of the obligatory occasions for target forms. Tasks can be designed that are not too dense with such obligatory occasions, and a suitable balance may be found between providing both practice of predetermined forms and more meaning-based communication opportunities. The repeat task data offered some indication that the practice which such an approach provides can lead to signs of acquisition, at least in the medium-term. While it appears true that there are certain drawbacks to a pre-task approach, and some may not consider it a type of TBLT at all, it may be unproductive to simply dismiss it as being an inherently inferior approach. Clearly, many practitioners are comfortable with it and would argue for its effectiveness in their own specific teaching contexts (Carless, 2009; Viet, Canh, & Barnard, 2015). It also continues to be the mainstay of teacher education programmes (Harris, 2015, cited in J. Anderson, 2017). Instead of insisting on an entire change of lesson procedures, it might be more fruitful to focus on designing tasks that do not just contain a narrow focus on one or two forms but simultaneously offer some room for experimentation with existing linguistic resources. It may also be important to reiterate that we cannot expect mastery of forms merely after one session. If tasks are to be used in such a way as vehicles for practice (DeKeyser,

2010; Lyster & Sato, 2013) some thought should be given to how an orientation towards practice of forms can be maintained. The Class A data set revealed a tendency for learner orientation to drift away from forms as the task progressed. As Willis and Willis (2007) noted, there is no point pre-teaching forms if learners simply end up ignoring them during the task.

This study suggested a during-task language focus to be a useful approach but one which might not be appropriate for all kinds of tasks and target forms. It might work better for those tasks that take a longer time to complete. This would allow learners sufficient time in any pre-language focus phase to notice gaps in their L2 knowledge and apply the taught forms in the post- phase. The qualitative analysis showed that many learners may orient strongly towards form after during-task instruction. Therefore, those teachers who want their students to be relatively free in their choices of language should consider allowing a significant pre-language focus phase when implementing such an approach. This may not always be possible in classes with large student numbers, students with lower motivation, or younger learners. In such situations, teachers might not feel comfortable with entrusting learners to diligently carry out a task which takes a longer time to make progress. Another option for teachers to consider is the explicitness of the language focus stage and the extent to which it interrupts the task. The fact that several Class B participants appeared to orient quite strongly to forms after the LFS was possibly a consequence of the more explicit focus on language than seen in other operationalisations of a during-task approach. It might be wise for practitioners to limit the explicitness of the during-task language focus to allow learners to return their attention back to meaning in the post-language focus phase.

The post-task approach to explicit teaching seemed to provide the opportunities during the main task to focus on meaning claimed by its proponents (Skehan, 1998; Willis & Willis, 2007). It seems particularly suitable for narrow tasks where the pre-teaching of forms can lead to the simple regurgitation of a very limited number of structures. However, to maximise the benefits from the post-task language focus, making available an opportunity for learners to repeat the task, thus providing practice opportunities, seems a good idea. Even if one does not accept that practice can lead to true acquisition (Long, 2015), it can offer a crucial chance for the proceduralisation of explicit knowledge. It also provides a definite chance for learners to meet the target forms again, something that Willis and Willis (2007) argued for. Without a such a fixed opportunity, it may be a long time before a learner encounters the need for a specific vocabulary item or structure. Some tasks are inherently more suitable for repetition than others. The findings from Class D indicated that if learners are required to repeat the same language forms many times, it can lead to an increase in minimalised structures and the lexicalisation of talk (see 7.3.2). If tasks are relatively short and/or the information is easily varied allowing procedural repetition (Kim & Tracy-Ventura, 2013), they may be more amenable to task repetition. For instance, a spot the difference or narrative task would meet these criteria. Conversely, a listing or ranking task on a specific topic is an example where stimulating repetition of the task would be unlikely, although a change of partner(s) can provide some degree of novelty. It might also be difficult to convince some students of the benefit of repeating a lengthy discussion task. Indeed, findings on learners' attitudes towards task repetition is far from uniform: some researchers have

reported that learners did not mind repeating the same task again (Ahmadian, Mansouri, & Ghominejad, 2017¹²; Hawkes, 2010; Lynch & Maclean, 2001), while others have described a less enthusiastic reaction (Nitta & Baba, 2014; Plough & Gass, 1991).

This thesis contends that practitioners should not blindly follow the dogmatic calls for one narrowly defined method of language teaching. There are both benefits and drawbacks to each approach, and the outcomes are not uniform for all learners. Indeed, perhaps the most widespread finding of the study was the influence that individual differences and the apparent effect that interlocutor pairings had on task interaction. L2 acquisition, task interaction, and classrooms generally, are complex systems, and the number of factors that can impact classroom learning is quite daunting. It may be sensible to revisit Kumaravadivelu's (2001) assertion that we should strive for a postmethod pedagogy. The kind of flexible, principled eclecticism (Andon & Leung, 2013; Thornbury, 2012) that is locally focused (Kumaravadivelu, 2011) seems a worthy goal. Indeed, as Larsen-Freeman (2015) pointed out, "teaching is a contingent act. Decontextualized proscriptions and prescriptions are not likely to be universally applicable" (p. 272). Despite the obvious impact that pedagogical choices can have on task outcomes, it is important not to lose sight of the likelihood that it is the learners themselves who have the greatest impact of task outcomes (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Teachers should be prepared to be flexible with their positioning of any explicit teaching depending on the task type, the pedagogic goals, and, perhaps most importantly, the learners.

8.7 LIMITATIONS AND AVENUES FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

While this study was originally envisioned as a series of cumulative multi-level qualitative case studies, it soon became apparent that a number of features suitable for quantification were emerging from the data. The four classes were similar in many ways: they had been streamed into levels through a placement test, they had received very similar secondary school English education, and they did the same English classes at university. Nevertheless, a pre- and post-test design was not used, so a quasi-experimental test of acquisition for the target forms was not possible. A potential future avenue for research could involve a (quasi-)experimental study to investigate the impact of LFS position on some of the features identified in this study including disfluency markers (with narrative tasks) and medium-term acquisition. The present study collected data at only two points for each task type. A longitudinal investigation would allow the tracking of any longer term impact of the positioning of explicit instruction.

Although this study incorporated uptake reports as a means of collecting introspective data from participants, it would have been highly desirable to have also conducted some stimulated response interviews. This would have added a further element of triangulation to the self-report data, which can be unreliable (Markee, 2015). It would also have provided additional support for some of the deductions made from the interaction data (Fukuta, 2016). Unfortunately, due to the absence of

¹² The participants in Ahmadian et al.'s study were all highly motivated adult learners, precisely the kind of learners that may not mind repetition of activities if they recognised the value for their language development.

participant volunteers for what would have been an activity done outside of class time, it was not possible to gather stimulated recall data.

Other factor that affects the generalisability of the findings is the context specific nature of the study. While the relative homogeneity of the participants added to the internal validity of the study, it naturally had a contrasting impact on external validity. Further, only two tasks types were used leaving the possibility of alternative results being found if different tasks are used. More studies looking at a variety of tasks and contexts would be needed to make more general claims about the issues taken up in this thesis. On the basis of this study alone, it is difficult to make confident claims for contexts with different learner factors including, but not limited to, majors, age groups, gender balance, and proficiency.

8.8 CONCLUSION

This study set out to empirically investigate some of the more dogmatic and confrontational claims made in pedagogically-focused discussions of TBLT. Despite being the subject of lively debate for at least two decades, the question of where to position a focus on language when working with tasks is one that has not been tackled comprehensively. In an effort to fill this gap, this thesis examined the interactions taken from 129 task performances involving 87 participants over four classes, with each class focusing on language at a different point of the lesson in relation to the main task.

By being based in a genuine classroom, and using a primarily qualitative approach to analysis of the interaction data, I have been able to demonstrate that the situation in real classrooms may be more nuanced than it has sometimes been portrayed. While the warnings and assertions regarding the benefits and drawbacks of certain sequencing strategies appear to be partially warranted, the actual situation is not straightforward, and one single approach may not be the most appropriate for all practitioners and their unique contexts. The data presented in this thesis suggest that it may be wise to take a more flexible, yet informed, approach to sequencing choices when using tasks in language teaching. My hope is that I have been able to make a valuable contribution to the discourse surrounding teaching with tasks and the everyday pedagogical choices that practitioners need to take in their classes.

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APPENDIX 1

INFORMED CONSENT LETTER

Dear student,

As well as teaching English classes here at [REDACTED], I am also a PhD student at Aston University in the UK. I am studying the best way to conduct English classes for university students in Japan. I am interested in how Japanese students focus on grammar and communication during speaking tasks.

I would like to ask you for your help to collect data. I want to use the audio recordings of your speaking tasks. I plan to transcribe the recordings and analyse your conversations. I would also like you to do a short questionnaire.

Please read the section below carefully, and if you agree to participate please sign below. If you do not want to participate then no problem—I will not use your data for my research.

In the future, parts of this research may be published but no real names will be used and your anonymity will be protected.

If you have any questions or concerns, please ask me.

Thank you for your help,

Martin Hawkes

Participant consent form

I have read, and I fully understand, the description of the research to be carried out by Martin Hawkes.

I understand that the task recordings and questionnaires will be used for data analysis.

I understand that my real name will not be used in any documents, and my identity will be kept secret.

I agree to take part in this study.

Signature

Date

生徒の皆様

甲南大学で英語の授業を教えると同時に、私はまた、英国のアストン大学における博士課程の学生です。私は日本の大学生に対し最良の授業を実施する方法について勉強しています。私は、スピーキングタスク中に生徒がどのように文法とコミュニケーションに焦点を当てるのかということに関心を寄せています。

それに従って、データを収集するため、あなたのスピーキングタスクの様子を録音、使用することについて協力をお願いします。その録音記録を書き起こし、会話の分析を計画していると同時に、短いアンケートも実施します。

以下のセクションを参照し、参加に同意の場合はログインしてください。参加に同意されない場合はデータを使用しませんのでご安心ください。

なお本研究は匿名で公開されるため個人を特定されることはありません。

ご質問やご不明な点がございましたら、お尋ね下さい。

ご協力ありがとうございます。

参加同意書

- 私はマーティン・ホークスが実施する研究の説明について、完全に理解しました。□
- 私はタスクの記録やアンケートが、データ分析のために使用されることについて理解しました。□
- 私は自分の氏名が公表されず、個人情報を守られることについて理解しました。□
- 私はこの研究に参加することに同意します。□

署名

日付

APPENDIX 2

LESSON MATERIALS

CINEMA TRIP TASK MATERIALS

*Initial task for sections A and D
(Week 1 of task cycle)*



*Initial task for sections B and C
(Week 1 of task cycle)*



Materials for language focus stage (LFS)

Language Focus - Suggestions

A. *Listen again and read the model task.*

A: So why don't we go and see a movie this week?
B: Sure, what's on?
A: Here's the cinema listing. what do you wanna see?
B: hmmmmmm we could watch Carrie?
A: Ooh, I'm not really into horror.
B: ah okay hmm
A: how about the new Tom Hanks movie, Captain Phillips?
B: ah sorry I've already seen it. hmm what about Percy Jackson?
A: Ah Percy Jackson! I heard that was quite good. Okay, sounds good.
B: Yeah yeah. do you wanna see it in 3D or 2D?
A: Hmm is it the same price?
B: Ah I think 3D is a little bit more expensive.
A: Ah... oh 400 yen but that's okay, ah yeah 3D sounds pretty cool.
B: Yeah. um alright when is good for you?
A: It'll have to be Saturday or Sunday.
B: afternoon?
A: yeah. how about the er the two-twenty?
B: two-twenty works for me.
A: okay.
B: well do you wanna- do you wanna grab some lunch first?
A: ah that sounds great. Do you know any places around there?
B: what do you fancy eating?
A: shall we go to a pizza place or something?
B: Yeah there's a- there's a nice little um Italian restaurant just around the corner I think.
A: but when should we meet?
B: tell you what, let's meet at about one o'clock.
A: one o'clock, and then we'll buy tickets and go to the restaurant.
B: yeah.
A: it might be good to meet in the lobby then.
B: in the lobby yes
A: okay see you then

B. *Underline the words that are used to make suggestions. There are eight to be found.*

C. Look at the suggestions below. Which are correct? Check (✓) the boxes.

Suggestion	correct	incorrect
Why don't we <i>Monsters Inc</i> ?		
Why don't we watch <i>Monsters Inc</i> ?		
Why don't we watching <i>Monsters Inc</i> ?		
What about <i>Jolly Pasta</i> ?		
How about eating at <i>Jolly Pasta</i> ?		
What about eat at <i>Jolly Pasta</i> ?		
We could meet in the cinema lobby?		
We meet in the cinema lobby?		
We could meeting in the cinema lobby?		
Shall we go to the six thirty show?		
We go to the six thirty show?		
Shall we going to the six thirty show?		
Let's go and see <i>Toy Story</i> ?		
Let's <i>Toy Story</i> ?		
Let's going and see <i>Toy Story</i> ?		
It might be good to eat after the movie.		
It might be good eat after the movie.		
It be good to eat after the movie.		

D. Write the missing words for rules for making suggestions. Choose the answers from the box.

verb phrase (動詞句)	noun (名詞)	-ing phrase (動名詞)	verb phrase
verb phrase		verb phrase	to + verb phrase

1. why don't we...? why don't we + _____? 2. what about...? / how about...? how/what about + _____? how/what about + _____? 3. we could... we could _____?	4. shall we... shall we + _____? 5. let's let's + _____? 6. it might be good... it might be good + _____?
---	---

E. With your partner, take turns picking a card and reading it to your partner. When replying your partner should make a suggestion. Try to use a different suggestion each time.

Example

A: What should we have for dinner tonight?
 B: How about pizza?

B: How do you want to go to Osaka?
 A: Shall we take the train?

I'm hungry.	I need a drink!	What should we buy Mr Hawkes for his birthday?
I'm broke - I need more money.	When should we meet to do our English project?	What TV show do you recommend?
What time should we meet tomorrow?	Where should we go for lunch today?	Where should we meet to do our English homework?

***Repeat task for sections A and D
(week 2 of task cycle)***



























***Repeat task for sections B and C
(week 2 of task cycle)***



DESCRIBING PEOPLE TASK MATERIALS

Initial task (Week 1 of task cycle)

Same or Different?		Student A
 <p>Same? <input type="checkbox"/> Different? <input type="checkbox"/></p>	 <p>Same? <input type="checkbox"/> Different? <input type="checkbox"/></p>	 <p>Same? <input type="checkbox"/> Different? <input type="checkbox"/></p>
 <p>Same? <input type="checkbox"/> Different? <input type="checkbox"/></p>	 <p>Same? <input type="checkbox"/> Different? <input type="checkbox"/></p>	 <p>Same? <input type="checkbox"/> Different? <input type="checkbox"/></p>
 <p>Same? <input type="checkbox"/> Different? <input type="checkbox"/></p>	 <p>Same? <input type="checkbox"/> Different? <input type="checkbox"/></p>	 <p>Same? <input type="checkbox"/> Different? <input type="checkbox"/></p>
 <p>Same? <input type="checkbox"/> Different? <input type="checkbox"/></p>	 <p>Same? <input type="checkbox"/> Different? <input type="checkbox"/></p>	 <p>Same? <input type="checkbox"/> Different? <input type="checkbox"/></p>

Same or Different?		Student B
 <p>Same? <input type="checkbox"/> Different? <input type="checkbox"/></p>	 <p>Same? <input type="checkbox"/> Different? <input type="checkbox"/></p>	 <p>Same? <input type="checkbox"/> Different? <input type="checkbox"/></p>
 <p>Same? <input type="checkbox"/> Different? <input type="checkbox"/></p>	 <p>Same? <input type="checkbox"/> Different? <input type="checkbox"/></p>	 <p>Same? <input type="checkbox"/> Different? <input type="checkbox"/></p>
 <p>Same? <input type="checkbox"/> Different? <input type="checkbox"/></p>	 <p>Same? <input type="checkbox"/> Different? <input type="checkbox"/></p>	 <p>Same? <input type="checkbox"/> Different? <input type="checkbox"/></p>
 <p>Same? <input type="checkbox"/> Different? <input type="checkbox"/></p>	 <p>Same? <input type="checkbox"/> Different? <input type="checkbox"/></p>	 <p>Same? <input type="checkbox"/> Different? <input type="checkbox"/></p>

Materials for language focus stage (LFS)

Language Focus - Describing People

A. Look at two pictures. Listen to and read the model task.

John's pictures



Lily's pictures



John: in picture one a man is wearing trousers and a plain shirt.
Lily: yeah same
John: and he has a hat...like a baseball cap
Lily: baseball cap yeah. in mine too. hmm. maybe these pictures are the same eh?
John: maybe yeah. hmm. is your man drinking something?
Lily: no - he's got a donut or something. so they're different!
John: okay next
Lily: hm picture two is of a woman.
John: yes a woman.
Lily: She has got long hair.
John: yes, long hair. and she's holding a cigarette.
Lily: yeah. she's smoking. hmm. this woman has dark hair, how about yours?
John: yes. she has black hair. I think these pictures are the same.
Lily: okay, same.

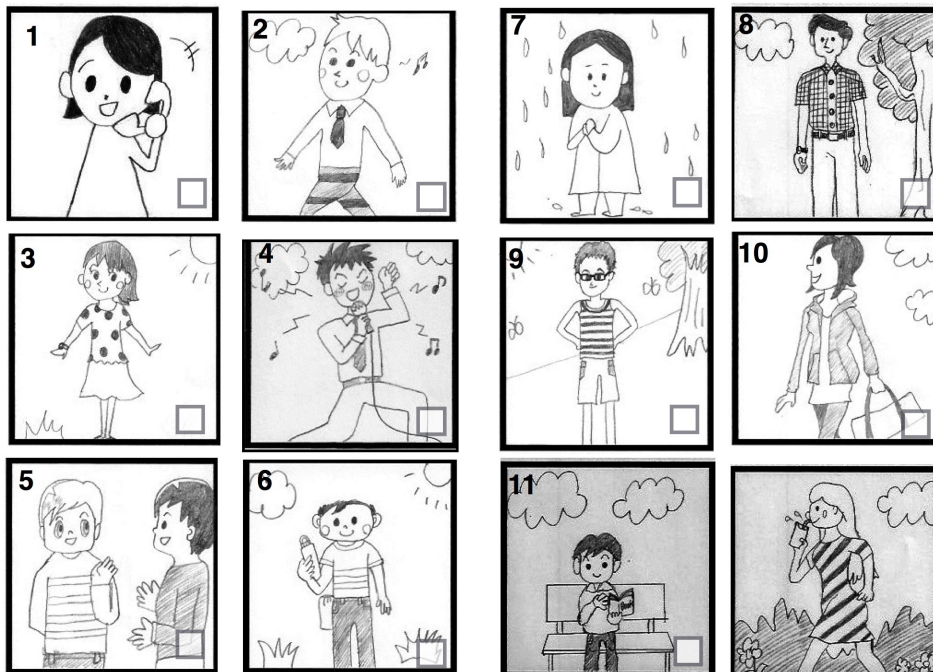
B. Underline the words that are used to describe the people in the pictures.

Page removed for copyright restrictions.

Repeat task (week 2 of task cycle)

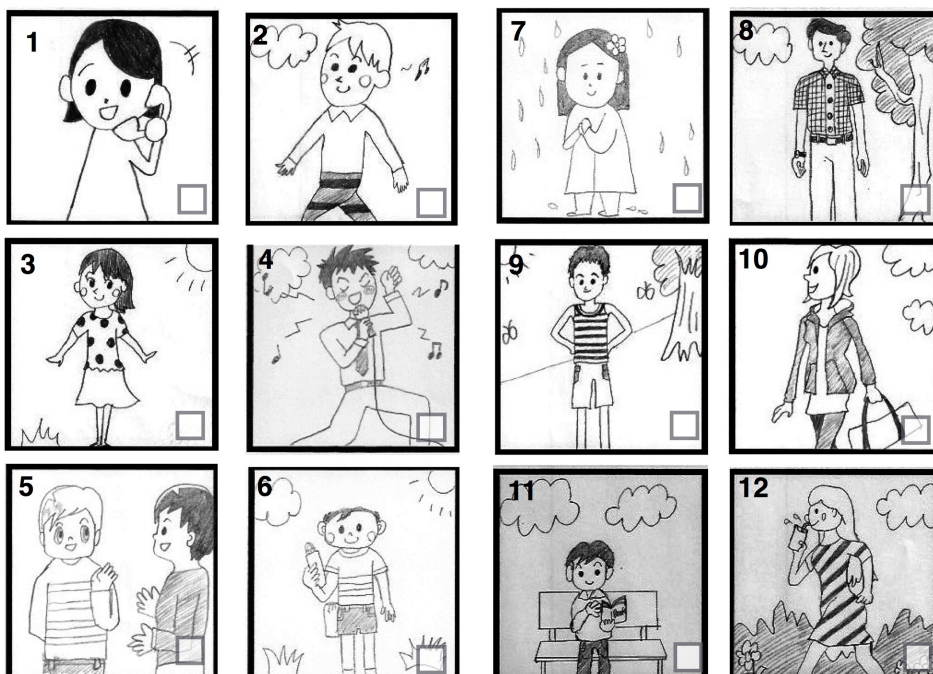
Same or Different?

Student A



Same or Different?

Student B



APPENDIX 3
UPTAKE REPORTS

Language Report Sheet

What language points did you notice today? (今日どんなポイントを気付きましたか)	Where did you notice it? (何から気付きましたか)			Was it new? (初めてでしたか)	
	teacher (教師)	student (生徒)	materials (教材)	Yes	No
Grammar (文法)					
•					
•					
•					
•					
Words or phrases (単語／フレーズ)					
•					
•					
•					
•					
Pronunciation (発音)					
•					
•					
•					
•					

APPENDIX 4

TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS

A. The codes following each excerpt shown in the main text indicates the class (C), group number (G), and the task (Main Task or Repeat Task). For example, CA/G4/MT indicates that that the excerpt is taken from the main task interaction of Group 4 in Class A.

B. Conventions (adapted from Kasper & Wagner, 2011) used in the transcription process were as follows:

[Overlapping speech	XXXXX	Unintelligible speech (If L2, italics are used)
(0.5)	length of silence over half a second*	ə	vowel marking
(.)	micropause (less than half a second)	<i>italics</i>	Japanese words
(..)	short pause (less than one second)	{ }	English translation of participants' Japanese
<u>underlining</u>	relatively high pitch	☺	Smile voice
CAPS	high volume	Commonly used Japanese	
::	lengthened syllable	<i>ka</i>	a particle used to denote a question or uncertainty
—	self-interruption, cut-off, abrupt finish/false start	<i>eto</i>	a hesitation device similar to “em” or “er”.
?	rising intonation contour	<i>are</i>	an expression to indicate surprise or uncertainty. Similar to “what’s that?”.
.	falling intonation contour	<i>ja</i>	an interjection used to signal an upcoming utterance
,	continuing intonation contour	<i>hai</i>	yes
↑ ↓	sudden rise/fall in intonation	<i>chigau/</i> <i>chau</i>	Meaning “different”, it is often used after a speaker realises they have spoken (an) incorrect (form or meaning) word(s).
(speech)	transcriber’s best guess at content		
(())	other events		
hh	audible exhalation		
·hh	audible inhalation		
(hh)	laughter syllable within a word		
◦ ◦	quieter than surrounding talk		
huh	smiley voice		

* For Class A, the first data set to be transcribed, pauses were measured to the tenth of a second. Due to the quantity of data and the time taken to measure to this level of accuracy, pauses were measured to the nearest half second for Class B, C, and D.

APPENDIX 5

SAMPLE TASK TRANSCRIPTS

Class A: Cinema trip, Main task, Group 1

01 EM: why don't we go and and see a movie this week?
02 T: don't copy it hehe maybe the start is okay but it's your
03 conversation yeah?
04 EM: *saisho kara iku?* {T:should we start again?}
05 YN: *un*
06 GO: *soshiyou* {T:let's do that}
07 EM: why don't we go and see a movie this week?
08 (3.5)
09 GO: hehe yeah
10 EM: sounds good ((whispered))
11 YN: sounds good. xxx hehe eh (1.5) I=
12 GO: =er what (1.0) what's going on (..) the new movie?
13 (2.3)
14 EM: ha- hm (5.3) how about (2.2) the Carrie
15 GO: *itsu te kiita no ni* {T:I asked 'when'}
16 EM: [*itsu ka?* {T:oh, 'when'}
17 YN: [ah eh how about (1.5) how about going (1.0) movie (..) er this
18 weekend?
19 ((16 seconds of laughter))
20 EM: how abou- how about um Saturday?
21 GO: hm sounds good
22 YN: sounds good
23 ((6 seconds of laughter))
24 YN: how hehe (3.2) how about-o (3.2) how about going (0.7) Room
25 Mate?
26 (5.5)
27 GO: hm::
28 EM: *kikebeii* {T:I should ask} what kind of movie do you want to (..)
29 watch?
30 (3.5)
31 EM: *tte nanka XXX* {T:???}
32 YN: ah how about going-u Kazetachinu?
33 GO: (how about) hehe yeah but I- I want to go to Kakuyahime
34 Monogatari
35 EM: XXX
36 YN: er how
37 ((12 seconds of laughter))
38 YN: I- I don't (..) want to watch-i (..) Kakuyahime
39 GO: okay [oh: (1.8) let's- let's go (1.1) er Kazetachinu
40 YN: [*yasashi* {T:he's kind}
41 YN: sounds good
42 EM: okay ah
43 YN: how about (1.0) this mo- how about going this movie (2.5) *chau*
44 {T:that's wrong} hehe what when=
45 GO: =what show time er what showing do (..) this mo- ah see this
46 movie?
47 EM: ah (3.0) hm:: (3.0) (hh) how about *doushiyoukana* {T:what should I
48 do?} (2.2) it might be good to (0.8) see Kazetachinu (2.3) *chigau*
49 {T:no, not that} at?
50 GO: at (1.5) seven o'clock?
51 EM: seven o'clock
52 GO: yeah hm:: that's okay
53 YN: let's go!
54 EM: *owatta!* {T:finished}
55 (6.0)
56 EM: where to meet. where- where to eat. er
57 YN: *itsu?* {T:when?}
58 EM: XXX (*soko mae xxx*)
59 EM: shall we go to Italian restaurant?
60 YN: sounds good! [hehe

61 EM: [hehe
 62 GO: where? (.) where go to?
 63 EM: er (2.4) why don't we (1.6) why: do:n't we: [go
 64 GO: [go
 65 EM: (1.4) Jolly Pasta?
 66 (2.5)
 67 YN: why don't [we go (.) Starbucks?
 68 GO: [okay
 69 GO: oh::
 70 EM: Italian restaurant XXX hehe
 71 YN: I- I don't like pasta.
 72 EM: okay
 73 ((2.3 SECONDS OF LAUGHTER))
 74 GO: okay let's go (.) Saizeria.
 75 YN: sound good hehe
 76 GO: that is Italian re- Italian.
 77 YN: ah yeah.
 78 EM: I know.
 79 ((3.5 seconds of laughter))
 80 YN: I know too
 81 (6.0)
 82 GO: whe- whe- when oh
 83 EM: when
 84 GO: when we meet ah (1.0) before (2.0) go to cinema?
 85 EM: whe-
 86 (2.0)
 87 GO: hm
 88 EM: XXXXX *koto*
 89 GO: un
 90 EM: how: about- *ju kuji kara chau?* {T:from 9 or 10, isn't it}
 91 GO: hehe how *sukisugi* {T:you like it too much}
 92 EM: hehe how about- *gohan tabena akan kara=* {T:we have to eat lunch}
 93 YN: =*seyona*: {T:that's right}
 94 GO: hm
 95 YN: *demo asa kara asobitai kara* hehe {T:but I want to play from
 96 morning}
 97 YN: how about=
 98 EM: =ten o'clock=
 99 YN: =how about ten o'clock?
 100 ((laughter 4.5))
 101 YN: I want to go,
 102 GO: yeah
 103 YN: many place
 104 GO: hm okay (..) but ten o'clock is so fast
 105 EM: hehe
 106 YN: hehe un:: how about (1.4)
 107 GO: hehe
 108 YN: eleven o'clock?
 109 GO: XXX
 110 EM: eleven?
 111 GO: yah:: okay eleven o'clock is okay=
 112 YN: =I (1.5) how about (1.4) ah *chau wa* {T:that's wrong} (2.8)
 113 *hazukashi* {T:it's embarrassing}
 114 GO: hehe how about *sukisugiru* {T:like it too much} (2.6) okay okay
 115 YN: why don't:: (1.3) hehe [how about
 116 GO: [ele- ele- eleven o'clock is okay okay
 117 YN: I (..) get up you
 118 (8.5)
 119 EM: I going to?
 120 YN: I going to eleven o'clock (1.0) your house
 121 GO: ah okay.
 122 EM: *basho mo kimechatta* {T:we've also decided the place}

Class A: Describing people, Main task, Group 1

01 AS: one picture (0.6) in one picture a man? (hand) (4.5) hehe man
02 wearing a watch
03 (3.3)
04 YS: right hand?
05 AS: yes.
06 (1.1)
07 YS: er: (2.0) he: is wearing-u striped shirt
08 AS: striped te nanda {T:what is [striped]} (2.5) checked shirt.
09 YS: checked shirt?
10 AS: ah okay, this is different.
11 YS: different.
12 AS: next, (1.0) two-two picture ah picture two hm:: two boys? (.)
13 conversation?
14 YS: er (5.0) ah: boys has light coloured hair=
15 AS: =yeah
16 YS: er another boys er black hair.
17 AS: yeah same ur: hm (5.5) (1.5) hehe xxx border?
18 YS: border.
19 AS: li-light (1.5) colou:r hair boy hehe (1.3) is wearing-u border
20 shirt.
21 YS: okay okay.
22 AS: and black hair boy (0.8) i:s: wearing (.) black (.) shirt
23 YS: yes plain.
24 AS: plain. er: same. hehe
25 YS: same.
26 AS: next three three in picture (..) the girl (telephone).
27 YS: ah (2.5) er: (1.8) she has (.) black hair
28 AS: yeah. she: xxx xxx (7.0) okay okay next
29 YS: next?
30 AS: next four
31 YS: four
32 AS: er a bo:y listening to: the music (1.0) on his? music player
33 (1.7)
34 YS: he is reading book.
35 AS: oh (.) different
36 YS: different (2.5) five
37 AS: five (4.0) a girl stand outside.
38 YS: yes er she: is wearing-u dot shirt.
39 AS: yeah, (.) she is wearing skirt,
40 YS: white?
41 AS: yes. next! hehe
42 YS: next
43 AS: six the boy walking (1.5) humming with hu- with his @humming@
44 YS: oh (1.5) u:m he: is wearing (.) border pants?
45 AS: yeah, @next@! seven. (2.0) the girl↑ (0.5) ha:s an umbrella?
46 YS: she don't have umbrella.
47 AS: rain?
48 YS: rain.
49 AS: don't have umbrella? hehe
50 YS: no hehe
51 AS: different, (..) this picture is different hehe. next eight the-
52 a woman (.) walking (.) has a bag
53 YS: hm she: has (0.5) light colour hair
54 AS: yeah she is wearing (1.0) jacket? or parker? hm black
55 YS: ah ah yes.
56 AS: next
57 YS: next hehe
58 AS: @nine@ a woman drink (0.8) ing- is drinki:ng something? and (.)
59 walking?
60 YS: yeah she: eat-u soft cream?

61 AS: oh different picture. hehe
62 YS: different
63 AS: next hehe boy (.) is (.) wearing (.) border tank top
64 YS: yes er he has (.) short black hair
65 AS: yeah. (1.5) you see two butterfly?
66 YS: yes
67 AS: next hehe eleven hm a boy have (1.0) hehe something
68 YS: something
69 AS: hehe right hand.
70 YS: un yes
71 AS: hm:
72 YS: er he has (.) a (1.0) cap (2.0) like baseball cap?
73 AS: no
74 YS: no?
75 AS: he has not (1.0) cap hehe different=
76 YS: =different
77 AS: oh:
78 YS: *ato ikko* {T:one more to go}
79 AS: twelve, next (twelve) hm a:: (0.9) man singing,
80 YS: singing
81 AS: have-u a mike?
82 YS: mike, uh yes he:: (1.1) he has got (.) a tie?
83 AS: yeah (1.0) black tie?
84 YS: black tie.
85 AS: okay hehe [mm:
86 YS: [eh?
87 (9.0)
88 YS: he has (.) white-o pants?
89 AS: yeah.