CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Given that the main purpose of the present study is to compare the effects of the task-based instruction, the form-and-task-based instruction, and the conventional instruction on English learning achievement and the students' writing ability, the first aim of this chapter is to review the instructional effects of formal instruction on language learning. Secondly, traditional, cognitive and interactive perspectives relating to the three instructional methods are reviewed focusing on how they have effect on students' L2 development. Then, how the instruction could enhance EFL writing ability and how writing is assessed are reviewed. Lastly, students' attitude towards L2 learning is reviewed.

2.1 Effects of Formal Instruction to L2 Development

In the 1950s, the Audio-Lingual method received great popularity, resulting in the comparative study of the effects of one teaching method to others. However, studies reported no differences between the methods (*e.g.*, Chastain, 1969, Wertheimer and Smith, cited in Ellis, 1997). This led to the conclusion that the teaching method was too vague to be the variable for a comparative study.

In the early 1970s, second language acquisition (SLA) research, based on Brown's (1973) study of the first language acquisition of English morphemes in natural order perspective, brought with it the significance of the linguistic forms and grammar teaching. A number of studies (*e.g.*, Bailey, Madden and Krashen, 1974; Duley and Burt, 1973, 1974; Fathman, 1978; Krashen, Sterlaza, Feldman and Fathman, 1976; Makino, 1979) discovered the acquisition order of the English morphemes and syntax in diverse situations. For example, Dulay and Burt (1973) studied acquisition of grammatical morphemes in English with 151 Spanish-speaking children, aged from five to eight years. They first elicited errors from spontaneous speech and found that the majority (85%) of the errors was developmental errors – errors which are the same as the first

language acquisition, and that these L2 children made use of universal language processing strategies, for example, absence of morpheme and syntax, *e.g.*, John hit dog., or errors caused by overgeneralization, *e.g.*, foots for feet. Then, they studied the frequency of grammatical morphemes (present progressive, plural, past irregular, possessive, article, third person singular, contractible copula and contractible auxiliary) and found that the frequency of the order of accuracy, ranging from the most frequent use to the least frequent, was the same as those produced by the English native speakers.

A year later, Dulay and Burt (1974) repeated the study, but added 3 more morphemes: pronoun cases-nominative and accusative, regular past, and long plural. The participants were 60 Spanish-speaking and 50 Chinese – speaking learners who had totally different L1 background. The analysis showed a similar order of accuracy. They concluded that learners, regardless of their L1 background, developed accuracy on grammatical morphology in a natural order. This led to the claim that if L1 learners do not require formal instruction to learn their languages, neither should L2 learners (Krashen, 1981; Schwartz; Zobl, 1995), and that the process of acquisition is not influenced by instruction, but it could only be accelerated by engaging the learners in communication and interaction as L1 learners do.

However, many studies reported the effects of formal instruction on the rate and success of acquisition. For example, Pica (1983) found the effects of instruction on the development of plural-s, V-ing. Lightbown's (1983) experimental study reported that some morphemes were affected. In his review of eleven effects-of-instruction studies, Long (1983) concluded that grammar instruction contributes more importantly to language acquisition than natural exposure in promoting L2 acquisition. This conclusion led to much criticism since the studies reviewed had certain problems concerning research methodology such as lack of comparability, existence of intervening variable (VanPatten, 1988). In later review, R. Ellis (2001b) contends that although formal instruction may not have significance effects on the sequences of acquisition, it has facilitative effects on both rate and success of L2 acquisition.

To conclude, recommendation from pedagogic research, in contrast with findings of SLA research is that formal instruction does have effect on language development, and that it helps accelerating the success of L2 acquisition.

2.2 Approaches and Perspectives to L2 Development

The present study involves the specific areas and factors based upon current theoretical developments in the related fields such as cognitive psychology, interaction studies and psycholinguistics. In order to obtain an understanding of factors affecting L2 learning and to predict accurately for the instruction, the approaches and perspectives to the effect-of-instruction are reviewed. This section begins with the traditional approach and the role of explicit knowledge. Then, the interactive approaches including task-based instruction, Interaction Hypothesis are reviewed. Then, the cognitive approaches such as noticing and attention, consciousness-raising activity, focus-on-form are reviewed.

2.2.1 Traditional Approach

One most familiar strategy is to teach grammar explicitly and analytically: the target language is generally isolated to make it salient for the learner; the target language is usually analyzed in a de-contextualized manner; since the language is seen as an object to study, it is examined, observed, compared, explained, and put into its system; to practice, learners drill and complete language exercises focusing on the accuracy. This assumes that explicit presentation and manipulation through extensive language drillings and practice would assist learners to develop the knowledge required for communication.

However, such explicit and analytic grammar teaching has systematically been rejected since the mid-1960s by several language educators (e.g. Newmark and Reibel, 1960; Jakobovits, 1968, 1972; Macnamara, 1973; Krashen and Terrell, 1983; Krashen, 1984 as cited in Stern 1990). Reasons for the objection are pointed out. For example, Stern (1990) explains that presentation language in isolation leads to the problems in word connection within a sentence and discourse, or coherence and that systematic

ordering of language presentation does not help learners to develop their language proficiency since languages are too complex to practice and study discretely. Krashen (1982, 1984, and 1993) stated that explicit knowledge or *learned knowledge* could not be changed into implicit knowledge or *acquired knowledge.* (The italicizations are termed by Krashen). Similar to Stern, Krashen (1992: 409) added that language was *too complex to be deliberately taught or learned* and that *we acquire knowledge by understanding messages, by obtaining comprehensible input.* Thus, explicit knowledge learned in the formal instruction simply had *a peripheral and fragile effect* on acquisition (1992: 410). Skehan (1996: 18) cautiously rejects this traditional teaching, mentioning that *the belief that a precise focus on a particular form leads to learning and automatization...no longer carries much credibility in linguistics or psychology.*

Moreover, the most crucial question posed on the explicit and analytic grammar teaching concerns the use of language for communication in real-life settings, making this type of teaching undesirable and old-fashioned teaching. Strong recommendation from several educators, favored communicative-based language teaching is as the way to assist the transition of practice in the formal classroom to communication outside classroom. The breakthrough of communicative language teaching leads to the ignoring of grammar teaching since it is believed that the rules are inherent in each function of the language (Brown, 2000). Similarly, N. Ellis (2002: 175), while not denying the value of explicit instruction, suggests that the nature of language learning is implicit and occurs through the acquisition of form-function mappings and the regularities. This skill cannot simply be acquired by a few declarative rules, but lots of practice. This seems to suggest that the implicit knowledge is acquired through practice the language implicitly and it entails explicit knowledge. With recognition of grammar instruction, Larsen-Freeman (2003) suggests that opportunities to encounter, process, and use learned knowledge in form-meaning relationship are beneficial for the learners' interlanguage development. In reviewing the studies on form-focused instruction, Spada (1997) maintains that communication exposure with grammar points in formal instruction enhances students' awareness of the forms and improvement of accuracy. Therefore, from-meaning mapping is suggested in a teaching method.

To conclude, the solely explicit and analytical treatment of grammar has been rejected due to the non-effects and/or negative effects on students' ability to use language appropriately in the target situation. Nevertheless, encouragement of making the forms of the language salient and frequent in a context of communication suggests a methodological approach should contain both explicit knowledge gained through explicit learning and implicit knowledge gained through implicit learning. These two are vital for L2 learning. Though the combination of the language forms and structures and meaning in classroom has not been the new concept, it is worth investigating particularly in an EFL actual learning context to see the effectiveness of the combination on the development of the learner's proficiency.

2.2.2 Interactive Approaches and Perspectives to L2 Development

2.2.2.1 Task-based Instruction

Task-based instruction (TBI) is an interactive approach to L2 development. It makes a formal classroom teaching to become a place for purposeful communication and meaningful exchange (Pica, 2005: 339). It is basically recognized as a Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) method mostly used in the L2 formal language learning context, creating an opportunity to negotiate meaning than the traditional instruction (Long and Crookes, 1992; Nunan, 1989; Skehan, 1996). CLT began in Britain the 1960s. It was based on the theories of British functional linguists, such as Firth and Halliday, as well as American sociolinguists such as Hymes, Gumperz and Labov and the writings of Austin and Searle on Speech Acts. According to its learning principles, students are involved in authentic communication activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks and meaningful to learners (Brown, 2000). Although the teaching of English is generally in accordance with the principles or theories proved to be well suited with certain local principles such as teacher and student preference, age, aptitude; however, no one would agree that communication is not a key to success, so the CLT is the generally accepted norm in the field of second and foreign language teaching (Brown, 2000).

The CLT philosophy – an advancement of communicative competence in learners – is generally and acceptably recognized as necessary in learning a new language. Communicative competence, then, becomes a new goal of the CLT.

According to Canale and Swain (1980: 9-26), increasing communicative competence in a learner involves: 1) principles of appropriateness, *i.e., sociolinguistic competence*, 2) a readiness on the part of learner to use relevant strategies in coping with certain language situations, *i.e., pragmatic or strategic competence*, 3) principles of sentential relationship within a discourse, *i.e., discourse competence*, and 4) principles of production and perception of sounds, how sounds are combined, how elements are combined to create words, how words are strung together in sentences, and semantic meaning, *i.e., linguistic or grammatical competence.*

CLT states that language learning is similar to the first language acquisition: it develops by getting involved in communication and meaningful activities (Brown, 2000). In CLT context, meaningful and message-based activities are emphasized (Allen, 1983; Stern, 1992), based on the assumption that learners will learn language automatically as a result of *the opportunity they* (the students) *are given to interpret, to express, and to negotiate meaning in real-life situations* (Savignon, 1983: vi). Therefore, attention to the linguistic or grammatical competence – the principle of production and perception of sounds, how sounds are combined, how elements are combined to create words, how words are strung together into sentence, and semantics or meaning – was lessened

2.2.2.1.1 Task

There have been various definitions given to a task. Long (1985) views a task as an activity people do in everyday life. He defines tasks as:

> *a piece of work undertaken for one self or for others, freely or for some reward. Thus examples of tasks include painting a fence, dressing a child...In other words, by 'task' is meant the hundred and one thing people do in everyday life, at work, at play, and in between.*

(Long, 1985)

The Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics gives definition to tasks relating to teaching and the learning environment. It is said that a task has an objective participants have to attain. The definition of task is

> *an activity which is designed to help achieve a particular learning goal.*

(Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1992: 373)

According to Prabhu (1987), an objective in doing a task and a planned teacher intervention are emphasized.

> *an activity which required learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought and which allowed teachers to control and regulate that process was regarded as a 'task'.*

(Prabhu, 1987)

Breen (1987) adds more characteristics to tasks, i.e., an open-ended outcome, and a defined working process, as shown in his definition of task.

> *any structured language learning endeavor 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 work plans which have the overall purpose 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.*

(Breen, 1987)

Nunan (1989) emphasizes communicative tasks with purposeful interaction in the target language and a focus on meaning, not form. He defines tasks as

> *a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form.*

(Nunan, 1989)

Willis (1996) asserts that a task should contain a communicative goal. Her definition of tasks is as follow:

> *Tasks are always activities where the target language is used by the learners for a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome.*

(Willis, 1996)

The definitions of task given by Nunan, Long and Willis are reiterated in Skehan's (1998) definition. Skehan displays task characteristics in his definition.

A task is an activity in which

- *meaning is primary*
- *learners are not given other people's meaning to regurgitate*
- *there is some sort of relationship to comparable real- world activities*
- *task completion has some priority*
- *the assessment of the task is in terms of outcome.*

(Skehan, 1998)

Bygate, Skehan, and Swain (2001) define a task relating to teachers and teaching as:

an activity, susceptible to brief or extended pedagogic intervention, which requires learners to use language, with emphasis on meaning, to attain an objective.

(Bygate et al., 2001)

The above definitions reflect some task features. These include: 1) a performance objective; 2) real-world activity where learners use language to communicate; 3) teacher intervention in the use of the target language; 4) context and working process that gear learners to the specified outcome; 5) learner participation in thinking, processing, producing or interacting in the target language; 6) a focus on meaning rather than form.

2.2.2.1.2 Framework of Task-based Learning

Although communicative-oriented task-based instruction has received great popularity, some scholars (e.g. Skehan, 1998; Willis, 1996; and Long, 1988) see some flaws in the communicative-oriented approach; first *overemphasizing communication increases the risk of a greater reliance on communication strategies and lexically-based language*; second, there *is no easy means of assuring systematic language development* (Skehan, 1998: 125). The question concerning the relationships

between attention to form and meaning and L2 development and learning has raised awareness on how to emphasize language forms and features in the meaning-oriented teaching such as the task-based instruction.

Actually, language learning involves paying attention to the language forms of the second language. If not, learners are likely to miss these forms and they do not pay attention to some aspects of language that are easy to miss such as word order, preposition, verb inflections. Grammar teaching assists learners to become skilled in recognizing, analyzing, editing and mastering these features which are an aspect of proficiency. This section presents how grammar is taught within the theoretical framework of task-based instruction.

Although three principal phases: pre-task, while-task and post task are generally found in the task-based learning (e.g. Lee, 2000; Prabhu, 1987; Skehan, 1996; Willis, 1996), the major difference is how grammar is treated in the task-based instruction: 1) grammar is introduced in the pre-task phase through the presentation of topic of relevance to the students' personal interest (e.g.Nunan, 1991, Skehan, 1998); 2) grammar is introduced after the task is completed in the post task phase (Willis, 1996); 3) grammar is introduced implicitly when the students focus their attention to meaning in the pre-task, during-task, and post-task phase, or *focus-on-form* approach (Long, 1991; Doughty and Williams, 1998); To make the current view of grammar teaching in the task-based instruction comprehensive, each approach is termed differently. The approach that presents the language in the pre-task phase is termed language-first approach and the approach that presents the language in the post-task phase is termed language-after approach. The approach that treats language and meaning simultaneously is still termed by Long (1991), *focus-on-form*.

2.2.2.1.2.1 Language-first Approach in TBI

The language-first approach in the task-based instruction (Nunan, 1991) is similar to the approach in which Skehan (1998) calls it the structure oriented approach to task-based instruction. It says that learners learn best when the instruction leads them to the process of learning by clear relationship between grammatical form, communicative function, and semantic meaning and they must be assisted at the

beginning of the learning process; learners should not be expected to produce language that has not been explicitly taught. Nunan's pedagogical sequence for introducing task is as follows:

Step 1	Create a number of scheme building tasks that introduce initial vocabulary, language and content for the task.
Step 2	Give learners control practice in the target language, vocabulary, structures and functions.
Step 3	Give learners authentic listening practice.
Step 4	Focus learners on linguistic elements e.g. grammar and vocabulary.
Step 5	Provide freer practice.
Step 6	Pedagogical task.

2.2.2.1.2.2 Language-after approach in TBI

The language-after approach in task-based instruction is proposed by Willis (1996) based on the assumption that effective language learning involves: students' *exposure* to comprehensible input; *use* of language to communicate; *motivation* to learn as a result of exposure and use; and *instruction* facilitative students' cognition in learning. Willis's approach reflects that acquisition is an unconscious process related to the communicative use of the language. It says that learners learn best when the uses their existing language knowledge and knowledge of the world they already possess to make sense of the language input and create meaning in the language they produce. In this way, the learners make and test hypotheses about the new language. When they are provided with language awareness activity, they are facilitated with learning the formal forms and features of the language cognitively.

According to Willis, consciousness-raising activities (See more details in 2.4.2) aiming at the students' awareness concerning the language elements they use in their task performance are suggested after the student has completed the task. She argues that this is beneficial to students in many ways: the students may recognize their
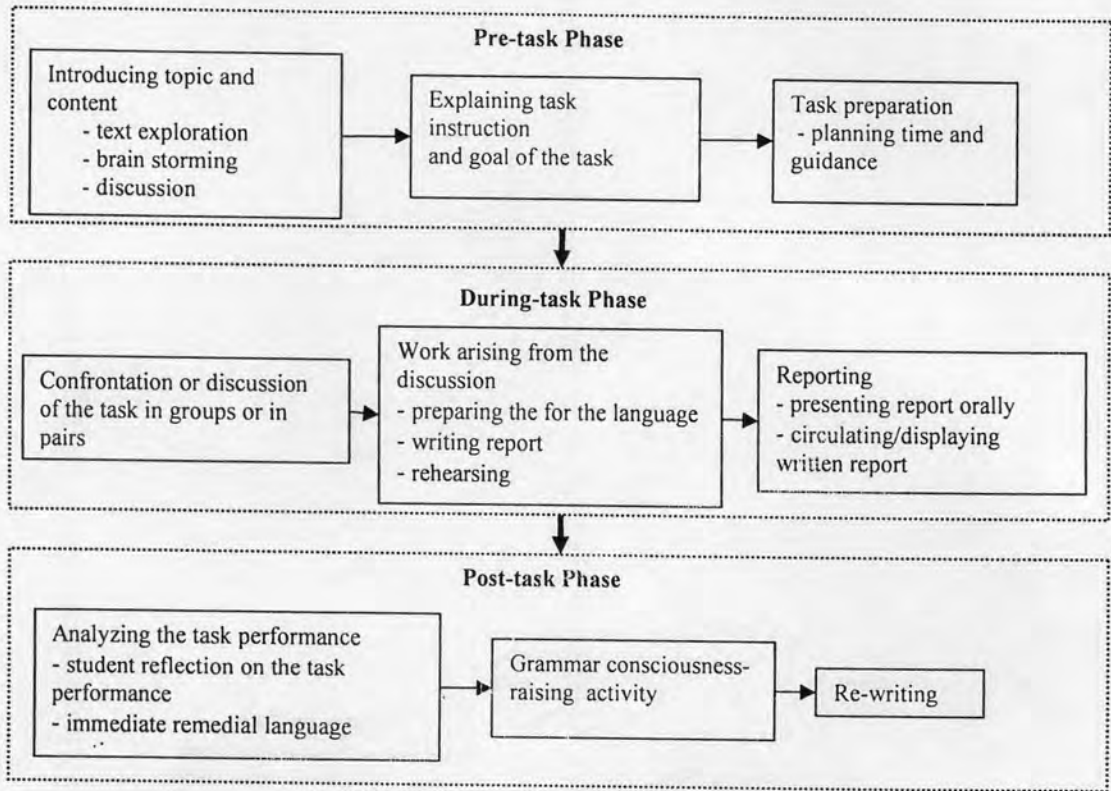
particular language elements they use, leading to deeper understanding of their meaning and use; the students may remember words, phrases, structures that are useful to them; and they would use the language with more confidence. After the students' reflection on their language use, they are provided with activities which are consciousness-raising activities that focus on the most problematic forms and use. With this activity, the students work on their own time and pace.

Also, Willis's framework has been suggested to include time for preparing the task was found having effects on L2 development (Skehan and Foster, 1999; Yuan and Ellis, 2002). Skehan and Foster (1999) examined processing conditions within tasks – preparation and without preparation before conducting the target task – with intermediate adult ESL learners at a language school and the results revealed that the structured task with no task preparation produced the highest accuracy, and that the unstructured task with task preparation produced the highest accuracy. There are two pedagogical views relating to the time for performing the task: limited time and unlimited time. Willis prefers limited time although some groups have not finished. Willis reasons that this is to prevent a boring atmosphere. Lee (2000) contends that a time should be set strictly because it affects the nature of the language that students produce. Yuan and Ellis (2002) examined limited time to complete the task and on-line planning of unlimited time to complete the task. The result revealed that providing unlimited time for the students to perform a narrative task resulted in language production that was more complex and more accurate in comparison to a contrast group that performed the task with restricted time. The study concluded that on-line planning enabled learners to access their grammatical knowledge more fully with consequential benefits for accuracy.

In short, previous research shows that task-based instruction which is viewed solely as an interactive approach to L2 development can be filled with a cognitive approach, namely, consciousness-raising, so as to increase systematic language learning that may be needed to process certain linguistic forms that can hardly be processed implicitly. Thus, opportunities to interact in order to negotiate for meaning, to engage in some degree of task preparation as well as unlimited time to complete the task, and to engage in consciousness-raising activities within Willis' task-based

instruction (See Figure 2.1 below) may be alternative in order for students to make their L2 learning progress as expected.

Figure 2.1: Task-based Instruction

Pre-task Phase

Introducing topic and content
- text exploration
- brain storming
- discussion

→

Explaining task instruction and goal of the task

→

Task preparation
- planning time and guidance

During-task Phase

Confrontation or discussion of the task in groups or in pairs

→

Work arising from the discussion
- preparing the for the language
- writing report
- rehearsing

→

Reporting
- presenting report orally
- circulating/displaying written report

Post-task Phase

Analyzing the task performance
- student reflection on the task performance
- immediate remedial language

→

Grammar consciousness-raising activity

→

Re-writing

2.2.2.1.2.3 Focus-on-form Approach in TBI

Focus-on-form is a type of instruction in which the primary focus is on meaning and communication. Learners' attention is drawn to the language forms as they arise *incidentally* in lessons (Long, 1991). Long proposes the focus-on-form based on the concept of cognitive learning. This approach says that learners learn best when the instruction supports the natural processes of acquisition and that attention to form works most effectively for acquisition if it occurs in the context of meaning-focused communication. It was originated by the need to keep the strength of the teaching of formal features and the strength of the meaning-oriented teaching within the teaching of English in formal classroom settings. This approach states that the teaching is to occur in communicative-oriented settings. Consequently, most research has been conducted in content-based classroom, immersion classroom. The successful results of study are reported that this approach has positive effects on the development of L2 learning (e.g.

Carroll and Swain, 1993; Doughty and Varela, 1998; Han, 2002; Long, Inagaki and Ortega, 1998, Oliver, 2002). In the EFL context, task-based instruction is viewed as a communicative-oriented approach. Thus, focus-on-form approach in TBI is a current view in EFL teaching situations.

One of the major choices regarding focus-on-form approach in TBI proactive or reactive approaches (See more details in 2.4.3). That is, proactive occurs in the pre-task phase and reactive occurs in the during-task phase. Long (1991) defines reactive approach as a type that he suggests drawing learners' attention to target language as they arise incidentally in lessons. Similarly, Doughty and Williams (1998) indicate that reactive approach is more compatible with the principles of communicative language teaching and state the advantages of using the reactive approach. On the other hand, research (e.g. Carroll and Swain, 1993; Lightbown, 1998; Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Mackey and Philp, 1998) has shown that teachers must be careful when applying the reactive approach and that the type of techniques, learners' L1, and their developmental readiness may play roles in its effectiveness.

The framework of focus-on-form approach in TBI is as follows:

Pre-task Phase	During-task Phase	Post-task Phase
Proactive focus-on-form -Input enhancement	Reactive focus-on-form -Interaction modification e.g. request for clarification, repetition, recast etc.	

2.2.2.2 Interaction Hypothesis

Recently, Long's (1996) Interaction Hypothesis states that meaning negotiation contributes to L2 learning through negative feedback and through modified output. The learning principle of the Interaction Hypothesis is that input is mediated by attention to form and their own interlanguage, and these two resources are taken together during the interaction where meaning is focused. The interaction between learners and more able speakers or elaborated written texts facilitates L2 development.

During the interaction, meaning negotiation is obtained. Negotiation of meaning comprises different types of modifications exploited by speakers in order to pursue the course of conversation. The modifications are, for example, repetitions of the learner's utterance, confirmation of the correctness, paraphrasing, recast, and comprehension check or clarification requests. These modifications enhance *input comprehensibility*, and it is comprehensible input that promotes acquisition (Ellis, 1999).

Predictable result of the negotiation is the learners' attention to notice the gaps between the students' output and the input. It results in the accuracy of the problematic language forms. Attention or noticing within learners' processing capacity is one essential feature of the interaction hypothesis. Long argues for the allocation of the learner's attention, *e.g.*, saliency of target items in input, implicit negative feedback (*i.e.* recast), and explicit negative feedback (*i.e.* remedial lesson at the stage development of the learner).This, thus, has inspired a lot of researchers to conduct the empirical studies focusing on different types of interaction modification and L2 learning.

Long (1996) asserts that interactionally modified input is beneficial for acquisition. Initially, studies were conducted to prove if the interactionally modified input is effective. Pica, Young and Doughty (1987) compared learners' comprehension of directions of three groups: the controlled group (students listened to authentic language of directions given by native English speakers); the premodified input (simplified version of native speakers used with non-native speakers); and the interactionally modified input (students negotiated when they could not understand directions). The results were that comprehension of the interactionally modified input group was the best, whereas the controlled group was the worst. In the similar study, Gass and Varonis (1994) found that the interactionally modified group showed better comprehension and subsequent production of direction than the pre-modified group. Although interactionally modified input was found more effective in enhancing comprehension than other types of input, questions raised on this issue are whether it caused real comprehension (Hawkins, 1985)

Later, studies were conducted to find out how such input contributes to acquisition. Long (1996) emphasizes that this occurs when the input helps students to

notice the linguistic forms in the input and when the forms that are notice are the ones students are ready to process, saying:

> ...it is proposed that environmental contributions to acquisitions to acquisition are mediated by selective attention and the learner's developing L2 processing capacity, and that these resources are brought together more usefully, although not exclusively, during 'negotiation for meaning'. (p.414)

The result of meaning negotiation is modified output. L2 development required incomprehensible input because modifications to language triggered learners to realize the inadequacy of their language (White, 1987; Gass, 1997). Also, de Bot (1996: 529) added that *output serves an important role in second language acquisition...because it generates highly specific input the cognitive system needs to build up a coherent set of knowledge.* This inspired many researchers who believed that only comprehensible input is not sufficient for successful L2 learning; output is as important as input (Swain and Lapkin, 1995). Questions concerning the role of interactionally modified input and L2 development were raised. In Sato's (1986) investigation of interactional processes and L2 learning, two Vietnamese boys in the ESL context were put in the conversation with their foster parents, teachers, school mates, and Sato herself for 10 months. The results were that the boys' proficiency was slightly developed. Sato analysed the past tense inflection they used when talking with Sato and found that the boys used adverbial time phrases to indicate the past time, but rarely used _ed inflectional morphemes to indicate time and aspects. Based on the findings, Sato suggested more research on how interactional processes would help students to access L2 forms.

Empirical studies have been done to see the effect of output modification on acquisition. For example, Nobuyoshi and Ellis (1993) did a small scale research with three students and found that two students improved accuracy in their use of past tense as a result of being pushed by means of request for clarification and improvement was sustained over one week. The other student neither modified the output nor showed any later gain in accuracy. This study was not trustworthy as the sample size was so small.

In short, these studies have found that interactional modifications occurring through pushed output can be maintained for a short period of time so question relating to long term retention is left to be searched for.

2.2.4 Cognitive Approaches to L2 Instruction

In the following sections, the cognitive approaches – noticing and attention, consciousness-raising activity, focus-on-form, role of explicit knowledge – are firstly reviewed focusing on how language learning is developed.

2.2.4.1 Noticing and Attention

According to Schmidt (1990, 1993a, 1993b, 1995), noticing is a conscious process defined as the *allocation of attentional resources to a stimulus and the identification of the level at which perceived events are subjectively experienced,* to be the necessary and sufficient requirement for changing input to intake. In reviewing the role of noticing, or attention on the Second language learning, Jourdenais, Ota, and Stauffer (1995) concluded that there had not yet been a consensus among studies on the amount and type of attention. Schmidt (1990, 1992, 1995), however, argued that noticing, or attention was a necessary and sufficient condition for changing input to intake, leading to learning. He also claimed that the level of noticing was associated to the level of learning.

Inspired by the noticing perspectives, a number of L2 researchers investigated how noticing could be enhanced and affected the subsequent production. For example, Jourdenais *et al.* (1995) conducted a six-week experimental study with fourteen L2 Spanish learners on the effect of textual enhancement on the learners' subsequent output. The techniques of textual enhancement in which the target language in the written text were highlighted using typographic cues such as italic, bold face, capital letters, underlying, color coding. The result from the written production indicated that the treatment group's scores differed significantly from those of comparison group. It was concluded that input enhancement facilitates the acquisition of the target language, *i.e.*, preterit or imperfect verbs. The input enhancement was well recognized as the effective implicit instruction to draw the learner's attention to the target language. This study supports Schmidt' Noticing Hypothesis. Like Jourdenais, Leeman *et al.* (1995)

examined the effects of input enhancement, but lengthened the duration of the study and added the feedback (The students had been taught to be careful about the target language and the teacher gave feedback on their language production). This 15 week classroom-based research focused on whether or not input enhancement and feedback could enhance the accuracy of the preterit in the learners who learned Spanish in the content- based instruction. This study was the pre and post test design. The tests were a debate, an essay, a judgment task, and a modified cloze paragraph. Results showed that the input enhancement group with feedback significantly improved accuracy.

However, Alanen (1995) provided evidence that understanding was essentially strong predictor of success in language learning. Alanen integrated the explicit rule presentation into the input enhancement, and examined the effects of the combination of the implicit and explicit instructions by comparing with two groups of single variable: a group of input enhancement and a group of explicit rule presentation. The participants were adult native speakers of English learning Finnish as L2 language. The results were that the groups receiving no explicit grammar teaching generated errors using omission and overgeneralization more frequently than the one receiving explicit grammar instruction; the groups with explicit grammar instruction showed that they performed significantly better and showed that they were able to verbalize the rules governing the target language. This is an indicator of understanding. The researcher claimed that the effect of visual enhancement was not immediately obvious and thus concludes that attention is dependent on quality as well as quantity; *although the learners pay attention to the target structures, this may not have lasted long enough or was too superficial for efficient retrieval to take place.* Roberts (1995) also supports that for L2 learning to occur, understanding is also necessary. Roberts examined how much error correction students actually noticed and understood. He asked the students to watch a video of a class and report their error correction and identify the nature of error. The findings indicated that the students who noticed the error correction could not understand the nature of error. This study suggests that noticing is necessary but not sufficient for L2 learning to occur.

2.2.4.2 Consciousness-raising Activity

Consciousness-raising is a cognitive approach to L2 development. It was proposed by Smith (1981, 1991), Rutherford (1987) and Rutherford and Smith (1985, 1988). It is a type of activity in which learners are deliberately attend to form in a meaningful context. Proponents of consciousness-raising suggested several techniques to raise learners' consciousness of language forms (Fotos and Ellis, 1991; Fotos, 1993, 1994; Yip, 1994). For example, Fotos (1993) focused her study on whether or not grammar consciousness-raising activity could promote learners' noticing in EFL settings. She reported that both teacher-fronted grammar lessons and grammar consciousness-raising tasks were effective in promoting noticing. Fotos (1994) conducted the empirical study focusing on the use of grammar consciousness-raising task with the EFL learners. She compared three treatments: the teacher-fronted grammar class, the structure-oriented task-based class, and the communicative-oriented task. The communicative-oriented task was identical to the structure-oriented task-based class in terms of length, format, instruction, and task features, except that there was no teaching on grammatical content. The targeted language elements were adverb placement, indirect object placement and relative clause. In the structured-oriented task-based class the learners were required to exchange information and to negotiate meanings regarding the English dative verbs. The learners were also asked to make grammatical judgments based on the target language. The result showed that the learners made significant gains on grammatical judgment test which assessed their ability to apply rules for placement of direct and indirect objects, but the gains were lower than the controlled group having teacher-fronted lessons. She reported that using grammar consciousness-raising tasks, knowledge of grammar was as good as the teacher-fronted grammar instruction and the amount of talk was as great as the meaning-focused communicative task. She also found that grammar consciousness-raising task promoted higher proficiency and higher number of L2 negotiation. It can be concluded that being involved in this type of task, the students had opportunities to acquire implicit knowledge in two ways: through meaningful communication and negotiation; indirectly through explicit knowledge of L2 rules which will facilitate the acquisition of implicit knowledge.

However, Tomlin and Villa (1994) posed question whether the consciousness-raising task was observable and measurable. This raises an awareness of the measurement of noticing resulting from the grammar consciousness-raising task.

2.2.4.3 Focus-on-form

Long (1988, 1991) proposes the focus-on-form approach based on the concept of cognitive learning, assuming that instruction would facilitate learning if it supports the natural processes of acquisition and that attention to form will work most effectively for acquisition if it occurs in the context of meaning-focused communication. Before the focus-on-form is reviewed in order to see how it could develop L2 learning, it is worth knowing what the focus-on-form is and types of focus-on-form.

2.2.4.3.1 Definition of Focus-on-form

Long's focus-on-form proposal attracts many studies. This results in a variety of definitions. According to Long (1991, cited in Ellis, 2001a), focus-on-form is defined as an activity that

> ---- *overtly draw students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons where overriding focus is on meaning or communication*

Long's definition reflects an attempt to capture the strength of meaning-based instruction and at the same time to deal with its limitation (Long and Robinson, 1998). However, it is only restricted to implicit focus-on-form within meaning-based teaching, and attention to form is spontaneous. Spada (1997) argues that the definition of focus-on-form given by Long lacks *clarity and consistency* which is probably in consequence of different purposes of defining it. So, Spada (1997) defines this as consisting of

> *Pedagogical events which occur within meaning-based approaches to instruction but in which a focus on language is provided in either spontaneous or predetermined ways*

Spada's definition does not include any traditional teaching methods that give importance to the presentation and practice of some particular linguistic features.

Attention to form, according to Spada, is either spontaneous or predetermined. Ellis (2001a) gives its definition as follows:

> *any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to*
> *induce language learner to pay attention to linguistic form*

By this definition, activities promoting learner's attention to form could be planned and unplanned. According to Ellis (2001a), linguistic forms include every domain that shows the potentialities of the learners. They are phonology, morphology, syntax, vocabulary and pragmatics.

To conclude, focus-on-form should feature: 1) meaning-oriented activities, 2) the linguistic forms including phonology, morphology, syntax, vocabulary and pragmatics, 3) either planned or unplanned treatment of linguistic forms, and 4) the saliency of linguistic forms intentionally made to capture learner's attention.

2.2.4.3.2 Types of Focus-on-Form

According to Long and Robinson (1998), focus-on-form includes two vital characteristics. First, attention to form arises in meaning-focused communication, and attention to form arises incidentally due to communicative needs. Doughty and Williams (1998) mention three features of this instruction: 1) meaning being prerequisite to focus-on-form, 2) teacher's analysis of learners' needs of linguistic knowledge, and 3) needs of error treatment that is quick and *unobtrusive*. On basis of *where the primary focus of attention is to be placed and how attention to form is distributed in the instruction*, R. Ellis (2001a) divides focus-on-form into 3 types: 1) focus-on-forms 2) planned focus-on-form and 3) incidental focus-on-form.

2.2.4.3.2.1 Type 1: Focus-on-forms

With focus-on-forms, students learn one pre-selected form and practice it many times. There are two types of focus-on-forms: explicit and implicit focus-on-forms. Explicit focus-on-forms is defined as some *sort of rule being thought about during the learning process* (DeKeyser, 1995). The approach is either deductive or inductive learning. DeKeyser (1995) defines implicit focus-on-forms as learner remembering and/or inferring to rules without awareness. Both explicit and implicit

focus-on-forms require rule construction from the students, which results in the awareness of the target structure.

Within this approach, students are presented with structured input enabling them to primarily attend to form rather than meaning and to focus on only one target language feature presented frequently. Although the students are provided with functional language practice within situational context, the focus is primarily on form. Thus, an occurrence of the target language acquisition is intentional.

2.2.4.3.2.2 Type 2: Planned focus-on-form

The planned focus-on-form relates mainly to input, *i.e., enriched input, and input enhancement* and production, *i.e., focused communicative task*. Enriched input is the input produced or adjusted in order to provide the students with extensive examples of target structure. The enriched input is designed to draw the student attention firstly to meaning in the context of meaning-focused activities. This input is communication-based that the students can respond to its meaning rather than form and, thus, provides the students with *incidental* rather than *intentional* language acquisition. Enriched input consists of *input flood*. Input flood contains lots of examples of the target language without any clues to draw attention to the target language feature. The aim of the input flood is to encourage acquisition through frequent exposure to target language. Another type of input is *input enhancement*. It is the input with highlights on the target language structure in order to draw the student attention to the target language. *Focused communicative task* is one type of planned focus-on-form relating to production of specific language structure. It is designed for the students to use the target language that has been specifically targeted. Since the primary focus is on meaning rather than form, acquisition of the target feature is incidental.

2.2.4.3.2.3 Type 3: Incidental focus-on-form

There are two kinds of *incidental focus-on-form: pre-emptive focus-on-form* and *reactive focus-on-form* (Long and Robinson, 1998). The pre-emptive focus-on-form is defined as the occasion where teacher or students initiate attention to form without errors being made but with realization/prediction of gap in the student knowledge and their interlanguage.

The *reactive focus-on-form* is an occasion where both teachers and learners deal with errors causing negative evidence which is either implicit negative feedback or explicit negative feedback. Explicit negative evidence is an overt error correction or grammatical explanation. Implicit negative feedback occurs when the speakers and their interlocutors negotiate for meaning (Long, 1996). It entails recasts – *reformulations of a learner's utterance that change one or more of its components while maintaining its central meaning* (Spada, 1997). It also gives rise to negotiation moves such as confirmation checks, repetitions, clarification requests, recasts, silence, and facial expression that shows confusion (Schachter, 1991). This type of negative feedback is implicit because they imply the unacceptability of the ill-formed utterances.

2.2.4.4 The Role of Explicit Knowledge

The role of explicit knowledge is one of the most discussed issues involving the cognitive approach to the second language learning. Krashen (1982, 1984, and 1993) stated that explicit knowledge or *learned knowledge* could not be changed into implicit knowledge or *acquired knowledge*. (The italicizations are termed by Krashen). He explained that language *is too complex to be deliberately taught or learned* and that *we acquire knowledge by understanding messages, by obtaining comprehensible input* (1992:409). Thus, explicit knowledge learned in the formal instruction simply had *a peripheral and fragile effect* on acquisition (1992: 410). However, argument that explicit knowledge, in some ways, could be linked with implicit knowledge was made. For instance, Bialystok (1979 and 1982) argued that practice could turn explicit knowledge into implicit knowledge and that implicit knowledge could be acquired through either unconscious acquisition or the automatization of explicit knowledge gained by practice. In criticizing Krashen's concept of learned (conscious) and acquired (unconscious) knowledge, McLaughlin (1978, 1987) asserted that L2 acquisition was too complex to be explained with the conscious/ unconscious distinction. McLaughlin, thus, proposed a model which explained L2 acquisition in which the *automatic processing* was descended from the *controlled processing*. Bialystok' and McLaughlin's models were integrated by Smith (1981), and Dekeyser (1995). The models integrated input and output which emphasized the possibility that explicit knowledge can be fully automatized as part of implicit knowledge (See also skill learning explanation in chapter 1). These

theories explaining the explicit-implicit knowledge transition could be concluded as Paradis' s (2004) claim:

> *Skilled use of a second language indeed often begins as controlled processes and gradually appears to become automatic. In reality, controlled processing is gradually replaced by the use of automatic processing, which is not just the speeding up of the controlled process, but the use of a different system which, through practice, develops in parallel. (p.35)*

The role of explicit knowledge in relation to the meaning-oriented instruction which was not yet clearly operationalised motivated many researchers. For example, Sorace (1985) conducted a cross-sectional study with L2 Italian learners to investigate the knowledge and use relationship. He found that the learners with grammar-oriented instruction developed procedural knowledge, resulting in an ability to use the language to convey the meaning in the target situation, though with difficulties.

In his study of the role of grammar instruction in a communicative approach, Terrell (1991) explained that adult learners did not automatically use input to develop competence as Krashen asserted. He concluded that grammar instruction promoted L2 acquisition: 1) *as an advance organizer to help the learner make sense of input*, 2) *as a meaning-form focus in communicative activities in which there are many examples of a single meaning-form relationship*, and 3) *monitoring itself might directly affect acquisition if it is possible for learners to acquire their own output* (p. 62). He cautioned that *grammar instruction is seen as an aid to the learner in the acquisition process by making certain grammatical forms more salient and thereby aiding the learner to establish correct meaning-form connection* (p. 62). This study had implication to L2 teachers in recognizing the role of grammar instruction in the formal instruction. Green and Hecht (1992) investigated the relationship between learners' ability to tell the rules (explicit knowledge) and their ability to correct errors (implicit knowledge). They found that the interaction between implicit and explicit rules was complex, and that although the learners were able to correct accurately when they had produced a correct rule, they were able to correct a large amount of errors without recourse to a viable explicit rule.

In his study of the effects of explicit grammar, Sukamolson's (2001) result of the empirical study with 152 non-English major undergraduate students indicated that explicit grammar instruction had high relationship with writing and reading comprehension. He found that explicit knowledge had approximately 10%- 25% effect on writing skill and a 5%-10% effect on reading comprehension. Sukamolson (2001) then conducted another research focusing on the correlation between knowledge of grammar, semi-speaking and reading comprehension. Using a 100-item multiple choice screening test with the high reliability (0.839) and average difficulty index (0.455), he reported that the magnitude of the correlation coefficient were moderately high. He, thus, concluded that the effects of explicit grammar instruction on learners' production, i.e., writing, reading comprehension, and semi-speaking were significantly and moderately high.

The results of the studies support the notion of cognitive learning that explicit knowledge is the necessity of the procedural knowledge.

2.3 Research on Instructional Methods

2.3.1 Research on the Traditional Approach in L2 Development

In their meta-analysis of 49 studies on the effectiveness of L2 instruction, Norris and Ortega (2000) concluded that explicit teaching of grammar and structure by presenting the structure, describing and exemplifying it, and giving rules for its use was of consequence to the learning of the target grammar and structure rather than the implicit teaching by communicative exposure alone.

Attempts have been made to exploit the explicit and analytical strategies. Studies in immersion program, eventually, bring with it the variation in teaching a second / foreign language. One of the most striking studies is the five-year research project conducted in the Modern Language Centre at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (Allen et al., 1990). The study was based on the psychological observation of the ESL students and their language proficiency. One of the purposes was to investigate the effects of the analytical classroom and experiential classroom on the development of

proficiency. The study was conducted with 198 French immersion students from Ottawa region. A multitrait-multimethod analysis was used to investigate the features of communicative competence in order to determine the language proficiency of the learners. The analytical classroom featured the least communicative-oriented classroom, grammar or vocabulary exercises dominant: the topic was controlled by the teacher; minimal written text by students, students' utterances were of minimal length; students reacted to code rather than the message; and restrict choice of linguistic items by students. The experiential classroom featured the most communicative-oriented classroom: topic controlled by students, much more extended written text produced by the students, more sustained speech by students, more reaction to message rather code, more use of student-made materials. The result of this immersion experimental study indicated no significant differences between the two types of classrooms on the proficiency. One main suggestion from this study is the combination of the analytic activities and the experiential activities. The results of these studies lead to an assumption that the L2 development occurs when the explicit treatment of language is integrated into the task.

2.3.2 Research on TBI on L2 Development

Tasks have been studied to test the hypothesis that interaction and meaning negotiation facilitates L2 acquisition. For example, McDonough (2004) studied the amount of participation on the improvement of target language production with undergraduate Thai students and found that learners with more participation in the negative feedback and modified output during the tasks had significant improvement of the production of the target language. Brown (1991) investigated different task dimension in the decision- making tasks: tight loose, closed-open, and procedural-interpretive on learners' interaction and L2 learning and found that the most important factors influencing language learning was the level of challenge of the task. Similarly, Newton and Kennedy (1996) studied the grammatical consequences of interaction of two task types: split information task and shared information task. The results confirmed the hypothesis that more interacting tasks (shared information task) would result in the use of more target language. Interestingly, the authors stated that L2 learning could be created through (1) exposure to the target language in the content of

the task worksheet, (2) pre-teaching, and (3) the requirement to be comprehensible in the process of negotiation. These studies support the hypothesis that meaning negotiation by means of interactive tasks contributes to L2 development.

The researchers were interested to see if TBL was more effective than the other instructional methods. For example, Ratanachotchung (1988) conducted a comparative study on task-based learning and non task learning with technical students. She found a significant difference among the groups. The task-based learning group outperformed the non task group. Similarly, Kluncharoen (1987) conducted a comparative study with secondary students. Findings supported the previous study. Interestingly, students' attitudes towards task-based learning were positive. Besides they found themselves understanding the pre-modified input more, they enjoyed English language study. Vadhanamra (1996) conducted her comparative study with ESP students at the Royal Thai Air Force Academy and found that the students with task-based learning improved their language proficiency in all skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing and a significant difference among the task-based learning group and the teacher-fronted group was obtained. These significant findings lead to conclusion that TBL has positive effect on non English major EFL students. So, the findings based on the meaning negotiation and the comparative studies of the task-based instruction lead to the hypothesis that task-based instruction has positive effects on L2 learning.

2.3.3 Research on Focus-on-form and L2 Development

There have been various studies on the form-focused instruction in pedagogical consequences. Initially, empirical studies were made to focus on the possibility of the focus-on-form instruction towards L2 learning. For example, Doughty (1991) did a comparative study of a meaning-oriented instruction, forms-focused instruction, and no treatment group to find which instructional treatment had positive effect on relativization. Her target population was university ESL learners. In the meaning-oriented treatment, saliency of the target language was enhanced and made redundant. The result of this study suggested that the students' attention to the target form could be drawn effectively in the meaning-oriented class. This strongly supports Long and Robinson's (1998) proposed characteristics of form-focused instruction. In Canadian setting where the CLT is found the common approach to language teaching, it

was found that the students do not reach high level of English proficiency. Lightbown and Spada (1990) investigated the effect of the form-focused instruction within the CLT classes in Quebec and found out that the students made substantially progress on progressive –ing and adjective-noun order in noun phrases. Spada and Lightbown (1993) conducted a study in order to prove that focus on form had its effects on L2 development when the instructional method took the students' developmental stages into account. The participants in this study received a two-week explicit instruction and corrective feedback. The findings were that the participants in two classes showed gain in accuracy on the oral production, and maintained the gain on the five-week delayed posttest, and the participants who received explicit instruction made progress in the developmental stages during the experiment. After the participants took their regular content classes five months after the experiment, investigation found that the participants maintained the accuracy relating to the post test. The researchers concluded that this resulted from extensive focus-on-form on the question forms. This study, then, provides evidence of long term effects of focus-on-form on long term memory.

Long (1996) also indicates that interaction can contribute to acquisition through negative evidence in which he defines it as input that provides *direct or indirect evidence of what is grammatical* (p. 413). The negative evidence, or reactive focus-on-form as termed by Long, occurs when students receive feedback on the errors they make. Negative feedback and its effects on L2 acquisition receive much attention from both foreign language teachers and L2 researchers. Regarding to cognitive perspective, negative feedback is essential in language learning because learning a new language is a cognitive skill learning in which negative feedback facilitates hypothesis testing (e.g. Anderson, 1983; Ellis, 1986; Schachter, 1991). Anderson (1983), for example, states that feedback helps learners to discover the relationship between a known semantic structure and an unknown linguistic structure. Providing the feedback directs learners to modify their rules by formulating the new rules and fostering or rejecting the old rules. The new rules are later used when they form other semantic base.

Many researchers have conducted extensive studies in order to specifically find the effectiveness of each type of feedback on basis of the development of the

learners' accuracy of the target language. For example, White (1991) did an experimental study to explore the effectiveness of the negative feedback on the English adverb placement. The subjects were 164 young Francophone learners of English. The study compared the group of positive evidence with the group of negative and positive evidence (giving models). The results of the study were that the explicit negative and positive evidence is more effective in assisting the learners to learn the target language. In addition, Carroll and Swain (1993) examined the effects two types of negative feedback: explicit and implicit, on the acquisition of English dative alternation. They conducted the experiment with adult Spanish-speaking learners of ESL. In this quite controlled study, they found that both implicit and explicit types of negative feedback were beneficial and led to learning the target language. Interestingly, explicit method – metalinguistic explanation – was better than implicit methods, including recasts.

Comparative studies on types of feedback motivated many researchers in discovering which is better than which. For example, Long, Inagaki and Ortega (1998) studied the role of preemptive focus-on-form (models) and reactive implicit focus-on-form (recasts) in young adult learners of Japanese and Spanish. The study was the pretest and post test experimental design. The subjects were randomly assigned to five groups: four experimental groups and one control group. The two experimental groups received recast and another two models. The experimental groups outperformed the control group. The scores of the recast groups were higher significantly than the model groups. They concluded that reactive implicit negative feedback facilitated the second language learning.

Moreover, Mackey and Philp (1998) examined the effects of recasts on the production and development of question forms in English as a second language. They compared two groups of subjects receiving different treatments: one with interactionally modified input; another with recasts. To find the effects of recast, the changes in the five-stage question formation (with regards to its developmental sequence for ESL) were examined. This study was a pretest-post test control group design. The subjects were randomly assigned to two interactionally modified input groups, two recast groups, and one control group. They found that for more advanced learners (the ones at higher developmental level), interaction with recasts showed greater increase in structures than

the participants receiving interaction without recasts. They concluded that recast was likely to be beneficial and facilitated the increase in production of the target language, and that recasts were likely to be beneficial for short term interlanguage development. They recommended that further study to investigate why some, but not all, learners use recasts, and what factor influence their use.

Han (2002) examined the impact of recasts on tense consistency. The study is the pretest, post test, delayed post test, control group design. The experimental group received recast only when the learners' output showed tense inconsistency. The researcher collected both written and oral narratives from both groups. The results revealed that the experimental group had better controlled than did the control group: recasts gave rise to learners' awareness and led to high improvement in the use of past tense. This study reported four factors influencing the positive effect of recasts: individual attention, consistent focus, developmental readiness, and intensity. They all make saliency of the target language, relevance and reinforcement.

With the assumption that uptake might be an indicator of L2 acquisition, Lyster and Ranta (1997) investigated which types of reactive focus-on-form might lead to the greatest amount of uptake. The aims were to see 1) whether error treatments could be negotiated of forms, and if so, to what extent this motivated negotiation, and 2) what moves constituted the exchange. The study was conducted in an adult ESL classroom. The researchers as the observers focused on the corrective feedback without letting the teacher know this. The teachers knew that the classroom interaction was recorded. Analysis of the data revealed that there were seven types of reactive focus-on-form used by four teachers in this study: explicit correction, recasts, clarification requests, metalinguistics feedback, elicitation, repetition and multiple feedbacks. In the analysis of learners' uptake, 69% of recast was followed by topic continuation; 18% of recasts were immediately repeated. Recast did not generate learners' repair. The study suggested the needs of the teachers in using nuances of reactive focus-on-form, particularly, elicitation, metalinguistics feedback, clarification request and repetition of errors since they were found assisting the learners to return to their existing knowledge.

It can be noticed that those studies aims to see the effects of the form-focused instruction on the development of particular linguistic elements but few studies focus on how such instruction has effects on the quality of communication, particularly, writing.

2.3.4 Research on Focus-on-form Approach in TBI

Research studies on the current cognitive perspectives such as focus-on-form, noticing and attention, and the role of explicit knowledge on L2 learning suggest that a teaching method that involves cognitive approach would have positive effect on L2 development. Although the components of cognitive perspectives have positive effects on L2 learning, a few studies involving both cognitive and interactive approach are reported. For example, Nakkyo (2001) investigated the effects of form-focused instruction in communicative task, focusing on the development of oral ability. The subjects were 28 first year Thai undergraduate students. It was a single group design experiment. The results was that the post test score was significantly higher than the pretest. However, the researcher mentioned that the development might partially be due to the practice effect and the familiarity of the task. The researcher concluded that grammatical structures assist the students' communication ability.

A more overtly proposal of the integration of reactive focus-on-form and the communication-oriented task was suggested by Muranoi (2000). The study involved the investigation of the impacts of the implicit reactive focus-on-form, *i.e.*, request for repetition and recast, and of explicit reactive focus on form, *i.e.*, metalinguistics when integrating into a communicative task in an EFL classroom. The aims were to see the effects on learners' restructuring their interlanguage and to see the long term memory effects. The specific focused language was the English article. The participants were randomly assigned into three classes: an experimental class with the negative feedback during problem solving task, an experimental class with negative feedback during problem solving and grammatical explanation during debriefing period, a purely meaning-oriented interaction without any form-focused treatment. The results revealed that the implicit reactive focus-on-form had positive effect, which lasted for at least five weeks, on L2 learning of English articles, and that the implicit reactive focus-on-form and metalinguistics had greater effect. The result also indicated that the implicit focus-on-form had greater effects on learner performance with articles, but the strength of the

effects varied with type of task (greater effects on oral tasks than written tasks). And interestingly, it was found that learners who observed the form treatment improved their performance with the English article system as much as learners who directly participated in it.

The previous studies show that the instructional methods - explicit and analytical teaching of grammar, the communicative-oriented teaching, the combination of form-focused instruction and task-based instruction – leads to successful L2 learning in the classroom context. However, the relatively few studies have been conducted to compare the effects of the cognitive-based approach to instruction (i.e. focus-on-form), the interactive-based approach (i.e. task-based instruction) and the forms-based approach (i.e. explicit and analytical approach). It is inconclusive that one approach is better than others. So, based on the previous research studies and related literature, it can be hypothesized that there is no significant difference among the English learning achievement and grammatical accuracy of students receiving different treatments.

2.4 L2 Writing

Despite various reasons for teaching writing in EFL situation, basically FL writing is seen more as foreign language than writing (O'Brien, 2004) and it is *probably the most efficient L2 learning tool we have* (Wolff, 2000:111). The general goal of EFL teaching is to develop student language proficiency. Specifically, in the EFL situation where students are partially and inadequately developing the target language, writing provides students with the opportunities for *comprehensible output* in which students could notice the gap between their knowledge and the target language. In using the target language purposively and creation of meaning, the issue is twofold: language ability and writing ability.

2.4.1 Relationship between Grammatical Accuracy and Writing Ability

The relationship between the two seems to be inseparable. Students' L2 proficiency was the only factor that separated good writers from poor writers (Pennington and So, 1993). In this regard, Cumming (1989) and Pennington and So

(1993) contend that linguistic and writing abilities, when being interfaced, make good and effective writing. L2 proficiency is a distinct factor that influences the quality of L2 writing (Cumming, 1989) and has been found as one most significant explanatory variable for L2 writing ability (Sasiki and Hirose, 1996). Good language proficiency has an *additive* effect over writing performance (Cumming, 1989). Positive relationship is reported (Karnjanapan, 1979; Laorsrisakulchai 1993; Obrom, 1996; Prasertsang, 1983; Sasaki and Hirose, 1996; Silayong 1974; Wongtip, 1998), limited language proficiency, on the other hand, is found likely to adversely affect the writing performance (Kroll, 1990)

Karnchanapan (1979) conducted an empirical study and measured the relationship between the grammatical accuracy and writing ability with a group of Physical Education (n=100). The test was to measure students' knowledge of the rules and structures of the target language and their ability in applying those rules and structures in writing. The results was that there was a relationship between the grammatical accuracy and writing ability and that writing ability was low. In the same line of study, Silayong (1974) reported that the relationship between grammatical accuracy and writing ability was highly positive. Similarly, Prasertsang (1983) reported the significant relationship between grammatical accuracy and writing ability of the secondary school students (n=216). Wongtip (1998) investigate the relationship between English language knowledge and English language writing ability among the English major undergraduate students and found a highly positive and a significant relationship between the English language knowledge and writing ability (r=.7172). However, Kroll (1990) reported that there was no statistical relationship between grammatical accuracy and writing ability as measured from 100 pieces of student essays. Interestingly, it was discovered that the results of the previous studies were different. Most of the studies reported a significant relationship but one study reported no statistically correlated result. The examination of the outcome measurement showed that the significant relationship was found in the tests of grammatical accuracy which based on the elicitation of explicit knowledge, that is, the tests were the sentential level and appeared to be the multiple choice test type. However, for the measurement of the grammatical accuracy which was measured by the T-unit analysis of the writing

production, a non significant result was found. The results of the previous study lead to the hypothesis that there is a significant relationship between the grammatical accuracy and writing ability of the students' writing production.

2.4.2 Writing Assessment: Authentic Assessment

There are two main types of writing assessment: traditional assessment and authentic assessment. Traditional assessment refers to tests in which students are to recall their knowledge and select one best answer such as multiple-choice tests, fill-in-the-blanks, true-false, matching. These tests may be standardized or teacher-made and may be administered locally or statewide, or internationally. Authentic assessment is found in different terms such as alternative assessment – an alternative to the traditional assessment, direct assessment – direct application of knowledge and skills, and performance assessment – students are asked to perform the meaningful task. The names can be used interchangeably since it carries the same characteristics. Definitions have been given to reflect characteristics of the authentic assessment. For example:

> a set of strategies for the . . . application of knowledge, skills, and work habits through the performance of tasks that are meaningful and engaging to students

> (Hibbard et al., 1996: 5)

> ...Engaging and worthy problems or questions of importance, in which students must use knowledge to fashion performances effectively and creatively. The tasks are either replicas of or analogous to the kinds of problems faced by adult citizens and consumers or professionals in the field.

> (Wiggins, 1993:229)

> A form of assessment in which students are asked to perform real-world tasks that demonstrate meaningful application of essential knowledge and skills

> (Mueller, 2001:1)

Performance assessments call upon the examinee to demonstrate specific skills and competencies, that is, to apply the skills and knowledge they have mastered.

(Stiggins, 1987: 34)

From the definitions above, authentic assessment requires students to apply their knowledge, skills and competencies by performing in real-world tasks which are meaningful and engaging.

Mueller (2006) suggests that traditional assessment should not be exclusively distinguished from authentic assessment but best seen along the continuum of attributes.

Traditional assessment...........................Authentic assessment

Selecting a response.................................Performing a task

Contrived. ....Real life

Recall/recognition.................................Construction/application

Teacher-structured.......................................Student-structured

Indirect evidence...Direct evidence

Based on the definition given on authentic assessment, the objectives (Airasian, 2000; 2001; Brualdi, 1998; Perlman, 2002) for using authentic assessment would follow the objectives of learning and testing, that is, to see whether or not the students could accurately demonstrate their ability to directly use real knowledge and skills (Brualdi, 1998; Wiggins, 1993) they have already been taught.

According to Mueller, authentic assessments typically are criterion-referenced measures. That is, a student's task performance is evaluated by matching the performance against a set of criteria to judge the level to which the performance meets the criteria for the task.

To measure student performance against a pre-determined set of criteria, a rubric, or scoring scale, is created. The scoring rubric generally contains the essential criteria for the task and appropriate levels of performance for each criterion. A rubric is

comprised of two components: *criteria* and *levels of performance*. Each rubric has at least two criteria and at least two levels of performance (Mueller, 2006). The rubrics are typically specific when evaluating student performances and they are commonly either analytic or holistic (e.g. Moskal, 2000; Nitko, 2001). A holistic rubric requires the teacher to sore overall process, not parts of the performance. In contrast, an analytic rubric requires the teacher to score parts of the performance separately before sums the individual score to make a total score (Moskal, 2000; Nitko, 2001). The holistic rubric is used when the overall quality is high (Chase, 1999; and Mertler, 2001), no definite correct answer (Nitko, 2001), and the focus of the report is on a unidimentional level (Mertler, 2001). The analytic rubric is selected when the measurement focuses on specific responses (Nitko, 2001) and when individual's work needs to be measured separately for each specific performance and criteria (Mertler, 2001)

2.4.3 Student Attitude towards Feedback on Writing

Several studies have been conducted to investigate the EFL and ESL students' attitude and belief towards the error correction. Overall, the students prefer the linguistic feature concerns (*e.g.*, Hedgecock and Lefkowitz, 1996; Lee, 2005; Leki, 1991; Olajedo, 1993; and Saito, 1994). The students need both major and minor errors marked and they believe that grammatical accuracy is very important (Leki, 1991). The students value the teacher's comments and corrections on grammar, vocabulary, and mechanics of writing (Hedgecock and Lefkowitz, 1996). The students like the way their teachers correct their errors at the early stages of writing (Olajedo, 1993). More importantly, the students thought it was the teacher's responsibility to mark and correct errors for them (Lee, 2005). As a consequence, many ESL and EFL teachers and learners advocate grammar correction, though the teachers are likely to be *composition slaves* (Harrison, 1986:177, cited in Lee, 2005). So, the teachers could hardly escape from such a position due to the belief and attitudes of the students which are culturally and socially developed.

Brown (1998:253, cited in Lee, 2005) contends that the teachers need to be cautious in taking the students' preference into consideration; however the pedagogical effects should be first priority. Results of comparative studies conducted on grammar

correction on students' writings have shown that teacher's correction of grammatical errors with correct forms would not be effective. For example, in a famous study by Robb, Ross, and Shortreed (1986), four types of grammar corrections used on the surface errors of Japanese students were compared to see if they had effects on the students' writings over time. These types were: 1) explicit correction, where errors were pointed out and correct forms offered; 2) marking errors with a yellow pen, without explanation; 3) a tally was kept in the margin of the number of errors per lines, and students were told to examine the line and find and correct them; 4) the use of a correction code which showed both the location and kind of errors. In all these cases, the students were told to re-write their essays, making the necessary corrections. Results showed that at the end of the course, no significant differences existed between all the groups in terms of accuracy. Consequently, the authors concluded that comprehensive treatment and overt corrections of surface errors are probably not worth the trouble for teachers to make. The finding of this study yields a change of perspective of grammar correction. Numerous studies (e.g. Kepner 1991; Semke 1984; Sheppard 1992; and Truscott 1996) have strengthened this idea when reporting that grammar correction to second language writing students is actually discouraging to many students, and even harmful to their writing ability.

2.5.4 Effects of Grammar Treatment

Kroll (2001) describes teacher feedback as one of the two components most central to teaching writing with the other being the assignments the students are given. Most ESL/EFL teachers would agree that teacher correction feedback is necessary, and that grammar correction is essential. This belief seems to be widely acceptable based on the assumption that if grammatical errors students have made are pointed out, and correct forms are provided, the students would then understand and learn, and their ability to write accurately would improve. In contrast, if teachers do not correct their students' grammatical errors, *fossilization* would occur, bringing about difficulties of eliminating these errors. Fathman and Whally (1990) found that the students made significant improvements on writing only when they receive form-focused feedback. The correction code is the indirect correction that prompts students about the nature of the

errors (Robb, Ross and Shortreed, 1986). The correction code consists of a list of grammatical items such as noun, article, and pronoun and so on. With the correction code, the ESL learners could do correction better when cues are given than without cues (Makino,1993), make improvements in writing than the ones corrected by the teachers (Lalande, 1982, cited in Lee, 1997), and code feedback has been found very effective to low proficient students (Mantello,1997; Kubota, 2001). Interestingly, Lee (2005) found that the majority of the students (76.3%) prefer teachers to use error codes. These studies support the use of correction code.

Moreover, there are some drawbacks that lie with teacher's correction feedback on grammatical errors. The mere correction of surface errors has been found to be inconsistent, unclear and overemphasizes the negative (e.g. Cohen and Cavalcanti, 1990; Fregeau, 1999). Fregeau (1999) discovered that the method of teachers indicating the presence or types of errors without correction was ineffective. Many times the students did not understand why the errors were indicated and simply guessed the corrections as they had to rewrite. According to Zamel (1995), teachers also commonly misread student texts and caused abstract rules and principles in their comments. Cohen (1987) pointed out that students generally found teachers remarks vague, confusing, and contradictory and felt that teachers did not provide sufficient grammatical explanations about their writing mistakes and that students made a note of the corrections they have understood mentally, and if they had to rewrite their papers, regularly did not incorporate these corrections into their work. Conclusion may be as Truscott (1996:341) has noted:

> *Veteran teachers know there is little connection between correction and learning: Often a student will repeat the same mistake over and over again, even after being corrected many times. When this occurs, it is tempting for the teacher to say the student is not attentive or lazy; however, the pervasiveness of the phenomenon, even with successful students, argues against any such explanation. Rather the teacher should conclude that correction simply is not effective.*

In consequences, attempts have been made in many comparative studies in order to find some advantages of grammar correction. For example, in order to find the

learners' ability to correct after being given with a particular type of feedback, Fathman and Whalley (1990) examined two types of feedback: correction; and correction plus feedback on content. The participants were intermediate ESL college students in the US. Students wrote compositions that described a series of pictures. Correction was on grammar only, and contained *solely of underlining all grammar errors* (e.g. verb forms, tenses, articles, agreement). *Thus students were told the location of their errors only and were not given information on the kinds of errors or shown the correct forms* (p. 182). Students wrote their compositions in class (they were given 30 minutes), the corrected versions were returned within the next two or three days and students were given 30 minutes to rewrite. Students wrote approximately the same number of words on each version, about 220 words in the first draft and about 250 words in the correct draft. The results were that the grammar group could correct 62 % whereas the grammar and content group could correct 47%.

Moreover, Ashwell (2000) examined which types of feedback should come first, content or form, by focusing on their effects of correction. The participants wrote 500 word compositions outside of class, and errors were then corrected, with raters spending 12 minutes on each paper. The correction was *indirect feedback* that is, *underlining or circling grammatical, lexical, and mechanical errors or ... using cursors to indicate omissions* (p. 233). Students returned their revised papers within one week. The results were that both groups could correct about one third of their errors (34% and 36%). Chandler (2003) compared four types of feedback: *full* correction, *underline* feedback, *describe* feedback and *underline and describe* feedback. In the full correction, students were provided with the correct form, in the underline feedback, only the errors were located. In the described feedback, a teacher noted the kind of error made was written in the line it was made, but the precise location was not given. All abbreviations had previously been explained in class and students received a list of the abbreviations. Finally, in the underline/describe feedback, both the kind of error made and its precise location were indicated. In this study, participants were advanced ESL learners in the US. Students wrote carefully, for example, accuracy was one component of their grade and they had sufficient time to make corrections. Students

wrote about eight pages of text and received four different kinds of feedback. The results indicated that full correction group was able to correct nearly 90% of their errors, the underline/describe 69%, the describe group 52% and the underline group 54%.

Similarly, Gascoigne (2004) asked students to write four compositions. Each essay was connected to a learning unit and was designed to help students practice those rules presented in the unit. Correction of grammar errors included information about the location of the error and a description of the error, and sometimes the correct form was provided. Gascoigne concluded that correction had great effect: 88% of corrections were successful; 8% led to an incorrect change; and only 3% were ignored. Results of these studies have revealed that grammar correction with information that helps students to realize the errors and comprehend the correction would be very beneficial for their ability to correct, and thus, their linguistic ability.

2.5.5 Teacher Feedback on Content and Organization

Giving feedback on content and organization is a way that teachers scaffold their learners, because feedback *informs the writing process, permeating, shaping and moulding it* (Arndt, 1993:91). As a result of such feedback given, the students revise and edit their writing and at the same time realize that good writing involves not only an interaction between ideas and expression of ideas, but also the perceptions and reactions of the readers to the ideas (Chaudron, 1984). Revision, in fact, is one of the essential skills of the competent writers (Murray, 1978, in Arndt, 1993) who try to make their writing more effective both from the other people's constructive feedback and from their own critical evaluation. Fathman and Whally (1990) strongly contended that the students' improvement of content, length and grammatical accuracy resulted from the revision and rewriting process.

Studies have been conducted to find the effect of feedback on content. To compare the feedback between grammar-related aspect and meaning-related aspect, Arndt (1993) did a survey research with 75 students in EAP and ESP classes from different disciplines and 8 teachers, and found that both parties were fond of feedback on meaning-related aspects. They thought grammar correction would de-motivate them and inhibit the re-drafting. Further, teachers' comments and revision have been studied.

For example, Dessner (1991, cited in Ferris, 1997) reported his study on ESL teachers' response to writing that two thirds of teachers' comments were on advice and suggestions on content, and that these types of comment resulted in substantive revisions. Ferris (1997) conducted her research with different native language groups studying composition course at a university in California, and found that the teacher's comment particularly by means of requests for information, not grammar and text specific comment brought about substantive student revision.

In their study of the salience of feedback on error and its effect on EFL writing Quality, Robb, Ross, and Shortreed (1986) found that the grammar-related aspects may not be worth the time and effort of the teachers, rather it is beneficial if the teachers give commentary that forces the students back to the early stage of composing as Sommers (1982:154, cited in Robb, Ross, and Shortreed, 1986: 91) say *back to the point where they are shaping and restructuring their meaning* . At the same time they monitor, revise, re-write, and edit.

However, many studies have reported the unfavourable effects of providing feedback on content (Cohen and Cavalcanti, 1990; Fathman and Walley, 1990; Fregeau, 1999; Leki, 1990). For example, Fathman and Walley (1990), as well as Fregeau (1999) report that teacher feedback on content in the form of teacher comments is often vague, contradictory, unsystematic and inconsistent. This leads to various reactions by students including confusion, frustration and neglect of the comments. Leki (1990) reports that when presented with written feedback on content, students react in three main ways. The students may not read the annotations at all, may read them but not understand them, or may understand them but not know how to respond to them. Teacher comments on content are of little use if students do not know what they mean or how to use them productively to improve their skills as writers. Finally, Fathman and Walley note, much like correction of grammar mistakes, comments on content tend to be negative and point out problems more than tell students what they are doing right.

2.5 Attitude

Given that one purpose in this present study is to investigate the students' attitude towards the three teaching instruction, this part aims to review learners' attitude towards their learning and their learning achievement and to focus on how attitude is measured, particularly, by the so called semantic differential.

2.5.1 Attitude and Learning

According to Allport (1935), an attitude is a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related. Attitude is one of psychological constructs many researchers in various fields use as a predictor of behavioral outcomes. One's attitude influences one's behavior. Attitude is a state of readiness; a tendency to act or react in a certain manner when confronted with certain stimuli. Thus, the individuals' attitudes are present but dormant most of the time and become expressed in speech or other behaviour only when the object of the attitude is perceived (Oppenheim, 1983, pp. 105-6). Knowing learners' attitude towards the teaching content and methods, it is possible for teachers to guide and improve their classroom practice.

In L2 learning context, students' attitude can normally predict their learning achievement. Many researchers have revealed that attitude plays a considerably significant role as far as learning a new language in formal classroom context is concerned. For example, Gardner and Lambert (1972) suggested that positive attitudes enhanced L2 learning; negative attitude did not. In the study of low achievers' characteristics, Shah (1999) found that lack of a positive attitude contributed to the ESL learners' low achievement. Crew (1994 as cited in Shah, 1999) found that students with positive and favorable attitudes performed better in second/foreign language learning. In EFL Thai context, a number of research reported that student's attitude was significantly and positively correlated with English learning achievement of Thai students (e.g. Hotrakul, 1981; Wongsotorn, 1975; Cindakul, 1988).

2.6.2 Motivation

2.6.2.1 Definition

The dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics defines motivation as *the factors that determine a person's desire to do something* (1992: 238). Various definitions have also been given to motivation based on the beliefs of how language is learned (Brown, 2000: 160). For a behaviorist's point of view, motivation is defined based on both physiological needs and psychological needs, indicating that motivation is the expectation of the rewards, either from positive reinforcement or positive previous experience of the reward that drives an individual to act in order to receive more drive to further behaviors. For a cognitive's point of view, motivation refers to an individual decision which is made from the *experience or goal they will approach or avoid and the degree of effort they will exert in that respect* (Keller, 1983 as cited in Brown 2000). For a constructivist's perspective, motivation relates to both social context and individual personal choice, that is, each individual is motivated differently and act based on the norms of their community (Williams and Burden, 1997:120, cited in Brown, 2000).

2.5.2.2 Effects of Motivation on Second Language Acquisition

Gardner (1982) identifies a number of factors, including the social and cultural milieu, individual learner differences, the setting or context in which learning takes place and linguistic outcomes, which are interrelated when learning a second language in the foreign classroom settings. The social or cultural milieu refers to the environment in which an individual is situated, thus determining their beliefs about other cultures and language. It is these beliefs which have a significant impact on second language acquisition. The individual learner differences are believed to be the most influential in second language acquisition. These include the variables of intelligence, language aptitude, motivation and situational anxiety. The setting or contexts are formal instruction within the classroom and unstructured language acquisition in a natural setting. Depending upon the context, the impact of the individual difference variables alters. For example, in a formal setting intelligence and aptitude play a dominant role in learning, while exerting a weaker influence in an informal setting. The variables of situational anxiety and motivation are thought to influence both settings equally.

Linguistic outcomes refer to actual language knowledge and language skills. It includes test related aspects such as course grades or general proficiency tests. Non-linguistic outcomes reflect an individual's attitudes concerning cultural values and beliefs, usually towards the target language community. According to Gardner (1982) motivation includes effort, desire and affect. Effort refers to the time spent studying the language and the drive of the learner. Desire indicates how much the learner wants to become proficient in the language, and affect illustrates the learner's attitude towards language study.

According to Gardner and Lambert (1972), motivation is divided into two fundamental types: integrative and instrumental. Integrative motivation is characterized by the learner's positive attitudes towards the target language group and the desire to be a involved in the target language community. Instrumental motivation underlies the goal to gain some social or economic reward through L2 achievement such as getting a job, passing an examination, thus referring to a more functional reason for language learning.

Gardner and MacIntyre (1991, cited in Brown 2000) view the integrative and instrumental motivation as *orientation* which depends on the learner's context – academic/career related (instrumental) or socially/culturally oriented (integrative). With this perspective, motivation has been identified as the learner's orientation with regard to the goal of learning a second language (Crookes and Schmidt 1991). Motivation directly influences the use of second language strategies (Oxford and Nyikos 1989), the quantity and quality of interaction with native speakers (Schumann 1986), the amount of input learners receive (Krashen 1982), and the higher level of achievement in language learning (Clement et al., 1977). It is believed that learners who are most successful when learning a target language are those who like the people that speak the language, admire the culture and have a desire to become familiar with or even integrate into the society in which the language is used (Falk 1978). So, the integrative motivation is viewed as a key component in assisting the learner to develop their language proficiency and it becomes necessary when ones need to operate socially in the community and become one of its members as Finegan (1999: 568) asserts that

integrative motivation typically underlies successful acquisition of a wide range of registers and a native-like pronunciation.

In contrast to integrative motivation instrumental motivation is a desire to obtain something practical or concrete from the study of a second language (Hudson 2000). With instrumental motivation the purpose of language acquisition is more utilitarian, such as meeting the requirements for school or university graduation, applying for a job, requesting higher pay based on language ability, reading technical material, achieving higher social status. Instrumental motivation is often characteristics of second language acquisition, where little or no social integration of the learner into a community using the target language takes place, or in some instances is even desired. It has been found that generally learners select instrumental reasons more frequently than integrative reasons for the study of language. In some of the early research conducted by Gardner and Lambert (cited in Ellis, 1994), integrative motivation is viewed as being of more importance in a formal learning environment than instrumental motivation. Lukmani' s (1972) result of study supports this claim showing that Marathi-speaking Indian learners with instrumental orientation score higher in tests of proficiency. Kachru (1977, cited in Brown 2000) points out that in India, where English has become an international language, it is not uncommon for second language learners to be successful with instrumental purposes being the underlying reason for study. Brown (2000) makes the point that both integrative and instrumental orientations are not necessarily mutually exclusive.

Based on Maslow's motivational pyramid which focuses on human needs, Skehan (1989:49) proposes the *resultative motivation hypothesis* giving an implication that success breeds success, motivation *might be influenced by the success experienced by learners. Those learners who do well experience reward, and are encouraged to try harder: learners who do not do so well are discouraged by their lack of success, and, as a result, lack persistence. Motivation would be a consequence rather than a cause of success.* Cook (2001:118) supports this concept by concluding that *high motivation is one factor that causes successful learning; in reverse, successful learning causes high motivation.* In comparison, *the intrinsic hypothesis* (Skehan 1989:49) is viewed as arising from the materials and the tasks themselves.

Skehan explains that ...*motivation derives from an inherent interest in the learning tasks the learner is asked to perform* (Skehan 1989, cited in Ellis 1994:509).

Learners rarely select one form of motivation when learning a second language, but rather a combination of both orientations. So, motivation is a contributing factor in second language acquisition. Both integrative and instrumental assists in successful L2 learning. It is important to view motivation as one of a number of variables in a complex process involving both individual factors and situational factors which are unique to each individual learner. Motivation should be looked at from all angles, and particularly from external factors.

2.5.2.3 Motivation and Attitude

Attitude is not motivation but it reinforces motivation (Wlodkowski, 1985: 253-257). Gardner (1985) sees attitude as a component of motivation, and Spolsky (1989) supports this by inferring that attitude is a constituent of motivation. Gardner believes that motivation to acquire a L2 language is determined by basic predispositions and personality characteristics, such as how the target language group is viewed by the learner, feelings about the target language group, and in particular, the actual language to be learned. The successful acquisition of a second language seems to rely upon learners' attitude towards the language learning environment, the learning situation, and how they view the target language and its speakers, the desire to learn, and past experiences with learning a new skill, may affect or significantly contribute to language learning outcomes. Schumann (1978), Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991), Ellis (1994) view social factors important to L2 acquisition. Ellis (1994: 197) claims that social factors such as   *language aptitude, learning style and personality...can affect the proficiency that learners may acquire.* Underhill (1989) puts forward that teachers and researchers should be more alert to the learning process in the classroom and that *feelings are part of the powerhouse of process, since how we are feeling at any given moment colours the way we perceive things* (Underhill 1989:252). Baker (1992) agrees that positive attitudes towards language acquisition are one of the most important variables in a language learning situation, and that when learning conditions are favorable, positive attitudes are created in the learner environment to encourage involvement. Gardner *et al* (1985) perceive that attitude can have a major impact, and they assert that learners who

possess positive attitudes towards the target language are more likely to retain their language competence, and this in turn, increases learner confidence. Clement and Kruidenier (1985, cited in Tremblay and Gardner, 1995) see self-confidence as one of essential determinants of learner motivation. In later studies Clement et al. (1994) assert that self-confidence will *influence L2 proficiency both directly and indirectly through the students' attitude toward, and effort expanded on learning English* (Clement et al. 1994:441). Dörnyei (2001:120) implies that the educator can have a major influence through his or her own behavior in the classroom, and perhaps, hold the key to a *motivational tool*, that will also affect learner attitude. Tremblay and Gardner (1995) mention that learners will develop specific goals through positive attitudes towards the language, and that this can be used in the classroom with attractive teaching materials which inspire learners. They add that this will aid acquisition of the target language through those positive attitudes. This seems to suggest that, although many researchers feel that attitudes may be deeply rooted in their past experiences, cultural beliefs, or other factors which may have shaped their current attitude towards a certain language, or its social society, attitudes can and perhaps do, change through later positive or negative experiences. Baker's (1988) *main characteristics of attitudes* (Baker 1988, cited in Ellis 1994:199), lends support to the notion that attitudes are not fossilized, and that attitudes can change, or perhaps attitudes are always changing depending on the context and the situation over which students believe they can control (Wicker, 1969 in Schneider et al, 2005).

There have been a number of research studies on motivation and L2 learning situation. For example, Berwick and Ross (1989) conducted a study to examine the degree and type of motivation with a group of 90 first-year Japanese university students enrolled in an international commerce and a compulsory English course. It was found that the students possessed instrumental motivation. The underlying reason for studying English was the entrance exam requirements for university. Typically, upon entrance to the desired establishment the student's interest to continue study declined. Prior to beginning the English class the students were tested for motivation, which was found to be low. However, on completion of 150 hours of class time the motivation level of students had improved. Some suggestions for this alteration in motivation included the

use of a variety of instructional techniques and the recent adoption of an exchange program with an American sister university. This may have affected student perceptions and thus, their motivation to study the language. Moreover, it was found that motivation for studying English was high in the final year of high school when students put efforts on the study in order to enter the university. However, when the students could enter the university, motivation to continue English study was sometimes diminished. Many first-year students appear to have no academic purpose.

Jose (2003) conducted a qualitative study on motivation of learners who studied English for no specified or obvious reasons in a monolingual EFL classroom. A total of twenty learners, aged from 22-38, participated in the study. The participants were interviewed during the lesson times. Results of the study indicated that although many of the participants revealed a lack of easily identifiable aims and goals, other considerations such as local social integrative factors, self-efficacy, and personal feelings of security, were important considerations in a language learning context. These factors may foster or hinder a positive learning attitude. However, there were no conclusive indications that a positive attitude necessarily signified a higher degree of learner motivation. The findings implied that personal and social needs, as well as multi-faceted variables in relation to aims and goals, were important affective aspects of how language learning is perceived and managed by the learner. Swasdiriksh (1983) conducted a study on a relationship between motivation, social variables and learning achievement with 1,100 secondary level students. The results of the multiple linear regression analysis showed a significant relationship between motivation and English learning achievement as well as a significant relationship between social variables and English learning achievement. Krongboonsri (1989) investigated the relationships between types of motivation and communicative competence of 385 secondary students and found that the past experience of learning English with family support in learning English positively and significantly correlated with the English communicative competence and that instrumental motivation, integrative motivation and motivational intensity were positively and significantly correlated with communicative competence. The results of these studies led to conclusion that motivation for most EFL learners carried more instrumental than integrative motivation in the classroom. When the

instrumental orientation was strong, the desire to study was high. Although students did not have clear goal in learning, the peer competitiveness in the classroom motivated the students to learn encouraged by the personal and social needs. The previous research study also revealed that there was a significant and positive relationship between motivation and communicative competence of English language use as well as a significant and positive relationship between motivation and English learning achievement.

Summary of the Chapter

This chapter firstly investigates whether or not the formal instruction did have effect on L2 learning since the findings from the research study relating to the L1, L2 acquisition indicated that the process of acquisition could not be influenced by instruction. It was discovered that some studies reported positive effect of instruction.

This chapter also explores the current approaches and perspectives on L2 learning. From the literature review, the approaches that contained the cognitive and interactive approaches were effective. For example, the studies based on the noticing /attention theory discovered that only noticing was sufficient for language learning to occur. However, the strong argument based on the empirical studies was that only noticing could not facilitate learning; understanding was a vital factor. Studies relating to the interaction hypothesis reported that in testing this theory which states that modified input was better that the pre-modified input that appeared in the form of reading or listening input and modified output facilitated learning, though the effects were only a short term. One popular interactive approach – task-based instruction – was discovered that it could create interaction in the classroom, but the great concern was how the language was develop because there was no clear explanation for how language was learned. Therefore, the focus-on-form was proposed based on the interaction hypothesis. This theory stated that learning occurred when the treatments of language were at the developmental stage and the students were readiness for the new target language. This motivated many researchers to conduct the research based on the focus-on-form, but mostly done in the content-based or immersion classrooms. The relatively few studies were conducted in the EFL context using the framework of task-based instruction.

This chapter also reviewed the role and the relationship of explicit knowledge or knowledge of the rules or structures of the target language with the language skills such as speaking, listening etc. It was obvious that most of the research study reported a significant relationship between the explicit knowledge and the knowledge of use. However, it was found out that in fact the measures of the accuracy of the language varied. A study which measured the grammatical accuracy by T-unit analysis for the writing production reported that there was no significant difference among the variables.

This chapter also studied whether or not the attitude played a crucial role in language learning. It was discovered then that there was a relationship between the English learning achievement and the student attitudes.