Grammar Practice and Communicative Language Teaching: Groundwork for an Investigation into the Concept of Transfer-Appropriateness

by

Majid Nikouee

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Department of Educational Psychology
University of Alberta

Abstract

It is now over four decades that communicative language teaching (CLT) has been dominant in the domain of second language (L2) teaching. During the early years, grammar instruction faced opposition from the proponents of a strong version of CLT due to the disfavour the existed at that time for structural syllabuses. However, it eventually survived and reappeared as form-focused instruction (FFI), referring to any instructional technique intended to draw learners' attention explicitly or implicitly to grammatical structures when the focus is on meaning. Nowadays there seems to be a consensus among researchers about the compatibility of FFI and CLT. Therefore, a theoretically and pedagogically significant issue is how and when FFI can be integrated with communicative tasks. This study is an investigation of how grammar practice can be integrated with tasks at the pretask phase and is premised upon the idea that the concept of transfer-appropriate processing should be used in designing practice activities. The dissertation consists of an introductory chapter, a review paper (Paper 1), two research papers (Paper 2 and 3), and a concluding chapter.

In Paper 1, it is argued that a reliance on highly controlled grammar exercises is not sufficient for the development of accuracy under conditions requiring fluent oral production as in a normal conversation with native speakers. After reviewing earlier conceptualizations and operationalizations of grammar practice, the paper provides the background for exploring the notion of transfer-appropriateness, which refers to the idea that cognitive processes similar to those of real-world communication should be involved during practice activities. It is argued that transfer-appropriate practice is what is needed to develop learners' ability to produce targeted grammatical knowledge accurately during fluency-oriented task performance. This paper concludes with a discussion of how transfer-appropriate grammar practice can play a role in CLT

and offers an example of a transfer-appropriate practice activity with respect to the English past tense.

Paper 2 reports a study that compared the effect of two types of pretask practice activities on the use of the English past tense during task performance. The participants were native speakers of Mandarin enrolled in an EAP program at a Canadian university. They were randomly assigned to the Transfer-Appropriate Practice (TAPRA) or Traditional Practice condition. Oral elicited imitation and written error correction tests showed that the participants were not different in terms of their implicit and explicit knowledge of the past tense at the beginning of the study. After reviewing the past tense rules, the TAPRA group engaged in aural/oral communicative activities over three consecutive days while the Traditional Practice group completed written grammar exercises over the same period. As a post-test, both groups performed a focused communication task that required the use of the past tense. Results revealed that while the groups were not different in overall complexity, accuracy, and target-like use, the TAPRA group was significantly more fluent during the focused task. The findings suggest that TAPRA activities, compared to written grammar exercises, are more successful in balancing the competition between accuracy and fluency for L2 learners' limited processing capacity.

The study reported in Paper 3 was aimed at exploring the type of knowledge that learners draw upon during an elicited imitation (EI) test focused on the simple past. EI tests are often used to measure the effects of different types of form-focused intervention on the development of L2 learners' implicit knowledge. The study examined whether the grammaticality of the target feature, its position in an utterance, and the explicitness of the test instructions influence learners' imitations and the type of knowledge that they draw on during the test. Forty-four native speakers of Mandarin enrolled in an EAP program at a Canadian university completed an EI test along with

four other tests over two consecutive sessions. Results revealed that the participants were more accurate in repeating the regular verbs but neither the position of the verbs nor the type of instructions significantly influenced imitation. Moreover, the participants reported having awareness of the targeted form while repeating the stimulus statements. These learners' awareness of the target structure suggests that EI may be a measure of automatized explicit knowledge, involving the rapid and conscious retrieval of explicit knowledge, rather than implicit knowledge.

Preface

This thesis is an original work by Majid Nikouee. The research project, of which this thesis is a part, received research ethics approval from the University of Alberta Research Ethics Board, Project Name “The Impact of Different Types of Form-Focused Practice on Fluent and Accurate Use of English Simple Past”, No. Pro00083467, 9/10/ 2019.

This thesis is dedicated to my mother, who taught me how to live with love, and my father, who taught me how to be strong. You have made me who I am today!

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Chapter 1 : Introduction

Communicative language teaching (CLT) is an approach to second/foreign language (L2) education that aims to develop learners' ability to use their target language for communicative use in the real-world and not just in the classroom. Since its beginnings in the 1970s, several features of CLT have been identified. Brandl (2008) offers the following useful list of principles:

1. Task is the organizational principle of syllabus design.
2. Learning is facilitated by doing real-world activities.
3. Extensive exposure to input, especially authentic materials, is necessary.
4. Input needs to be meaningful and comprehensible.
5. Cooperative and collaborative activities promote learning.
6. Form-focused instruction assists learning.
7. Corrective feedback promotes learning.
8. Affective factors of learning need to be considered.

This dissertation is primarily concerned with two of these principles: the use of tasks and the need for form-focused instruction (FFI). Furthermore, the larger aim of this study is to contribute to solutions to the problem of how to integrate grammar within task-based lessons. The three papers presented here deal with how practitioners and scholars conceptualize and operationalize grammar practice, how the concept of transfer-appropriateness can be applied to the design of grammar practice activities, and how L2 grammar learning outcomes can be measured. As a background to these papers, this introductory chapter reviews the characteristics of tasks as an essential component of CLT, provides an overview of different pedagogical options for FFI, and discusses why and how FFI can be integrated into task-based lessons. The chapter closes with a brief overview of the dissertation and the definition of key terms.

Teaching with Tasks

Since the 1970s, CLT has been widely promoted as the best way to teach an L2 in order to develop learners' communicative competence. Brandl's list of CLT features signals the important role of the communication task. This role is emphasized to an even greater extent in task-based language teaching (TBLT), which is a further refinement of CLT informed by theoretical developments in second language acquisition (SLA). Tasks have been widely used in cognitive-interactionist research and in learner-centred pedagogy (Bygate et al., 2001) on the grounds that they encourage meaningful use of language and involve learning processes conducive to interlanguage development (Long, 2015).

Some researchers work with a loose conceptualization of task: an umbrella term that covers any type of practice activity from structure-based exercises to communicative tasks. Breen (1987), for example, referred to a task as either a "metacommunicative" or a communicative activity, the purpose of the former is to prepare learners for the latter by focusing on language forms. Excluding metacommunicative activities from this definition, Long (2016) defines tasks as "the real-world communicative uses to which learners will put the L2 beyond the classroom—the things they will *do* in and through the L2" (p. 6). Under this definition, activities such as booking a room in a hotel, answering a phone call, and writing a letter count as a task. These *genuine* tasks, according to Long, constitute the basis for the selection of *pedagogical* tasks in L2 classrooms. Long's conceptualization of tasks, however, is not uncontroversial. Skehan (2003) and Ellis (2003) maintain that the genuineness of a task depends on how learners perceive and respond to that task; therefore, it cannot be determined *a priori*. For both Skehan and Ellis, activities that do not represent authentic situations, but trigger communicative behaviours can be considered tasks. A more specific definition by Ellis (2009b) is that a task is an activity that: (a) requires focus on

meaning, (b) involves an information gap, (c) has an outcome, and (d) encourages taskers to draw on their own resources. Along similar lines, Nunan (2004) refers to tasks as activities that require learners to draw on their own linguistic resources during language processing. Common to all these definitions is the primacy of meaning over form[1] and of meaningful language use over mere practicing of formal features.

While tasks were initially supposed to focus on meaning and a nonlinguistic purpose only, they can also be designed to provide learners with opportunities to use a specific grammatical feature. This is known as the *focused* task in contrast to and *unfocused* task that does not elicit the use of any specific structure (i.e., learners use their own linguistic resources to accomplish the task). Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) proposed that the use of a grammatical structure may be natural, useful, or essential for the completion of a task. A *task-natural* structure is used naturally by native speakers when they perform a given task although it can be performed just as well using other structures. For example, in doing a "Things in Pockets" task that elicits speculations about a person's identity based on the contents of their pockets, epistemic modals are apparently native speakers' structure of choice (Samuda, 2001). Yet the task can be successfully performed by lexical items such as adverbs and adjectives of possibility. A formal feature may also be *task-useful*; this means that the structure is not necessary for the completion of a given task but can facilitate and accelerate task transaction. Finally, when a target feature is required for completing a given task, it is referred to as *task-essential*. Ellis (2007), for example, designed a game that required the use of comparative adjectives. Learners were asked to think of three adjectives describing a classmate and write statements comparing him/her to themselves. They were then asked to say their sentences to their classmates who were supposed to guess who was being

[1] Form can be a syntactic, semantic, morphological, phonological, or pragmatic feature of a language. In this study, it merely refers to morphosyntactic features.

described; comparatives were an essential structure for the completion of this task. Loschky and Bley-Vroman argued that task-essentialness is a prerequisite for the acquisition of new structures. However, they acknowledged the challenge of achieving it in free production tasks and suggested the use of comprehension tasks in which task-essentialness is easier to achieve.

Whether focused or unfocused, a task differs by definition from a grammar exercise involving filling in a blank or transforming a sentence (Ellis, 2003). Although often decontextualized, gap-fill exercises may also be set in a real-world context such as a conversation about making a hotel reservation where learners provide the correct verb forms. However, such an exercise involves focus on language as a formal feature rather than as a means for communicating meaning (Ellis, 2003). Such practice exercises are assumed to lead to language learning primarily through linguistic analysis. Learning from performing tasks, conversely, is posited to arise from meaningful language use and interaction (e.g., learners are asked to make a hotel reservation in pairs using a set of information). Despite the widespread promotion of TBLT in L2 classrooms, there are many misconceptions surrounding it (Ellis, 2009b). One reason for this is the paucity of research that has dealt with issues that are pedagogically significant for teachers, one of which relates to the integration of grammar and task-based instruction

As Brandl (2008) has noted, CLT includes both tasks and FFI, one prioritizing meaning and the other prioritizing form. The next section provides an overview of different FFI techniques and then moves on to the issue of integration of FFI in task-based lessons.

Overview of FFI Techniques

The role of L2 grammar instruction was in a state of flux in the 20th century due to the differing theories of language and learning (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). For a period of time, grammar was the building block of syllabus design, and learners were expected to master

grammatical structures one at a time. With the advent of CLT in the 70s (Howat, 2004), however, grammar was relegated to the margins. During this period, advocates of the strong form of CLT viewed grammar instruction as unnecessary on the grounds that the knowledge gained through instruction cannot be used implicitly; what was deemed necessary for acquisition was exposure to comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985) and engagement in negotiation of meaning (Prabhu, 1987). However, several SLA researchers have argued that these mechanisms are not sufficient for L2 development, and systematic attention to form seems necessary (Long, 1991; Lyster, 1994).

Grammar teaching in a CLT framework differs from a *traditional approach* that is based on structuralist views of language and behavioral views of learning. Ellis (2006) provided a definition of grammar instruction that appears to be compatible with CLT: "Any instructional technique that draws learners' attention to some specific grammatical form in such a way that it helps them either to understand it metalinguistically and/or process it in comprehension and/or production so that they can internalize it" (p. 84). What makes this definition distinct from the traditional approach is its emphasis on contextualization that in a broad sense refers to a communicative framework in which L2 learners attend or are prompted to attend to form-meaning connections (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Long & Robinson, 1998). Grammar instruction in this sense is typically referred to as FFI, which subsumes any instructional attempt to draw learners' attention explicitly or implicitly to linguistic forms that are already determined or spontaneously arise during communication (Spada, 2011).

As a key concept in SLA, FFI has evolved over the years, and this has led to different typologies. One, which is relevant to the present study, was proposed by Ranta and Lyster (2018) based on the computational model of SLA by Ellis (1998). The framework distinguishes between *proactive* and *reactive* FFI. Proactive FFI (see Figure 1.1) is a plan to render a specific form

noticeable in input or to incline learners towards utilizing it in a communicative situation. Under Proactive FFI, Ranta and Lyster placed input enhancement for raising awareness, metalinguistic explanation for developing explicit knowledge, and practice for developing automatic knowledge.

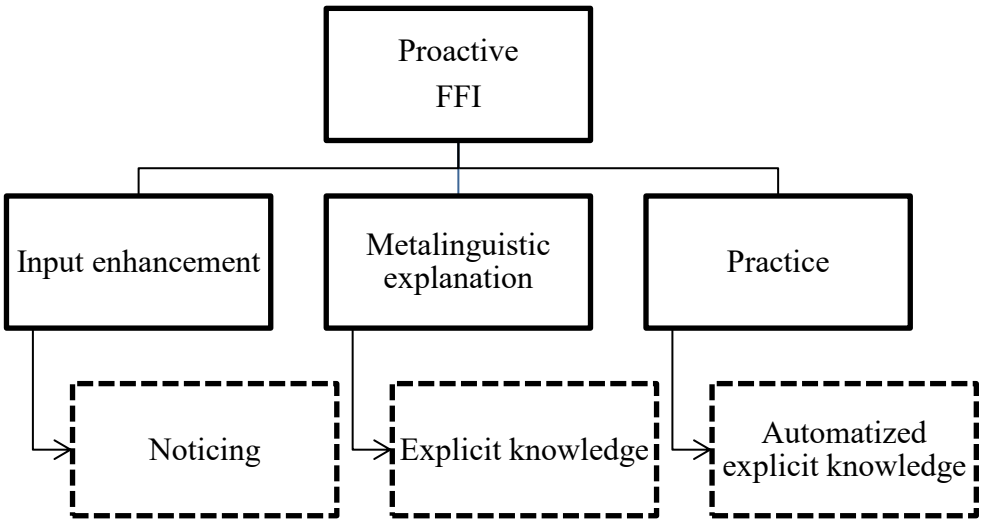

Figure 1.1. Types of Proactive FFI Techniques from Ranta and Lyster (2018)

Reactive FFI, on the other hand, is a response to errors that arise in oral communication, and the most common technique in this category is corrective feedback. In what follows, the techniques under proactive and reactive FFI are briefly discussed.

Proactive FFI

Input Enhancement

As an input-based option in proactive FFI, input enhancement is an attempt to accentuate the targeted forms by typographical manipulations such as underlining, boldfacing, and/or enlarging. The rationale for this derives from noticing hypothesis that underscores the importance of consciousness in L2 learning (Schmidt, 1990). It is assumed that typographical enhancement renders the target features more noticeable, and frequent exposure to this salient input leads to comprehension and the development of L2 knowledge (N. Ellis, 2002; Ellis, 2008). Mixed results

have emerged from research on input enhancement. Some studies could show that this technique leads to noticing and/or learning (Loewen & Inceoglu, 2016; White, 1998) while others found no benefit for input enhancement (Izumi, 2002; Winke, 2013). In a meta-analysis of input enhancement studies, Lee and Huang (2008) concluded that this technique has a limited effect on L2 development.

Grammar Explanation

The purpose of grammar explanation is to develop learner's explicit knowledge. The role of explicit knowledge, which is consciously held and retrievable, in the development of implicit knowledge has been subject to debate. This issue is theoretically associated with interface hypothesis (Ellis, 1993; DeKeyser, 1998). There are three versions of this hypothesis. The noninterface position considers explicit knowledge as a separate unit that merely serves as a monitor of the performance of the implicit knowledge without affecting it (Krashen, 1985). The strong and weak positions, conversely, posit that explicit knowledge affects implicit knowledge directly and indirectly, respectively. Some studies have found that rule explanation along with practice can affect L2 learning depending on the complexity of the rule and learners' proficiency level (e.g., DeKeyser, 1997; Li et al., 2016; Mochizuki & Ortega, 2008)

Grammar explanation is an explicit technique that can be delivered inductively or deductively. Although both deductive and inductive approaches share the goal of developing an understanding of grammatical features, they involve different procedures. In inductive intervention, learners are expected to infer a rule from the input seeded with examples of the targeted feature representing that rule whereas in deductive approach, they are provided with the rule either before or after practice (Jean & Simard, 2013). The comparative studies of the deductive and inductive approach have revealed mixed results, with some favoring deduction (e.g., Erlam,

2003) and others induction (e.g., Cerezo et al., 2016; Haight et al., 2007; Vogel et al., 2011). A robust conclusion regarding the effectiveness of inductive and deductive instruction cannot be drawn due to the lack of consistency across studies in operationalizing these two instructional options (Ellis, 2008). Further, individual differences, such as aptitude and motivation, seem to be at play when considering the effectiveness of different types of instruction. Erlam (2005), for example, found that the learners with higher language analytical ability benefited more from inductive instruction. On the contrary, deductive teaching did not correlate with the aptitude level of the learners, suggesting that all benefited from a deductive treatment irrespective of their aptitude scores.

Practice

The studies reviewed in the previous section involved explicit instruction with no or few practice opportunities, which are necessary for the accurate and fluent use of linguistic knowledge during spontaneous communication. In a general sense, practice means doing something regularly with the intention of enhancing one's skill at it. Practice, in the context of grammar instruction, refers to the frequent use of a grammatical feature to improve the skill of using it. The main issue is what type of practice can accomplish this. The field of SLA has in recent years witnessed a revival of interest in the concept of practice and its role in L2 development. This has been aimed at detaching practice from the drills popular during the heyday of audiolingualism and making it compatible with the current emphasis in pedagogy on CLT.

Paulston (1971) presented a tripartite categorization of practice activities that entails mechanical, meaningful, and communicative drills. While mechanical drills have one correct response that can be achieved without processing the meaning of the item, meaningful drills require the comprehension of the meaning to reach the correct answer. Communicative drills

involve a gap that renders the response unpredictable and, like their meaningful counterparts, involve meaning processing. Much of the criticism levelled against the concept of practice ensues from a narrow view equating practice with mechanical drills (Wong & VanPatten, 2003). Some researchers have in recent years attempted to provide a new image of grammar practice; one that encompasses a range of activities from communicative drills to communicative tasks (DeKeyser, 2010; DeKeyser & Criado, 2013) and is consistent with L2 learners' need for fluency and accuracy in communication. Practice in this sense is compatible with skill acquisition theory of learning, originating from cognitive psychology.

According to skill acquisition theory, the process of building a skill starts with some factual knowledge about that skill, known as declarative knowledge. Shortly after doing some initial practice, learners begin to develop some production rules from the factual knowledge. This process is called proceduralization and its product is procedural knowledge. The last stage is automatization, during which learners try to gain mastery of the skill. The output of this stage is automaticity that features drop-off in error rate, speed-up of processing time, and less interference with/from another task (DeKeyser, 1998). Through extensive practice in using the target skill, successive production rules that emerge during proceduralization merge to form new productions that take less time and less attention to perform because there are fewer productions to be fired.

Effective practice, according to DeKeyser (2007), requires meaningful use of language in comprehension and production with the intention of building the skill of using that language. Meaningful practice can stimulate the process of form-meaning connection and subsequently trigger the proceduralization and automatization of this process (DeKeyser, 2001) by repeated practice opportunities. Such practice should follow the principle of transfer-appropriate processing (TAP). This concept originates from cognitive psychology and is predicated on the assumption

that when the cognitive processes involved in recalling an item bear resemblance to those of learning that item, the retrieval of that item during performance is more successful (Segalowitz & Lightbown, 1999). From a CLT perspective, TAP indicates that learners can more easily access formal features during genuine communicative situations if they practice the retrieval of those features in communicative activities in the classroom.

The role of L2 practice has been overlooked in SLA research due to the negative view of this concept. A small body of research has provided some evidence in support of the efficacy of repeated practice on the proceduralization and automatization of L2 knowledge (DeKeyser, 1997; Robinson, 1997; Rodgers, 2011). However, there is a need for further research investigating the impact of persistent and deliberate practice (i.e., repeated opportunities for practicing language under real-world conditions) to be able to draw firm conclusions regarding the positive role of this FFI technique.

Reactive FFI: The Role of Corrective Feedback

A brief and unobtrusive reaction to the errors that arise in the course of a communicative event and hinder communication is known as reactive FFI. It gained momentum after Long (1991, 1996) underscored the importance of focus on form for directing attention to form-related problems during interaction. As the target is not predetermined in this type of FFI, it is consistent with learners' developmental level. Reactive FFI is typically identified with corrective feedback (CF) that is an indication of an error to a learner and includes a range of implicit and explicit techniques. Despite the wax and wane in the advocacy of CF from the 'method' to the post-method era, there is now a consensus in pedagogy that it should be provided as far as it does not hinder the flow of communication (Harmer, 2015; Johnson, 2008).

It has gone through a similar journey in SLA research due to the contrasting theoretical positions that fuelled research at different times. There is now compelling evidence that CF has a positive impact on L2 development, and this is supported by a rich body of empirical research (e.g. Ellis, 2007; Leeman, 2003; Lyster, 2004; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Yoshida, 2010) and meta-analyses (Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Russell & Spada, 2006). Overall, there seems to be no doubt about the efficacy of CF in L2 learning, and the strategies that elicit the correct form from learners appear to be more effective than those that provide the correct form depending on the target feature and context of study to name but a few. Furthermore, peer feedback can be as effective as teacher feedback if learners are aware of the benefits of peer feedback and are properly trained to provide it.

Integrating FFI and TBLT

Necessity of FFI

There is now a consensus among SLA researchers that purely meaning-focused L2 instruction is not as effective as when it is combined with FFI. From a theoretical point of view, the necessity of FFI pertains to the maturational constraints on L2 learning (Long & Robinson, 1998). Unlike first language learners, L2 learners have limited access to the innate mechanisms facilitating language acquisition, especially as they grow older. L2 learners also have limited attentional and processing capacity, making it difficult for them to attend to meaning and form simultaneously (Skehan, 1998; VanPatten, 2002). In addition, learners may fail to notice the gaps in their interlanguage (Swain, 1998) when they merely rely on the positive evidence in input or engage in meaning-centred communication without FFI. Therefore, an exclusively meaning-focused approach cannot be adequate for drawing learners' attention to form, and some form-focused intervention is needed. Gass and Selinker (2008) argued that FFI not only facilitates L2

learners' simultaneous processing of form and meaning, but also helps them automatize their grammar knowledge and consequently devote more time to restructuring new features.

Furthermore, several empirical studies (e.g., Cornillie et al., 2017; Day & Shapson, 1991; Doughty & Varela, 1998; Li et al., 2018; Mackey, 2006; Williams, 2001) and meta-analyses (e.g., Goo et al., 2015; Kang et al., 2019; Norris & Ortega, 2000; Spada & Tomita, 2010) have demonstrated the effectiveness of FFI. With respect to French immersion programs in Canada, for example, it was found that exclusive exposure to input, without FFI, led to the development of L2 learners' receptive skills and oral fluency while their grammatical accuracy was low (Swain, 2000). In the context of TBLT, Muranoi (2007) argued that performing meaning-focused tasks alone is not sufficient for fostering grammatical accuracy, and form-focused intervention needs to be combined with tasks in a way that accuracy, as well as task performance, is enhanced. This raises the questions of when and how to provide FFI so that learners develop accuracy and are enabled to use their knowledge to perform tasks.

Models of Integration

Ellis (2003) proposed two approaches to incorporating FFI into TBLT: integrated and modular. In the integrated approach, which is typical of content-based instruction, formal features are selected based on their essentialness or usefulness for completing content tasks. The modular approach, on the other hand, is comprised of two distinct modules. One includes unfocused tasks, intended to engage learners in meaningful communication and draw their attention to the features that interfere with meaning. The other module incorporates focused tasks and controlled language exercises that provide opportunities for practicing (potentially) problematic forms; this module is intended to prevent the risk of fossilization, which may occur when the focus of instruction is exclusively on meaning.

Along the same lines, Spada and Lightbown (2008) conceptualized the link between focus on form and communicative language use in terms of *integrated* and *isolated* FFI. Focus on form in integrated FFI occurs during tasks (i.e., in the form of interactional feedback) whereas isolated FFI provides opportunities for form-focused practice before or after a communicative task. The integration issue is important to teachers. Despite their differing conceptions of integration, teachers typically favor integrated over isolated grammar instruction. However, it should be noted that teachers' view of integration is not necessarily in line with how Spada and Lightbown conceptualized it. For instance, Borg and Burns (2008), in a survey of 176 teachers from 18 countries, found that over 84% of the respondents disagreed with the idea of isolated grammar teaching. Analyzing the responses to an open-ended question regarding how teachers implement integration, Borg and Burns found seven ways of integrating grammar and meaningful tasks and categorized them under a contextual or a temporal factor. The contextual forms of integration include teaching grammar in the context of a meaningful activity, attending to the grammatical features that arise from a text, choosing a text to present a grammatical structure, and focusing on the features that are useful for performing a communicative task. Integration in the temporal category is in the form of grammar work before, during, or after task transaction. In the next section, some integration options are characterized in terms of the timing and type of FFI.

Pretask Grammar Practice

Grammar instruction and practice can be placed before a task with a view to preparing learners for task performance and ultimately developing the skill of using grammar accurately and fluently in communicative contexts. This represents a sequential model of integration (Doughty & Williams, 1998) that emphasizes the role of practice in developing accurate and fluent L2 performance. Nunan (2004) proposed a pedagogical model of sequential integration in which what

is called *enabling activities* predispose learners towards the use of the target forms in the main task. These activities, unlike tasks, pursue a linguistic outcome and can be in the form of grammar exercises and communicative activities (Estaire & Zanon, 1994); the communicative activities, like tasks, trigger some meaningful communication. A practical application of this model is in the context of Canadian Language Benchmarks (CLB) in which grammar instruction is viewed as an attempt to equip learners with the structure(s) needed to successfully perform communicative tasks. According to CLB curriculum guidelines (Toronto Catholic District School Board, 2004), pretask grammar instruction should include the "pre-communicative stage" consisting of the contextualized presentation of the target grammar, explanation of the grammar structure, and focused practice; this is followed by the "communicative stage" where the communication task is performed.

Research on the effect of pretask practice on task performance and acquisition has been largely neglected, presumably due to the rejection of audiolingual teaching (DeKeyser, 2007). Furthermore, integration at the pretask phase is typically equated with the Presentation-Practice-Produce (PPP) model that has been criticized for its lack of compatibility with SLA findings (Long, 2016; Skehan, 1998) and long-term effectiveness (Klapper, 2003). From a practical perspective, teachers tend to skip the pretask phase and jump to the main task due to the lack of a clear conception of what the purpose of grammar instruction is in a task-based lesson. If, however, teachers set up a pretask phase, they usually use written grammar exercises to prepare learners for task performance probably because of the prevalence of such exercises in ESL materials.

FFI during Task Performance

Distinguishing focus on formS (FOFs) from focus on form (FOF), Long (1991) proposed the necessity of incorporating the latter in TBLT. He defined FOF as a brief and unobtrusive

response to the grammatical problems that arise in the course of communication. In other words, it is a short time out from a focus on meaning to respond to a language-related problem that hinders the flow of communication. Initially, it was operationalized as recast, a reformulation of an immediately preceding erroneous utterance. Later on, however, Long (2000, 2015) extended its scope to more explicit corrective strategies such as metalinguistic feedback. Regardless of the explicitness of CF, the central feature of this model is that there is not a syllabus for guiding FFI; therefore, tasks are supposed to be unfocused in that they do not elicit the use of a pre-selected grammatical feature. However, one problem with unfocused tasks is that L2 learners may avoid certain structures and draw on their strategic competence to complete the task (Loschky & Bley-Vroman, 1993).

Integration during task performance can also be implemented using focused tasks, which can be used to trigger the internalization of new structures and the automatization of existing structures via practice (Ellis, 2008). Samuda (2001) proposed a model that commences with the provision of input data in the form of lexical information, which learners can use to perform meaningful production tasks. The input data lay the ground for implicitly introducing the new target form(s) during the performance phase. However, if learners do not perceive and utilize it, explicit techniques should be adopted. Finally, there is an outcome phase that serves as a "fluency-stretching" opportunity using the newly acquired structure. Orienting learners towards the target feature(s) can deter lexical and pragmatic processing at the expense of syntactic processing. However, as Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) noted, rendering grammatical forms essential for completing production tasks is not easy to achieve.

Post-Task Grammar Instruction

Grammar instruction and practice can happen in the post-task phase. Here instruction is built on the language-related problems that occur in the task phase. Willis (1996) presented a TBLT framework comprised of pretask, task cycle (including task, planning, report), and language focus. The pretask phase is aimed at schema activation and providing the vocabulary needed for task completion. Although learners may consider how to express meaning accurately, there is no opportunity at this stage for practice because it is assumed that practice diverts attention from a focus on meaning towards formal accuracy, and this is not the optimal condition for language development. Language practice is carried out in the language focus phase based on the output of the task cycle. Practice in the post-task phase can be input-based to trigger noticing or output-based to assist in gaining control in using grammatical structures (Ellis, 2003). Ellis also suggested that traditional exercises (e.g., substitution and transformation exercises) and consciousness-raising tasks are other instructional options for this phase. Klapper (2003) proposed that a grammatical focus can be seeded in the task cycle of Willis's model by means of focused tasks. This provides frequent opportunities for linking form and meaning online and encourages syntactic processing during task transaction. He argued that this is a task-based syllabus with an embedded grammar component rather than a grammar-based syllabus complemented by tasks.

Overview of the Dissertation

This dissertation sought to explore one of the solutions to the problem of when and how to integrate FFI with communicative tasks. It investigated how grammar practice can be provided at the pretask phase and was premised upon the idea that the concept of transfer-appropriate processing, referring to the similarity of the cognitive processes involved in practice activities and real-world communication, should be used in designing practice activities. This dissertation

consists of three papers. In the first paper, earlier conceptualizations of grammar practice as highly scaffolded exercises were reviewed, and it was argued that a reliance on such practice exercises cannot promote the development of accuracy under conditions requiring fluent oral production. The second paper reports on a study that examined the differential effects of two types of pretask practice activities, namely written grammar exercises and transfer-appropriate activities, on the use of past tense and global features of performance during a focused communicative task. The study reported in the last paper looked at an elicited imitation test focused on past tense. Imitation tasks are typically used in SLA literature as a measure of the effect of FFI, and this study investigated the type of knowledge, explicit or implicit, that learners drew upon during the elicited imitation test. Overall, this research was aimed at providing the groundwork for further investigation of the principle of TAP with respect to grammar practice by demonstrating how TAP can be applied in designing practice activities that can promote accuracy within fluency.

Definition of Key Terms

There are some concepts and terms that are frequently used in this dissertation. In this section, a brief definition of each as used and conceptualized in the dissertation is provided.

Accuracy and Fluency

Accuracy refers to grammatical correctness and is measured as the target-like use of structures in obligatory contexts. Fluency is defined as the rapid and smooth production of language and is measured via the temporal features of oral performance (Skehan, 1996).

Automatized Knowledge

Knowledge is considered to be automatized when it is retrieved rapidly and without much processing demand. Automatization is a result of repeated and systematic practice (DeKeyser, 2007).

Declarative Knowledge

Declarative knowledge refers to the factual knowledge of rules that learners are aware of and capable of verbalizing (DeKeyser, 1998).

Elicited Imitation Test (EIT)

In Second Language Acquisition research, EITs are typically used as a measure of implicit knowledge. In an EIT, test-takers first hear a statement and make a judgement about its truth value. Then they are prompted to repeat the stimulus in *correct* English.

Enabling Grammar Activities

Enabling grammar activities are intended to prepare learners for using their grammar knowledge accurately during the performance of communicative tasks.

Explicit and Implicit Knowledge

Explicit knowledge refers to the factual knowledge of grammatical rules that can be consciously retrieved and verbalized whereas implicit knowledge is like the knowledge of one's first language. It is intuitive and cannot be explained verbally (Ellis, 2009a).

Form-Focused Instruction (FFI)

FFI refers to any instructional technique used for drawing learners' attention to pre-selected linguistic features or those that spontaneously arise during communication (Spada, 2011).

Grammar Exercise

Grammar exercises are highly scaffolded in that the input information provided with them is so heavy that they give learners little leeway to utilize their own linguistic resources. These activities are focused on form rather than meaning and elicit limited production.

Procedural Knowledge

Procedural knowledge refers to the specific production rules that learners develop based on their declarative knowledge and via practice (DeKeyser, 1998).

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)

TBLT is an approach to language teaching that draws upon tasks as the unit analysis in designing lessons. A task is a meaning-focused activity that prompts learners to use their linguistic resources for achieving a non-linguistic outcome (Ellis, 2009b).

Transfer-Appropriate Processing (TAP)

TAP is predicated on the assumption that when the cognitive processes involved in recalling an item are similar to those of learning that item, its retrieval is more successful during performance (Lightbown, 2008).

Transfer of Learning

Transfer of learning occurs when learning through a set of activities or in a certain situation impacts an individual's performance during another set of activities or in another situation (James, 2018).

Chapter 2 : Literature Review

Revisiting Grammar Practice in Communicative Language Teaching

This chapter is a review of the literature relating to grammar practice. The review considers conceptualizations of grammar practice from the past and the current SLA view, which is influenced by concepts from cognitive psychology, specifically skill acquisition theory and the notion of transfer-appropriateness. The chapter concludes with a discussion of transfer-appropriate grammar practice and its role in task-based language teaching and of the ways in which transfer effects from practice can be measured.

Introduction

Grammar practice refers to deliberate and repeated activities focused on specific grammatical features, and it ostensibly aims to develop learners' ability to use targeted forms in written and oral communication. Any discussion of grammar practice is likely to conjure up the image of audiolingual drills in which students repetitively use a structure in a decontextualized manner and without making form-meaning connections. Currently in ESL grammar textbooks, the dominant type of grammar practice is the written exercises requiring limited responses from the learner (Ranta, 2013). In this chapter, it is argued that a reliance on such highly scaffolded grammar practice exercises cannot, from a theoretical standpoint, promote the development of accuracy under conditions requiring fluent oral production as in a normal conversation with native speakers. The aim of the chapter is to review earlier conceptualizations and operationalizations of grammar practice and unpack the limited understanding of accuracy and fluency. This provides the background for exploring the notion of transfer-appropriateness, which refers to the idea that cognitive processes similar to those of real-world communication should be involved during practice activities. It is argued that transfer-appropriate practice is what is needed to develop

learners' ability to produce targeted grammatical knowledge accurately during fluency-oriented task performance. This paper concludes with a discussion of how transfer-appropriate grammar practice can play a role in communicative language teaching where tasks are the basis for organizing language instruction (Brandl, 2008). Finally, a discussion of the possible tools for measuring the knowledge developed through transfer-appropriate practice will be presented.

Grammar Teaching Then and Now

Grammar Practice in the Past

Grammar pedagogy has had a chequered past due to the differing theories of language and learning that raged in the 20th century (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Prior to the advent of communicative language teaching (CLT) in the 1970s, grammar was the building block of syllabus design in second language (L2) teaching, and learners were expected to master structures one at a time through instruction and practice. In the era of audiolingualism, mastery was expected to result from repetition of oral pattern drills, and deductive rule explanations had no place in the classroom (Keck & Kim, 2014).

The lack of effectiveness of audiolingual teaching revealed by classroom researchers led Lightbown (1985) to conclude that "practice does not make perfect". However, her conclusion, as she explained later (Lightbown, 2000), was based on the definition of practice as decontextualized pattern drills used in audiolingual classrooms rather than meaningful communicative activities. Greater awareness of the value of communication in L2 teaching led to the appearance of no-practice methods such as the Natural Approach (Krashen & Terrell, 1983). During this period, it was widely believed that knowledge gained through explanation and practice could not be used implicitly, without awareness; as argued by Krashen (1985), only exposure to comprehensible input was deemed necessary for acquisition to occur. The influence of Krashen's ideas can be seen

in many ESL textbooks from the 1980s where explicit grammar instruction is notably absent. However, gradually, especially after the 90s, a large body of research has accumulated advocating the benefits of including a focus on the formal features, especially grammar, of an L2 in different ways in otherwise communicatively oriented classrooms (e.g., Lightbown & Spada, 1990; White et al., 1991; Norris & Ortega, 2000; Ellis et al., 2001; Goo et al., 2015; Li et al., 2016). Within this body of research on the effects of FFI, deliberate practice has seldom been of particular interest.

Renewed Interest in Practice in SLA

The failure of traditional grammar exercises and pattern drills in producing both accuracy and fluency led to attempts to provide more effective conceptions of L2 practice. One of the first attempts was made by Gatbonton and Segalowitz (1988) who proposed a model in which practice is aimed at fostering fluency and accuracy at different stages of a task cycle. Instead of practicing rules and structures, learners are prompted to repeatedly practice utterances in communicative situations so that they can speak rapidly and smoothly, without excessive pressure on their attentional resources. Any exclusively form-focused practice in this model is based on the utterances produced communicatively.

Robert DeKeyser is another researcher who is at the forefront of efforts to redress the neglect of the concept of practice and its negative associations to the mechanical drills of audiolingualism. In a general sense, practice means doing something regularly with the intention of enhancing one's skill at it. From the viewpoint of applied linguistics, DeKeyser (2007) defined practice as "specific activities in the second language, engaged in systematically, deliberately, with the goal of developing knowledge of and skills in the second language" (p. 1). Accordingly, in a narrower sense and in the context of grammar instruction, practice can be defined as the frequent use of a grammatical feature to improve the skill of using it in communicative situations.

DeKeyser's (2007) definition has raised several questions about practicing different skills: (1) What type of deliberate practice under what conditions is optimal for developing skill? (2) Is practice equally effective for different formal features of language? (3) Can learners with different levels of aptitude equally benefit from practice? (4) What is the process of developing this skill like? (5) How does this definition fit in with a contemporary view of L2 instruction? These questions indicate that practice is a multi-faceted construct, and its efficacy depends on the conditions of administration, the target of practice, and learners' individual traits (Suzuki et al., 2019a).

Answering all of these questions thoroughly would require a book-length treatment and/or special issues of journals (see the 2019 special issue of Modern Language Journal on the cognitive aspects of practice). Therefore, this paper is focused on only one piece of the larger puzzle: the topic of grammar practice.

In the definition provided above, practice is referred to as deliberate engagement in an activity. Deliberate practice involves repeated performance of the same or similar activities with a view to improving what one is capable of doing at some point (Baker et al., 2005; Ericsson et al., 1993). For example, using L2 at work regularly to perform different work-related tasks without trying to improve the linguistic aspect of one's performance is not deliberate practice as the goal is task completion not learning. Deliberate practice, according to Anderson (2009), encourages learners to monitor their own learning, attempt to find the deviations, and eliminate them; in other words, the goal is learning and improvement.

Implied in the concept of deliberate practice is the necessity of repetition, which means the reproduction of the same behaviour in the same or similar meaningful contexts rather than the mechanical reproduction of utterances elicited during decontextualized drills (Bygate, 2018;

DeKeyser, 2018). Much of the criticism levelled against the concept of practice ensues from a narrow view equating it with mechanical drills (DeKeyser, 2010; Wong & VanPatten, 2003). In mechanical drills, learners may draw on rules for a couple of items, but after that they rely on analogies induced from the initial items to perform the subsequent items, without necessarily understanding the meaning of the items (DeKeyser, 1998, 2007). Thus, such practice exercises do not strengthen form-meaning connections, which are essential for automatic language processing and learning.

Skill Acquisition Theory and Grammar Practice

The Purpose of Practice

A narrow view of grammar practice as written grammar exercises and pattern drills has likely led to teachers' uncertainty about the compatibility of practice and communicative methods. Grammar practice in this sense merely elicits limited production at sentential level and is focused on accuracy or the target-like use of the language (Fotos, 2005). This type of practice, however, thwarts the development of communicative ability, which encompasses rapid and smooth production of language (i.e., fluency) as well. Although accuracy and fluency are distinct constructs, emphasis on one at the expense of the other can impair language use. As Byrd (2005) argued, lack of accuracy may reduce comprehensibility while lack of fluency can hamper the flow of communication. Accordingly, she recommends grammar activities that fall in the middle of the accuracy-fluency continuum and target "accurate fluency" (P. 551) rather than each one separately.

The way deliberate practice can result in faster and more accurate use of grammar knowledge is theoretically related to the assumed relationship between explicit and implicit knowledge, referred to as the interface hypothesis (Ellis, 1993). Explicit knowledge is verbalizable and can be consciously accessed whereas implicit knowledge is held without awareness and cannot be

articulated (DeKeyser, 2009; Ellis, 2009a). The proficient speaker's ability to use a language for communicative functions relies on implicit knowledge, which is used accurately and fluently and is, therefore, the goal of language instruction. A non-interface position suggests that explicit and implicit knowledge are dissociated, and practice only affects the former (Krashen, 1987). This is consistent with the teaching methods, such as the Natural Approach, that emphasize mere exposure rather than practice (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

The opposite view is the strong interface position according to which practice directly links explicit/declarative and implicit/procedural knowledge in the sense that learners develop the latter by (up to some point) drawing on the former during practice (DeKeyser, 2007, 2017; McLaughlin, 1990); deliberate practice plays a pivotal role in this transition. This is the position that underpins this dissertation.

There is also a weak interface position that views explicit knowledge as facilitative of the development of implicit knowledge under certain circumstances. According to N. Ellis (2005), "Implicit and explicit knowledge are dissociable but cooperative" (p. 305). In other words, explicit knowledge is not convertible into implicit knowledge, but helps it if need be. Ellis (2005) contends that explicit knowledge can benefit the development of implicit knowledge by giving rise to such cognitive processes as noticing the gap that aid acquisition when learners are developmentally ready.

Skill Acquisition Theory

Skill-acquisition theory of learning that originates from cognitive psychology underlies instance-based and a rule-based models of learning (DeKeyser, 2001). Learning in the instance-based model is equated with speed-up in the retrieval from long-term memory of instances, defined as sets of co-occurring events (Logan, 1992); the higher the frequency of retrieval during practice,

the faster the retrieval in other contexts. The rule-based model is typically identified with Anderson's (1982, 1983) Adaptive Control of Thought (ACT) model.

The process of building a skill starts with some factual knowledge about that skill, known as declarative knowledge, that is transmitted via observing the behaviour performed by others, verbal explanation by an expert, or both at the same time (DeKeyser, 2015). After some initial practice, learners begin to develop some production rules based on the declarative knowledge. This stage involves the conversion of declarative representation into procedural execution via production compilation (Anderson et al., 2004). Declarative knowledge is initially involved in performance, which is slow because the factual knowledge has to be retrieved from long-term memory and operated on in working memory. The relation between the components of the skill strengthens with a few trials, and a procedure for the execution of the skill develops. At the end of this stage, the learner does not need to retrieve the necessary information piecemeal as the bits of declarative information turn into a whole ready-made chunk. Anderson (2009) notes that, even when the procedure functions smoothly, the declarative knowledge can remain active, and we may think of it although this is the procedural knowledge that drives the performance. Finally, commences the lengthiest stage of skill building, namely automatization, during which learners try to gain mastery of the skill. The output of this stage is automatized procedural knowledge that features drop-off in error rate, speed-up of processing time, less interference with/from other tasks, and more stability in performance (DeKeyser, 1998, 2001, 2015; Segalowitz & Segalowitz, 1993). At this point, learners start to rely on procedural rather than declarative knowledge; therefore, performance happens rapidly with little or no demand on processing resources.

The transition from declarative to automatized knowledge pertains to the reduction of the burden on the attentional capacity needed for processing the components of the target skill.

Researchers interested in skill acquisition theory seek to grasp the effect of deliberate practice on this transition. These researchers (e.g., Anderson, 2009) acknowledge the crucial role of extensive deliberate practice in this process, leading to both qualitative and quantitative changes in mental processing. In other words, deliberate practice can reduce the effect of controlled processing, executed slowly and without stability, on the performance of a skill by releasing attentional capacity for non-automatized components of the skill.

The learning route sketched out in skill acquisition theory is applicable to any cognitive and motor skill, and L2 learning is no exception. Language is a creative behaviour that entails skills (speaking, listening, reading, writing) and subskills (syntax, phonology, morphology) that are hierarchically related (Johnson, 1996). If we set automatized procedural knowledge as the ultimate goal of deliberate L2 practice (DeKeyser, 2015) and follow DeKeyser's (1998) instructional model of "explicit teaching of grammar, followed by [form-focused] activities to develop declarative knowledge, and then gradually less focused communicative exercises" (p. 58), L2 knowledge is expected to develop in the direction predicted by skill acquisition theory.

An example from morphosyntax can clarify the link between L2 learning and skill acquisition theory. The rule for regular past tense in English requires adding -d or -ed to the base verb. This declarative knowledge can be imparted to learners of L2 English deductively (explaining the rule followed by examples) or inductively (inferring the rule from examples). Controlled exercises with extensive scaffolding and limited demand on production are needed to firmly establish the declarative knowledge, which is an essential component of the process of skill building (see Criado, 2016). Exercises typical of this stage are cloze passages and fill-in-the-blanks that require the provision of the past form of regular verbs. After consolidating this knowledge, the amount of scaffolding provided with the practice activities should be reduced and the amount

of production required should be increased. For example, learners at this stage can be asked to describe pictures, accompanied by verbs in base form, showing someone's activities over the last weekend. Here they practice the behaviour of applying the rule for regular past tense rather than the pieces of the rule in isolation. Once the procedure for using regular past tense is formed (if the action happened at a specific time in the past and if the verb is regular, then add -d or -ed), more authentic activities eliciting past verbs should be utilized under conditions that simulate the exigencies of real-world communication. Leaners at this stage can be asked, for example, to talk about their last weekend with or without time pressure. At this point, learners should be able to rapidly retrieve the past tense procedure and produce the past verbs with high accuracy.

Oral practice involving the cognitive processes of real-world communication can improve the performance of the psycholinguistic components of L2 oral production. This can be explained using Levelt's (1989) model of speech production, which describes how the propositional and linguistic contents of an oral message develop and map onto each other to produce a stream of sounds. Language production in this model consists of three specialists, viz., conceptualizer, formulator, and articulator, which work in tandem and feed into each other to verbalize a proposition. The conceptualizer is in charge of finding and organizing information for developing a propositional unit (i.e., a preverbal message). This is transmitted to the formulator that is responsible for encoding information grammatically and then, phonologically. The formulation stage, in contrast to the conceptualization stage, deals with the formal features of the message. Finally, the output of the formulator, which is a phonetic plan, is delivered to the articulator to be externally expressed. Proceduralization in this model refers to the acceleration of the performance of each component and of the collaboration between them (Levelt, 1989).

In the context of L2 learning, the formulator is especially relevant. It is responsible for retrieving grammatical knowledge from long-term memory for encoding the preverbal message. Applying Levelt's model, originally developed for L1 oral production, to the situation of speaking in the L2, De Bot (1992) proposed that learners have a separate formulator for oral production in their L2. The L2 formulator needs to be accessed automatically for learners to be communicatively functional in real-life situations; extensive deliberate practice targeting the behaviour of encoding messages morphosyntactically (i.e., form-meaning mapping) is needed for proceduralizing and automatizing this skill. This is consistent with the definition proposed by Gatbonton and Segalowitz (1988) of automaticity in second language acquisition as "the development, through extended and consistent practice, of rapid, smooth, comfortable speaking skills that do not consume the attentional resources necessary for other aspects of performance" (p. 474). Given the limited information-processing capacity of L2 learners, automaticity saves attentional resources for catering to accuracy during oral production, and this will result in rapid retrieval of accurate linguistic information from long-term memory.

Repetition in Output Practice

As the foregoing discussion of practice and skill acquisition theory should have made clear, the new conceptualization of practice in a broad sense is that "repetition does not mean drill and kill" (DeKeyser, 2018, p. 30). Repetition is not confined to highly controlled practice activities but can be integrated with communicative tasks. In defining task repetition, Bygate (2018) notes that repetition is an authentic concept that occurs in real life; for example, we may narrate an anecdote several times to different people. From the current perspective, the goal of repetition is to render the allocation of attentional capacity and the processing of information faster, which, in turn, leads to the rapid, smooth, and accurate production of language (Gatbonton & Segalowitz, 2005). With

respect to the stages of skill acquisition, the proceduralization and automatization of any behaviour requires repeated execution of the production rules constituting that behaviour (Anderson, 2009; DeKeyser, 2018). If the ideal behaviour in L2 learning is the fluent and accurate (i.e., automatic) use of language in communicative contexts, then repetition should be aimed at promoting this behaviour not merely a mechanical reproduction of utterances. In what follows, two strands of research on repetition are reviewed: (1) the effect of task repetition on subsequent task performance and (2) the effect of repeated output practice on the development of L2 knowledge, specifically grammar knowledge.

Repetition and Task Performance

This line of research was initially focused on the effect of the repetition of the same task on the complexity, accuracy, and fluency (CAF) of the second performance and later expanded in scope and examined the effect of repeating the same task or task type on the CAF measures in a new task (i.e., acquisitional value of repetition). In Bygate (1996), for example, learners were more accurate during the second transaction of the same oral narrative task performed three days earlier. Fukuta (2016) had a similar observation. His results demonstrated a significant increase in accuracy and lexical variety, but not in fluency and complexity, after repeating the same oral narrative task one week later; a stimulated recall interview revealed that accuracy rose on the second task enactment as a result of increased attention to form. Conversely, Ahmadian and Tavakoli (2011) demonstrated the effects of task repetition on complexity and fluency one week after the first performance. They argued that learners transferred the propositions and linguistic features they recalled from the first enactment to the second.

Bygate (2001) was one of the first studies investigating task type or procedural repetition as well as task repetition. One group performed the same oral narrative task and the other an interview

with new content after 10 weeks. He found evidence for improvement in fluency and complexity, but not accuracy, as a result of task repetition but did not find any change in performance following task type repetition. In an attempt to compare the short- and long-term effects of task repetition and procedural repetition on the performance of a new task, Kim and Tracy-Ventura (2013) allocated 36 Korean high school students leaning L2 English to a task repetition or a task type repetition group; the learners in the former condition repeated the same interactive task three times while those in the other group performed three interactive tasks differing in content. They found that task type repetition was more effective than task repetition only in the development of syntactic complexity in the performance of a picture-cued oral narrative task from pre- to the first post-test. In terms of the accuracy of the simple past tense, which was an essential structure for the completion of the task, both repetition conditions were effective, but neither had a significant impact on fluency.

Comparing task and procedural repetition, Patanasorn (2010), found mixed results in terms of fluency and accuracy. It was found that the accuracy of the simple past tense significantly improved only with procedural repetition, a finding that contrasts with that of Kim and Tracy-Ventura that found a positive effect on simple past accuracy in both repetition conditions. Regarding overall fluency, Patanasorn found significant increase only in the task repetition condition. The findings of both studies attest to the trade-off effect between accuracy and fluency (Skehan, 1998). Further, Ahmadian (2011) explored the acquisitional value of massed task repetition on CAF measures in a new task. Intermediate learners of L2 English were asked to perform the same oral narrative task 11 times every two weeks followed by a dialogic interview task. A control group was asked to perform the oral narrative task once and the interview task almost six months later. Results revealed improved complexity and fluency in the interview task

only for the massed condition; however, no between-groups difference was observed in terms of accuracy. Altogether, these findings suggest that the effect of repetition can transfer to new tasks for certain aspects of performance under certain circumstances.

Mixed results have emerged from this body of research. Bygate's (2018) conclusion from research on task repetition clearly shows this divergence: "In brief, the picture emerging from the early studies on task repetition is that, provided they accepted the challenge, learners of all levels of proficiency are likely to benefit from task repetition by changing their focus and the resulting output" (p. 8).

More recently, some researchers have explored the effect of task repetition from a skill acquisition perspective, specifically whether it affects the proceduralization of knowledge. Using the 4/3/2 technique, De Jong and Perfetti (2011) investigated the effect of task repetition on the development of fluency, construed as the proceduralization of knowledge. Learners of L2 English completed three training sessions under two different conditions. In the repetition group, each student talked about a given topic three times under increasing time pressure (4 min, 3 min, and 2 min); there was a different topic for each session. The students in the non-repetition group, on the other hand, talked about three different topics in each session under increasing time pressure; here the topics differed within and across the training sessions. The study included a pretest and two posttests in the form of 2-min recorded monologues about different topics. Results revealed short-term (one week after training) and long-term (four weeks after training) gains in fluency measured as mean length of runs and pauses and phonation-time ratio. The authors interpreted their findings as evidence of the development of proceduralized knowledge that transfers to new contexts. This, from a cognitive perspective, means that repetition provided learners with the opportunity to

develop and practice production rules, leading to the availability of more attentional capacity for operating production rules more efficiently.

In another study, focused on the development of fluency during training, De Jong and Tillman (2018) compared three iterations of the same task (specific task repetition) and three iterations of the same type of task (task-type repetition) with and without increasing time pressure. In contrast to De Jong and Perfetti (2011), they used picture-based narrative tasks during the training sessions. The aim of the study was to reveal under what circumstances the re-use of lexical items (unigrams) and grammatical constructions (trigrams) leads to the development of oral fluency measured as the proportion of time filled with speech and mean syllable duration. High intermediate learners of L2 English completed the retelling of each topic in the decreasing order of 180, 135, and 90 sec or in the constant condition of 135 sec for all iterations. Overall, the results showed a high re-use rate in both specific task and task-type repetition conditions, with higher re-use similarity in the former. However, the correlation between re-use similarity and fluency varied depending on the topic of the iterations. De Jong and Tillman concluded that re-use could enhance fluency and, in turn, induce proceduralization.

Repeated Output Practice and Knowledge Development

There is ample evidence in cognitive psychology research that repeated production practice, known as retrieval practice, plays a positive role in retention and learning (Karpicke & Roediger, 2007; Kornell & Vaughn, 2016; Smith et al., 2013). In SLA, this issue has been addressed in different lines of research for different dimensions of L2 learning. There are studies comparing input- and output-based practice, studies looking into the role of different types of form-focused instruction accompanying output practice, and studies focused on the effect of repeated output practice on knowledge development based on a skill acquisition perspective (Muranoi, 2007).

Regarding the first group of studies, there has been a debate for over 20 years about the efficacy of input-based practice involving processing instruction compared to output practice. The proponents of processing instruction, which provides opportunities for form-meaning mapping during input processing, argue that such practice is more effective than output practice in developing both comprehension and production ability (e.g., Comer & deBenedette, 2011). On the other hand, some researchers have shown that the advantage of processing instruction is confined to comprehension and does not transfer to production (e.g., DeKeyser et al., 2002; Salaberry, 1997). In a meta-analysis comparing comprehension- and production practice, Shintani et al. (2013) concluded that the former is more effective for comprehension in the short run when it involves processing instruction. This is echoed in DeKeyser & Prieto Botana (2015) that argued processing instruction affects comprehension ability, and output practice, when in the form of communicative activities, contributes to production ability.

The second line of research is vast as form-focused instruction entails different options and strategies, with corrective feedback being the mostly researched one. Several studies have supported the efficacy of oral corrective feedback in L2 development (e.g., Doughty & Varela, 1998; Leeman, 2003; Long et al., 1998; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Yang & Lyster, 2010; Yoshida, 2010). There are also four meta-analyses that found medium to large effect sizes for the effect of error correction (Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Russell & Spada, 2006); for example, Russell and Spada reported a large mean effect size (1.16) and Lyster & Saito reported a medium mean effect size (0.74) for CF effects.

The third line of research has received scant attention; it is concerned with the effect of output practice on the development of (automatized) procedural knowledge. Studies with this objective have either targeted automaticity at a broad level (De Ridder et al., 2007; Towell et al.,

1996) or focused on the automatization of specific grammatical structures (DeKeyser, 1997; Rodgers, 2011). Towell et al. (1996) equated automatization with utterance fluency and used temporal features of oral production as a measure of the proceduralization of the formulator operation. They proposed that increased mean length of run (MLR), accompanied by stable or reduced average length of pause and stable or increased phonation time ratio, is an indicator of this phenomenon. They argued that increased MLR is not an indication of the proceduralization of conceptualizer unless the length of pause time and the frequency of pauses are decreasing. Twelve university-level students (advanced learners of French as a second language) completed an oral narrative task before and after one year of study abroad. The results indicate that MLR in L2 (i.e., French) significantly increased after the study-abroad experience, while it still lagged behind that of L1 (i.e., English) production. It was also found that phonation time ratio increased, and average length of pause decreased over time, but that neither was significantly different from their counterparts in L1. The researchers construed this as evidence of proceduralization in formulator. This was supported by the qualitative analysis of the transcripts from two of the participants, indicating increased complexity in their production. Towell et al. concluded that MLR is the best indicator of formulator proceduralization.

In a different instructional context (Learning L2 Spanish in classroom), De Ridder et al. (2007) explored the differential gains in automaticity in two traditional communicative courses with a different task component. They specified six criteria for defining automaticity: pronunciation, fluency, lexicon, sociolinguistic elements, intonation, and morphosyntax. The participants were assigned to an experimental and control group. Both groups received the same presentations, explanations, and exercises. After that, the control group were asked to prepare 12 short presentations about Spanish business corporations and deliver them in front of an examiner

whereas the experimental group were coached through 10 training sessions to create in pairs an advertisement for a product. Assessment was based on the students' performance on the tasks. The results were mixed: the control group was better in phonological aspects of performance, the experimental group was better in lexical, sociolinguistic, and morphosyntactic elements, and both showed a similar level of fluency. This study, in contrast to Towell et al., did not include a pretest; therefore, it is not clear whether these findings are due to the practice phase and whether the type of practice differentially affected the performance.

Some studies have addressed the effect of deliberate practice on the proceduralization and automatization of L2 knowledge in a narrower sense. Learning was operationalized as reduction in reaction time and error rate and was displayed on a power law function. Drawing on the ACT model of skill acquisition, DeKeyser (1997) investigated the role of practice in the automatization of four morphosyntactic features (number of the noun, instrumentality of the verb, case marking on the noun, and gender marking on the verb) and 32 vocabulary items in an artificial language. After presenting the rules and vocabulary items over the first two sessions, the rules were practiced in a controlled manner using gap-fills followed by feedback (Sessions 3-6); the goal of this stage was to develop procedural knowledge of the rules. The participants were then assigned to one of three conditions and practiced the use of the rules for 15 sessions. One group carried out production practice on case and gender marking and comprehension practice on number and instrumentality, one carried out production practice on number and instrumentality and comprehension practice on case and gender, and one carried out both production and comprehension practice on all four structures. For comprehension, the participants were required to pick a picture from a set of four that corresponded to a given sentence. For production, they were asked to type a sentence or words that corresponded to a given picture. The results revealed that reaction time and error rate

continued to decrease as the amount of practice increased until they plateaued after a certain point. the findings confirmed that L2 learning, like other skills, develops following the same learning curve defined by a power function, which posits that there is a linear relation between the amount of practice and time needed to perform a task (Newwell & Rosenbloom, 1981).

Robinson (1997) set out to investigate the instance-based model of skill acquisition theory (Logan, 1992). In a study of the rule underlying dative alternation, stimulus sentences containing the target rule were presented to learners under four conditions: instructed, enhanced, incidental, and implicit. After each stimulus sentence was displayed for 10 seconds, there was a follow-up question that the participants could take as much time as they wished to answer. This was followed by a general comment indicating the correctness of the response. The questions were concerned with word order in the implicit condition, the meaning of each sentence in the incidental condition, the meaning of each sentence in the enhanced condition while a box was drawn around each verb stem, and the metalinguistic explanation of the rule in each sentence. Learning was measured using a grammaticality judgement test including new and practiced sentences. Overall, it was found that all four groups improved in fluency and accuracy on old sentences, but only the instructed group showed monolithic improvement of fluency (i.e., faster judgement) and accuracy on novel sentences. One of the findings that is in conflict with Logan's theory is that the participants did not respond faster to examples that had been seen more frequently, suggesting that they were not solely relying on memory retrieval. Therefore, it may be the case that learners prioritize rules over items during automatized performance (DeKeyser, 2001).

DeKeyser (1997) used an artificial language and Robinson (1997) used artificial verbs for a natural rule. More ecologically valid studies using natural languages and rules were conducted later. In a non-interventionist study of automatization, Rodgers (2011) compared three levels of

proficiency in terms of quantitative and qualitative changes in knowledge of verbal morphology in regular present tense indicative. University-level learners of L2 Italian were assigned to beginner, intermediate, and advanced levels based on the results of a proficiency test. They all performed a picture description task followed by a picture identification task. Quantitative change was measured in terms of reduction in reaction time and error rate while qualitative change was measured in terms of reduced CV and significant correlation between RT and CV (Segalowitz, 2003; Segalowitz & Segalowitz, 1993). Evidence was found in support of quantitative automatization in both production and comprehension with increasing proficiency; regarding the qualitative change, only comprehension was found to significantly improve with increasing proficiency. Rodgers concluded that automatization transpires in comprehension before production due to the inherent difficulty of the latter.

In a classroom study, Cornillie et al. (2017) examined the effects of extended web-based practice on the automatization of English quantifiers (simple construction) and English dative alternation (complex construction). The study involved two training sessions with web-based mini-games that elicited the learners' judgment of the grammaticality of a number of utterances provided for solving a mystery; learners received feedback on their grammaticality judgements. The practice sessions were preceded and followed by a series of meaning-focused reading comprehension and discussion activities. The participants were divided into two groups depending on the type of the corrective feedback they received. One group received feedback as "knowledge of results" (a green tick for correct or a red cross for incorrect responses), and the other received feedback in the form of metalinguistic explanation. Results revealed that the effect of deliberate practice follows a power law function: with more practice, learners became more accurate and faster in making grammaticality judgements on the two target features. This finding, however, should be considered

with caution as grammaticality judgments tests are not a robust measure of automaticity. In a pilot trial of this study, Cornillie et al. (2015) observed limited accuracy gains in an oral elicited imitation test following web-based practice. They argued that due to the relatively controlled nature of the web-based practice, learning could not transfer to the imitation test, which elicits more spontaneous production of the target structure.

The role of deliberate practice in the automatization of L2 morphology was further corroborated in a study of L2 Japanese morphology (Suzuki & DeKeyser, 2017). While the goal of the study was to compare the effect of massed (1-Day interval) versus distributed (7-Day) practice, both practice conditions showed evidence of improved accuracy and reaction time over time after two practice sessions (participants completed four tasks within 45-50 min each session); it was also found that massed practice was more effective at least in the development of fluency. The data from this study was later analyzed by Suzuki (2018) in light of the coefficient of variation (Segalowitz, 2003); he found some evidence for a qualitative change in L2 knowledge as a result of deliberate practice, especially in a less distributed practice condition (3.3-Day vs. 7-Day interval).

Transfer-Appropriateness and its Application to Grammar Practice

The Concept of Transfer-Appropriate Processing

A typical concern of educators is whether what is taught in class transfers to the real world. The goal of L2 pedagogy is to enable learners to successfully use language in real-world contexts. The discussion so far has focused on the importance of repetitive practice that serves to automatize declarative knowledge presented in the form of explicit grammar instruction. This is how fluent processing is developed. Yet studies in the audiolingual classroom (Lightbown, 1983) have shown that decontextualized drilling does not lead to the ability to communicate in the L2 fluently. The

quantitative dimension of practice is not sufficient to predict learning outcomes. What kind of practice – the qualitative aspect – must also be taken into consideration. What is required is contextualized tasks with a communicative intention, resembling the activities learners are likely to engage in outside the class (Gatbonton & Segalowitz, 1988; DeKeyser & Criado, 2013). The similarity between classroom and real-world activities relates to the concept of transfer-appropriate processing (TAP), another concept borrowed from cognitive psychology (Morrison et al., 1977). This concept is predicated on the assumption that when the cognitive processes involved in recalling an item bear resemblance to those of learning that item, the retrieval of that item during performance is more successful (Lightbown, 2008; Segalowitz & Lightbown, 1999). The lack of such a correspondence can explain why learners sometimes fail to transfer their acquired knowledge to new contexts. It should be noted here that transfer occurs if the similarity between the two contexts is beyond surface features, at the level of processing (Allen & Brooks, 1991; Anderson, 2009).

Transfer in skill acquisition theory, according to Singley and Anderson (1989), happens at the level of production rules, which are the building block of any skill. The extent to which the productions during training resemble those involved in retrieval determines the transferability of the productions, and the extent to which the productions are repeated during training determines the strength of the transfer (i.e., how far the productions transfer). The transfer of productions, however, does not signify that transferability is merely a feature of (automatized) procedural knowledge. Declarative knowledge is transferable, too, and has a wider transfer scope in the sense that it can transfer to new contexts and domains; in contrast, productions are highly contextualized and transfer only to similar contexts. DeKeyser (2018) explains this difference in terms of the structure of the two types of knowledge: the elements of declarative knowledge are separately

represented and can be accessed separately through different paths compared to procedural knowledge that entails chunks of integrated elements. This flexibility of the former raises its transferability to a variety of new contexts although it does not function as efficiently as procedural knowledge applied in a matching context (DeKeyser, 2007). This discussion indicates that declarative knowledge is indispensable in the process of proceduralization and automatization.

An optimal L2 practice condition, capable of producing transferable knowledge, entails grammar instruction and a range of form- and meaning-focused practice activities with increasing difficulty. This is not confined to a purely form-focused pedagogy infected with mechanical drills, nor does it leave learners to their own device to practice and probably learn in an uncontrolled situation as is the case in a purely meaning-focused context; the optimal conditions provide alternate opportunities for practicing meaning, form, and form-meaning mappings in various situations (Lightbown, 2008). It also caters to declarative as well as procedural knowledge and increasingly challenges learners' cognitive ability. Regarding the significance of declarative knowledge, Lightbown (2019) has underlined the importance in learning of providing new or reviving already existing declarative knowledge before practice. It raises learners' awareness of language structures in the process of making meaning and serves as a hook that they can grip onto during the exchange of meaning. Regarding the cognitive complexity of practice activities, an increasing demand on making form-meaning connections is more likely to simulate the demands of real-life situations (DeKeyser, 2017) and, in turn, enhance the transferability of practice effects. As Suzuki et al. (2019b) have noted, "Gradually increasing the practice difficulty to match learners' skill levels helps induce the appropriate level of difficulty throughout training and facilitates learning" (p. 715).

Levels of Transfer

Transfer as a concept in SLA research is usually associated with cross-linguistic influence that either impedes or facilitates L2 learning. However, transfer of learning (James, 2018) can be considered at different levels: from one skill to another (e.g, speaking to reading), known as skill specificity (DeKeyser, 1997, 2007); from one teaching context to another (James, 2006); from one task to similar and different tasks (DeKeyser, 2018). The following section reviews SLA research addressing each type of transfer.

Transfer across Skills

The hypothesis for skill specificity is that the effect of output- and input-based practice is confined to production and comprehension tasks, respectively; there is ample evidence in cognitive psychology for this (Anderson et al., 1997; McKendree & Anderson, 1987; Müller, 1999). In SLA, however, it is not uncontroversial. Advocates of input-based instruction, notably processing instruction, contend that production practice only bolsters up the quality (i.e., fluency and accuracy) of L2 performance that derives from the internal linguistic system built up via input-based activities (Benati, 2005; Comer & deBenedette, 2011; VanPatten, 2002; VanPatten & Uludag, 2011). From this viewpoint, input-based practice improves performance on both comprehension and production tasks while output practice, typically in the form of traditional exercises, affects only production (cf. Russell, 2012). On the other hand, some researchers have found evidence in support of skill specificity (DeKeyser, 1997; DeKeyser & Sokalski, 1996; De Jong, 2005; Li & DeKeyser, 2017; Rodgers, 2011; Suzuki & Sunada, 2020). For instance, DeKeyser (1997) explored the transfer of knowledge of four morphosyntactic structures in an artificial language practiced either receptively or productively. Comprehension practice involved picking a picture from a set of four that corresponded to a given sentence and for production

practice the participants were asked to type a sentence or words that corresponded to a given picture. Results indicated that learning was skill-specific in that production and comprehension practice had a positive effect only on production and comprehension tests, respectively.

Further supportive evidence comes from De Jong (2005) that addressed skill specificity issue in learning a rule for noun-adjective agreement in a miniature language based on Spanish. It was found that native speakers of Dutch engaged in comprehension practice were faster in sentence processing but less accurate in production compared to a control group that had only received metalinguistic information. Another group that had received both comprehension and production training were significantly more accurate in production than the comprehension training group but responded more slowly in the comprehension tests. Accordingly, De Jong concluded that skill specificity is not an "all-or-nothing matter" (p. 228). There can be some progress in the untrained direction as was the case in this study; the knowledge gained through receptive practice was used in comprehension and to a lesser extent in production.

More recently, Li and DeKeyser (2017) examined the skill specificity issue with respect to the production and perception of Mandarin tone words by native speakers of English. Reduction in error rate and reaction time was observed in the performance of the perception and production tests only in the practiced direction. This suggests that the effect of practice is transferable only to situations that involve similar processes as practice does.

Transfer across Contexts

This kind of transfer occurs from one teaching context or course to another. James (2006), for instance, found limited positive transfer from an EAP course to the other courses that five university students were enrolled in; transfer happened for certain skills and was mediated by a number of factors, such as the similarity between the activities and content of the EAP and other

courses. In a review of 41 studies exploring transfer in EAP context, James (2014) concluded that positive transfer of content across different courses is possible under certain circumstances (e.g., the similarity of the contexts). Learning can also transfer from a course to a new task. James (2009) found limited evidence that transfer from an ESL writing course to a writing task typical of academic courses was confounded by the similarity of the outcomes of the former and requirements of the latter.

Transfer across Tasks

This form of transfer directly relates to the principle of TAP. What is relevant here is the concept of transfer distance. The question is how far learning from a task or series of tasks can transfer to similar (near transfer) and different (far transfer) tasks (James, 2009; Poehner & Lantolf, 2010; Singley & Anderson, 1989). Near transfer transpires when the retrieval task taps into the same or similar skills and strategies as the practice task(s) whereas far transfer happens in a dissimilar retrieval context with the similar or even different skills and knowledge developed during practice (Perkins & Solomon, 1992). There is strong support in cognitive psychology for near transfer effect, but the evidence for far transfer is not conclusive. In a meta-analysis of transfer effects of computer programing, Scherer et al. (2020) found strong near transfer and moderate far transfer effects. This contrasts with Sala and Gobet's (2017) meta-analyses in which high near transfer but low far transfer effects were found for chess, music, and working memory training.

In SLA domain, this is an under-researched area. DeKeyser (2018) has discussed transfer distance in light of skill acquisition theory. He argues that near transfer occurs via procedural knowledge directly transferring to "very similar tasks in very similar contexts" (p. 34). Procedural knowledge also transfers indirectly, via declarative knowledge, to tasks that elicit the same syntactic constructions in different contexts; DeKeyser refers to this as far transfer. In the latter

case, similarity is at an abstract level while in the former, similarity is more tangible. This distinction determines the focus of instruction depending on whether the goal is near or far transfer. For near, instruction should be aimed at practicing the behaviour, but for far the focus should be on the declarative knowledge underlying the behaviour.

Transfer effect has been addressed in different dimensions of L2 learning. Transfer effect has been observed in studies of phonological features (Okuno & Hardison, 2016; Saito, 2013). For example, Okuno and Hardison (2016) found the positive transfer of perception training for vowel duration in L2 Japanese to old and new perception stimuli, and Saito (2013) found a positive transfer to both familiar and unfamiliar lexical items in controlled and spontaneous production tasks as a result of corrective feedback during communication and explicit instruction for pronouncing L2 English / ɹ /. There is also evidence for transfer in L2 vocabulary learning (Barcroft, 2002; Shintani & Ellis, 2014). Barcroft (2002) set out to directly test the prediction of TAP in the learning of English and Spanish lexical items by native speakers of English. He found that, given the limited processing capacity of L2 learners, instruction that required attention to the meaning of lexical items hindered recall of the formal properties of those items because the processes involved in practice were different from those involved in assessment. This is in line with information processing theory that claims human mind has a limited capacity that prevents it from attending to form and meaning simultaneously.

In the context of L2 grammar, the only study that has directly tested TAP was conducted by Spada et al. (2014). Investigating transfer of learning relative to the timing of form-focused instruction (Integrated vs. Isolated), they compared the effect of focusing on English passive structures during and before communicative content-based tasks on an oral production task and an error correction test. They found that attention to the target feature during communication

positively affected oral production, which requires attention to form under time pressure, while attention to form before communication appeared to facilitate error correction, which requires analysis of the target feature knowledge. This finding lends support to TAP as the processing of information in integrated and isolated modes is similar to the processing demands of the oral production and error correction tests, respectively. This study, however, was focused on the timing of providing practice opportunities rather than the type of practice although it varied between the groups (transformation and gap-fills for the isolated and brief explanations and corrective feedback for the integrated).

Deliberate Grammar Practice and TBLT

Given the arguments in support of the role of consistent deliberate practice in L2 learning, it seems appropriate for teachers to add a variety of form-focused practice activities, from controlled to free production, to their pedagogical toolbox and use them at different stages of teaching and learning. This claim, however, is not uncontroversial, especially for some proponents of TBLT. Long (2015) defined 'genuine' TBLT as "an approach to course design, implementation, and evaluation intended to meet the communicative [rather than linguistic] needs of diverse groups of learners" (p. 5). It is composed of tasks that encourage learners to use their linguistic resources to complete a meaningful transaction with a view to achieving a nonlinguistic goal. Following the assumption that the path for language acquisition cannot be determined a priori, TBLT is guided by tasks rather than a synthetic syllabus, which views language as a set of discrete items learned one at a time (Wilkins, 1976). The optimal strategy in TBLT for attending to formal features is focus on form as a brief and unobtrusive response to the grammatical problems arising during communication (Long, 1991, 1996; Long & Robinson, 1998). This version of TBLT is associated with the weak interface position since form-focused intervention is intended to trigger noticing the

gap with respect to the linguistic problems that arise from learners' built-in rather than a predetermined syllabus.

Michael Long persistently contended that deliberate practice and, in turn, skill acquisition theory are not compatible with this strong conception of TBLT (e.g., Long, 2015, 2016). He argued that authentic tasks cannot be controlled by prespecified features and the only way to reconcile TBLT and skill acquisition theory is to investigate the effect of task repetition on task performance rather than a pre-selected target structure. Conversely, several researchers have advocated the possibility of integrating deliberate practice and TBLT in light of a skill-building theory (Criado, 2016; DeKeyser, 2018; Ellis, 2003, 2009b; Suzuki et al., 2019a). For instance, DeKeyser (2007, 2015) argued that tasks that follow the TAP principle can "lead to proceduralization and potentially some degree of automatization" (p. 102). Depending on the stage of skill development, such a task can be focused, eliciting specific target features, or unfocused in the form of open-ended communicative activities (Lyster & Sato, 2013).

One approach to integrating deliberate practice into TBLT is based on the use of focused tasks, eliciting specific target features, to provide opportunities for the communicative practice of certain grammatical structures before task transaction (Ellis, 2003; Estaire & Zanon, 1994; Nunan, 2004). The goal of the pretask stage is to enable learners to accurately use the targeted features while performing the main task fluently.

Only recently, some researchers have set out to examine the effect of pretask instruction on the development of declarative and automatized knowledge. Li et al. (2016), for example, examined the effect of pretask instruction on the acquisition of English past passive by middle-school learners of L2 English. The participants were assigned to one of the four conditions of task performance: (1) only doing two dictogloss tasks, (2) doing the dictogloss tasks while receiving

feedback on the errors of the target feature, (3) receiving explicit instruction prior to doing the dictogloss tasks, and (4) receiving explicit instruction before and feedback during performing the dictogloss tasks. Instruction for all four groups lasted for 2 hours. Measuring acquisition using a grammaticality judgement test (a measure of explicit knowledge) and an oral elicited imitation test (a measure of automated knowledge), Li et al. found that pretask training and/or feedback led to the development of explicit knowledge with the combination of instruction and feedback having the strongest effect whereas none of the practice conditions had any effect on the development of automated knowledge. However, when learners who possessed some knowledge of the target feature were separated from those with zero knowledge, pretask instruction along with feedback revealed some effect on automated knowledge. This finding is in accord with both strong and weak interface hypotheses that posit that declarative/explicit knowledge may affect the development of procedural/implicit knowledge. Overall, the combination of pretask instruction and task performance was found to be more effective than solely transacting the dictogloss tasks. In a follow-up study, Li et al. (2018) compared a group receiving explicit grammar instruction before the dictogloss tasks and a group performing only the dictogloss tasks with a control group, which did not receive any instruction, nor did it engage in the dictogloss tasks. Comparable results were obtained: the group with a brief grammar lesson prior to completing the tasks outperformed the other two only on the test of explicit knowledge.

Drawing on the dataset used in Li et al. (2016), Ellis et al. (2019) sought to explore the effect of pretask instruction on the target and global performance of the dictogloss task. Comparison of the group receiving explicit instruction prior to task performance with a Task-only group that merely conducted the dictogloss task revealed that the former condition had a negative effect on the global complexity, accuracy, and fluency of task performance. The only advantage of pretask

instruction was in the more frequent use of the past passive. Ellis et al. argued that explicit instruction focuses learners' attention on the production of the target feature so that they do not have enough processing capacity for attending to the global aspect of task performance. In light of the observed trade-off effect, Ellis et al. suggest that attention to form should be postponed to the post-task phase, when the task is completed. Van de Guchte et al. (2017) observed a similar trade-off effect in their study of dative case of articles in L2 German. Learners watched two videos in which two students were describing their school cafeteria. During the pretask stage, one group was instructed to take notes of the sentences containing the target feature while the other was instructed to focus on the persuasiveness of the videos. The comparison of performance on a similar task requiring the participants to describe a school cafeteria revealed that those in the form-oriented condition were more accurate in the use of the target structure but less complex in the overall performance than those in the content-focused group. They did not analyze task performance in terms of global fluency and accuracy.

This trade-off effect, however, was not observed in a study of Japanese learners of L2 English. Mochizuki and Ortega (2008) examined the effect of pretask instruction on the accuracy of relative clause use and global complexity and fluency in an oral narrative task. Pretask instruction was in the form of a handout explaining how relative clauses can be used, and the participants were asked to use it during the planning time. The participants were Japanese high school students who had prior familiarity with the target feature from the previous years. It was found that that the group using the handout during the planning time used relative clauses (i.e., target use) more frequently and was significantly more accurate (i.e., correct target use) than a group that only had planning time and a control group, which had neither. On the other hand, the groups did not differ in global complexity and fluency. The group without pretask instruction was

more fluent than the other two groups although not significantly. The findings on the general measures of performance can be related to the low proficiency of the participants. The discrepancy between these findings and those of Ellis et al. (2019) and Van de Guchte et al. (2017) can be accounted for by the fact that the participants in Mochizuki and Ortega were already familiar with the target feature at a declarative level. This probably served as an anchor for the learners to latch onto during task performance.

In all of these studies, explicit instruction was brief [e.g., 10 min in Li et al. (2016) and 20 min in Van de Guchte et al. (2017)] and did not include systematic deliberate practice of the target feature, an element that is necessary for the development of procedural and automatized knowledge as well as declarative knowledge (DeKeyser, 2007), prior to task performance. The automatization of grammatical features will release attentional capacity for attending to other aspects of performance, including complexity, accuracy, and fluency, during task transaction (DeKeyser, 2017; Lyster & Sato, 2013; Segalowitz & Segalowitz, 1993). From a pedagogical perspective, pretask practice activities serve as enabling activities that predispose learners towards the use of the target structure(s) in the main task (Collins & White, 2014; Estaire & Zanon, 1994; Nunan, 2004) provided that they stimulate the cognitive processes similar to the ones in real-world tasks (i.e., they are transfer appropriate).

The concern for the deflection of attention away from meaning during task transaction as a result of pretask instruction has led to another configuration of how grammar practice can be incorporated into TBLT. In this model, grammar practice is planned to occur after the completion of the main task (Klapper, 2003). Task is still the key component, but it is manipulated to trigger the repeated use of the target structure(s). This model, too, is compatible with skill acquisition theory. While knowledge in the 'pretask-to-task' sequence develops from declarative to

procedural/automatized, the reverse direction happens in the 'task-to-posttask' sequence in which (automatized) procedural knowledge is expected to develop through focused tasks and the underlying declarative knowledge is brought to surface and analyzed in the posttask phase via instruction and controlled practice (Johnson, 1996). Although Long (2016) saw this latter model as distinct from a genuine TBLT, he acknowledged that Klapper "reinstates declarative knowledge and practice at the appropriate point in the task cycle" (p. 40).

The use of transfer-appropriate grammar practice in the pretask phase is a useful option for instructors who are required to follow TBLT in their teaching (e.g., CLB teachers) but have misgivings about the integration of grammar practice into a task-based approach. If learners are asked to present an account of an accident that they witnessed previously as the main task, having them describe orally a sequence of pictures that show a person's last summer vacation prior to the main task is more transfer appropriate than giving them a gapped written passage to fill in with the past form of the missing verbs. The former involves the reproduction of the behaviour that is needed for completing the final task. In other words, the cognitive processes required for the completion of this activity are likely more transferable because of their similarity to the those of a real-world task requiring the learners to orally report an accident they had witnessed.

Measuring Transfer Effects from Practice

Sustained transfer-appropriate practice is expected to result in the automatization of L2 knowledge. The measurement of automatized knowledge is a complex task because the concept involves different features, including processing speed, error rate, interference from other processes, and pressure on cognitive capacity (Segalowitz, 2010). While some researchers have used free oral production tasks (De Jong & Perfetti, 2011; Rodgers, 2011; Towell et al., 1996) for measuring the product of automatization, others have employed more controlled production tasks,

such as sentence construction tests (DeKeyser, 1997; Suzuki & DeKeyser, 2017). The latter were used in studies of automatization at a narrow level, targeting specific morphosyntactic structures.

A potential instrument that can tap into the features of automatized knowledge of specific structures is elicited imitation (EI) test. In an EI test, learners are required to listen to a statement and repeat it as exactly as possible. Its underlying assumption is that the accurate imitation of target language structures under time pressure and when the focus is on meaning is reflective of the internalization of that feature in interlanguage (Erlam, 2006; Wu & Ortega, 2013). This test is originally intended for measuring implicit knowledge, which is supposed to be retrieved without awareness (Ellis, 2005; Hulstijn & De Graaff, 1994) rather than automatized knowledge, which can be accessed with or without awareness (DeKeyser, 2009). However, Suzuki and DeKeyser (2015) have more recently found that the repetition of stimuli in an EI test may occur with an awareness of the target feature. This was indicated by a significant correlation of the test with a metalinguistic knowledge test and learners' self-report data. This led Suzuki and DeKeyser to conclude that an imitation test may be better labelled as a measure of automatized explicit rather than implicit knowledge. The acceptance of this claim requires validation attempts in different contexts with different target structures and implementation features. Compared to oral narrative tasks, EI tests can be more easily scored and analyzed. Further validation studies of this instrument with a view to examining the presence of awareness during performance can pave the way for the entrance of EI tests into L2 classrooms for measuring learners' automatized knowledge.

Conclusion

Research into L2 practice has been substantially influenced by theory and research from cognitive psychology. Researchers are now interested in the interplay of different variables in determining the efficacy and transferability of deliberate practice. Among these factors are, for

example, the distribution of practice (Suzuki & DeKeyser, 2017), schedule of practice (Nakata & Suzuki, 2019), and individual differences (Yilmaz & Granena, 2019). The aim of this paper, however, was not to review each of these research strands but to dissect the concept of deliberate practice, which is at the heart of any investigation taking these variables into account.

A new conceptualization of deliberate practice in L2 learning indicates that optimal practice triggers frequent processing of form-meaning connection under conditions that resemble those of the real-world communication (DeKeyser, 2007). The outcome in L2 speaking is rapid, smooth, accurate, and stable oral production ability that transfers to different contexts. This view of practice is theoretically germane to the route of skill development proposed in skill acquisition theory. Research addressing the role of repeated deliberate practice in the automatization of L2 grammar knowledge and global L2 performance is scarce but supportive of the claim that L2 knowledge can develop like other cognitive and even motor skills.

It was also argued that the incorporation of grammar instruction and practice into TBLT at the pretask stage is compatible with skill acquisition theory by providing affordances for developing declarative, procedural, and automatized knowledge. This model of integration also entails the essential components of L2 pedagogy identified by Nation (2007): meaningful input, meaningful output, language instruction, and fluency development. Teachers need concrete examples including instruction and a sequence of increasingly more complex practice activities aimed at fostering skilled performance using L2 knowledge. Only then can they practically test the hypotheses that have already been investigated by researchers. My final remark is a famous saying slightly altered: Deliberate practice of the right type implemented at the right time makes perfect.

Chapter 3 : Study 1

The Effect of Pretask Practice on Accuracy and Fluency: Applying the Concept of Transfer-Appropriateness to L2 Grammar

This chapter presents the results from an empirical investigation in which the skill acquisition theory and the concept of transfer-appropriateness, concepts reviewed in chapter 2, were applied to the design of grammar practice activities. The aim of transfer-appropriate practice is to promote both fluency and accuracy. The experiment reported here compared the effect of transfer-appropriate practice to traditional grammar practice activities focused on the use of the past tense during task performance.

Introduction

The idea of integrating grammar instruction into task-based language teaching at the pretask stage is a contentious issue leading to opposing views. For example, Long (2016) argued that authentic tasks cannot be controlled by prespecified grammatical features since learners' route of acquisition cannot be determined a priori. Conversely, several researchers have advocated the possibility of integration at the pretask stage in light of a skill-building theory of learning (Criado, 2016; DeKeyser, 2018; Suzuki et al., 2019). A teaching model consistent with this latter view is task-supported language teaching in which focused tasks are used to provide opportunities for the communicative practice of the structure(s) already presented and practiced before task transaction (Ellis, 2003). The goal of the pretask stage in this model is to prepare learners for the transaction of the main task; although a specific feature is preselected for practice, the primary focus during task performance is expected to be on meaning.

Now the question is what conditions need to exist for the pretask stage not to detract the learners' attention from meaning during task performance and at the same time to promote both

fluency and accuracy during task performance. With the optimal condition, oral fluency is expected not to deteriorate at the expense of increased accuracy in the target structure(s). The aim of the present study was to compare the effects of two pretask conditions on the performance of a focused task. Specifically, the study investigated the differential impacts of grammar explanation coupled with communicative grammar activities versus written grammar exercises at the pretask stage on the global and specific measures of task performance.

Background

Options for Pretask Planning

Given second language (L2) learners' limited processing capacity, it is hypothesized that there is a competition for attentional resources between the meaning-oriented (i.e., fluency) and formal (i.e., accuracy and complexity) aspects of task performance; therefore, allocating attention to one may affect the other(s). This is known as the trade-off hypothesis (Skehan, 1998), which has led to a large body of research on how pretask planning can affect oral production. Planning in the pretask phase can be in the form of task repetition by having learners perform the main task or a similar task in the pretask stage to prepare for the main performance. It can also be in the form of guided or unguided planning time (Ellis, 2005), with the former including pretask instruction or some information for the learners on what to do during the planning time.

Repetition and Task Performance

Studies of the effect of task repetition on performance were initially focused on the effect of the repetition of the same task on the complexity, accuracy, and fluency of the second performance and later expanded to investigate the effect of task type repetition on the performance of a new task. This body of research has yielded mixed results regarding the effect of task and task type repetition on the global and specific measures of performance (Ahmadian, 2011; Ahmadian &

Tavakoli, 2011; Bygate, 1996, 2001; Fukuta, 2016; Kim & Tracy-Ventura, 2013; Patanasorn, 2010). Fukuta (2016), for example, found evidence of increased accuracy at the expense of fluency and complexity. Conversely, Ahmadian and Tavakoli (2011) found that task repetition had a positive impact only on the complexity and fluency of the second performance. Comparing the effects of task and task type repetition on the performance of a new task, Kim and Tracy-Ventura (2013) found that task type repetition was more effective than task repetition only in the development of syntactic complexity. Regarding the accuracy of the simple past tense, which was an essential structure for the completion of the task, both repetition conditions were effective, but neither had a significant impact on fluency.

More recently, some researchers have explored the effect of task repetition from a skill acquisition perspective. De Jong and Perfetti (2011) investigated the effect of task repetition on the development of fluency. Learners of L2 English completed three training sessions under two different conditions. In the repetition group, each learner talked about a given topic three times under increasing time pressure (4 min, 3 min, and 2 min); there was a different topic for each session. The learners in the non-repetition group, on the other hand, talked about three different topics in each session under increasing time pressure. Both repetition groups improved their fluency in new tasks from the pretest to the immediate and delayed posttests with fluency measured as mean length of runs and pauses and phonation-time ratio. The authors interpreted their findings as evidence of the development of proceduralized knowledge that transfers to new contexts. In another study, De Jong and Tillman (2018) set out to investigate the effect of the re-use of lexical items and grammatical constructions during training on the development of fluency. They compared three iterations of the same task and three iterations of the same type of task with and without increasing time pressure. The results revealed a high re-use rate in both repetition

conditions, with higher re-use similarity in the former. Further, the correlation between re-use and fluency varied depending on the topic of the iterations. The findings of these two studies suggest, from a cognitive perspective, that repetition can release attentional capacity, in turn, leading to more efficient oral performance.

Planning Time and Task Performance

Besides repetition, there is now ample evidence that planning time has a positive impact on the quality of task performance and possibly L2 development (Crookes, 1989; Ellis, 1987; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Kawauchi, 2005; Kim, 2013; Mehnert, 1998; Park, 2010; Qin, 2019; Sangarun, 2005; Skehan & Foster, 1999). With the global aspects of task performance, there are conflicting results due probably to the different conceptualizations of planning time, learners' proficiency level, task design, and task complexity to name but a few. One of the first studies of planning time was conducted by Crookes (1989) who explored the effects of planning time on the accuracy and complexity of performance on two versions of a monologic map task. It was found that the planning group significantly outperformed the non-planning group in terms of complexity, but not accuracy.

Later studies looked at the differential effects of planning time conditions, specifically guided versus unguided, on the global and specific measures of task performance. Foster and Skehan (1996), for example, found that the planners who had received detailed information about how to plan outperformed those who were merely provided with the planning time without guidance in complexity but not accuracy. Comparing different conditions of guided planning time, Sangarun (2005) found that orienting learners towards meaning, form, or both during planning time improves complexity, fluency, and accuracy. Similarly, in Kawauchi (2005), different guided planning strategies led to improved complexity, fluency, and accuracy across different proficiency

levels, with planning especially benefiting fluency and complexity for high proficiency learners and accuracy for low proficiency learners.

Some studies have looked at the effect of guided planning time on attending to and the development of specific L2 features. Park (2010) set out to explore the differential effect of pretask instruction and planning time and found that only the former had some effect on attention to lexical features. Kim (2013) investigated the effect of pre-task modeling on attention to question forms and question development. Her results indicated that watching a 2-m video modeling a task before planning led to more focus on form episodes and question development than planning alone. In a study of the acquisition of English third-person pronouns by intermediate Chinese learners, Qin (2019) did not find any significant difference after the transaction of 12 picture-cued narrative tasks under a non-planning, unguided planning, and guided planning condition. While all three groups received explicit explanation of the target feature before the first task, the guided group further engaged in a controlled input-based activity and received feedback following that.

Pretask Explicit Instruction and Task Performance

Given the aim of the present study, a search was conducted for studies that investigated the effect of explicit instruction, defined as the explanation of grammar rules rather than as guidance on how to perform a task, in the pretask phase on both the general and specific measures of task performance. Three studies that are relatively close to the present study in terms of objectives were identified.

Ellis et al. (2019) sought to explore the effect of pretask explicit instruction on the quality of performing two dictogloss tasks and the target-like use of English past passive during task performance by Chinese learners of English as a foreign language. In one of the experimental groups, the learners only performed the tasks whereas in the other they received 10 minutes of

explicit instruction involving a brief consciousness-raising activity, rule explanation, and a grammaticality judgment activity. Comparison of the groups revealed that the provision of explicit instruction had a negative impact on the global complexity, accuracy, and fluency of task performance. The only advantage of pretask explicit instruction was in the more frequent use of the past passive while there was no significant difference between the groups in terms the accuracy of the target feature. Ellis et al. argued that explicit instruction focused the learners' attention on the production of the target feature so that they did not have enough processing capacity for attending to the global aspects of task performance.

Van de Guchte et al. (2017) observed a similar trade-off effect in their study of dative case of articles in L2 German. Learners watched two videos in which two students were describing their school cafeteria. During the pretask stage, one group was instructed to take notes of the sentences containing the target feature while the other was instructed to focus on the persuasiveness of the videos. The comparison of performance on a similar task requiring the participants to describe a school cafeteria revealed that those in the form-oriented condition were more accurate in the use of the target structure but less complex in the overall performance than those in the content-focused group. They did not analyze task performance in terms of fluency and accuracy.

This trade-off effect, however, was not observed in a study of Japanese learners of L2 English. Mochizuki and Ortega (2008) examined the effect of pretask explicit instruction on the accuracy of relative clause use and global complexity and fluency in an oral narrative task. The participants in a guided planning condition, compared to those in an unguided planning and a control group, were given a handout explaining the target structure rule and were prompted to use it during task performance. Results revealed that pretask instruction led to more frequent and accurate use of relative clauses while the groups did not differ in global complexity and fluency.

The discrepancy in the findings of these studies can be explained by considering several factors including the different operationalizations of pretask instruction or the participants' initial knowledge of the target features. For instance, in Mochizuki and Ortega (2008) the participants were already familiar with the target feature at a declarative level, which probably served as an anchor for the learners to latch onto during task performance. These divergent results warrant further investigation of the influence of pretask explicit instruction. In the studies reviewed above, moreover, explicit instruction was brief, and none included systematic rehearsal of the target feature, an element that is necessary for developing the skill of using L2 knowledge rapidly and correctly. DeKeyser (2007) defined practice as "specific activities in the second language, engaged in systematically, deliberately, with the goal of developing knowledge of and skills in the second language" (p. 1). The efficacy of practice in this sense depends on the similarity of the cognitive processes involved in classroom practice activities and those of the real-world situations (Lightbown, 2008; Segalowitz & Lightbown, 1999); this is known as transfer-appropriate processing (TAP).

Apart from the cognitive aspect of designing practice activities, learners' feelings and beliefs about different types of practice may play an important role in the process of learning since their perceptions can affect their engagement with activities (Storch & Sato, 2020). In a survey of university-level Chinese students majoring in English, Rao (2002) investigated their perceptions of exclusively meaning-focused communicative activities compared to noncommunicative drills and written exercises. While most of the participants indicated that they preferred a hybrid approach consisting of both communicative and noncommunicative activities, the results revealed a stronger preference for form-focused drills and exercises. Some studies, in contrast, found that learners of L2 English favored communicative classrooms/activities (Littlewood, 2010; Loewen

et al., 2009). Littlewood found that learners from four Asian countries preferred communicative to form-focused lessons, and Loewen et al. found that ESL learners at an American university expressed a higher preference for fluency- over accuracy-focused activities. In these studies, noncommunicative referred to purely form-focused activities. Therefore, a relevant question is how learners would react to communicative grammar activities vis-à-vis exclusively form-focused activities.

The present study was intended to be a proof of the concept of TAP in designing L2 grammar practice activities. Accordingly, two sets of activities (described in detail in the Method section), transfer-appropriate practice (TAPRA) activities and written grammar exercises, were designed with a view to examining their differential impact on the quality of performing a focused communicative task. It was hypothesized that the TAPRA activities were more effective in promoting the target-like use of the target feature and releasing more attentional capacity for attending to the general aspects of oral production. In addition, this study aims to compare the learners' preference for the TAPRA activities and written grammar exercises. The study is guided by the following questions:

1. Do TAPRA activities and written grammar exercises in the pretask phase have a differential effect on the accurate use of the target structure during oral production?
2. Do TAPRA activities and written grammar exercises in the pretask phase have a differential effect on the complexity, accuracy, and fluency of oral production?
3. What is the learners' perception of the pretask activities and the main task?

Method

In this study, the design and sequence of pretask activities followed by a focused task were based on Nunan's (2004) pedagogic model of integrating grammar instruction and task-based

teaching. In his model, what is called *enabling activities* are placed before the main task to predispose learners towards the use of the target structure(s) during task performance. These activities, unlike tasks, may pursue a linguistic outcome and can be in the form of controlled grammar exercises or communicative activities (Estaire & Zanon, 1994). The communicative activities, however, resemble tasks in that they involve some meaningful communication.

Target Structure

The target feature for this study is the simple past tense that consists of regular, irregular, and copula verb forms. Regular past verbs are made by adding –ed or –d to the stem of the verb (e.g., played, watched, included). Depending on the final phoneme of the base verb, the past morpheme may sound like /d/, /t/, or /Id/. In irregular past verbs, on the other hand, the stem may change internally (e.g., Bring ---- Brought, Keep ---- Kept) or remain unchanged (e.g., Cut ---- Cut). The copula (i.e., the verb 'to be') is unique in having two completely different past tense forms: *was* for the first and third person singular and *were* for the second person and plural. The simple past tense pertains to the notions of completeness and remoteness in time and is used to talk about actions or events that happened once or more or states that existed in the past (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999).

One reason for choosing the past tense for this study is its problematic nature for learners of L2 English. Despite its early introduction and development at a declarative level, full control over this tense in a way that it can be used accurately and fluently in oral production is achieved late, typically at advanced levels (Kim, 2012; Yang & Lyster, 2010). This is accounted for by the redundancy of past morphology as the notion of ‘pastness’ is typically expressed via time adverbials, which learners prioritize over the morphological element (Ellis, 2007). Moreover, since this study is aimed at exploring the use of the target feature in a communicative context, the past

tense as a feature that is easy to elicit by communication tasks seems to be an appropriate choice (Kartchava & Ammar, 2014).

Participants

The study was advertised via short presentations by the researcher and his assistant in EAP classes at a Canadian university. The classes that were visited followed the same syllabus and learning outcomes, preparing international students for starting their undergraduate programs. Those who expressed interest were provided with a background questionnaire about their first language, IELTS score before entering the EAP program, age of arrival in Canada, length of stay in Canada and other English-speaking countries by the time of the study, and their second language learning experience inside and outside of their home country (Appendix 3.1); this questionnaire was designed based on Freed et al.'s (2004) *Language Contact profile* and the *Language Activity Log* used in Ranta & Meckelborg (2013).

The inclusion criteria were as follows: Mandarin as the first language and the IELTS overall score of 5 to 6. The 22 volunteers who met these criteria were pretested via an oral elicited imitation and a written error correction test; only those who obtained less than 60% on the imitation test and more than 60% on the error correction test were retained for the treatment phase. The rationale for this cut-off point was to ensure that the participants were developmentally ready for the acquisition of the targeted form at the outset of the study without reaching a ceiling effect. This led to a sample of 20 participants who were randomly assigned to one of the two experimental conditions described later. At the time of the study, the participants' mean age was 19.15 years old (ranging from 18 to 21), and their mean age of arrival and length of stay in Canada was 18.8 years (ranging from 17 to 21) and 5.85 months (ranging from 2 to 21), respectively; none had resided in any other English-speaking country at all before arriving in Canada. This study was approved by the

Research Ethics Board at the University of Alberta, and written informed consent was obtained from the participants prior to the study.

Instruments

In this section, a detailed description is provided of the assessment tools used before and after the treatment, the instructional activities used during the treatment phase, and the exit questionnaire used at the end of the study.

Pre-Treatment Tests

An oral elicited imitation and a written error correction test were used to check the participants' (automatized) procedural knowledge and declarative knowledge, respectively, of the target feature at the beginning of the study (Appendix 3.2).

Elicited Imitation (EI) Test

The EI test included 34 truth value statements about different topics such as history, sports, and famous people in the world. There were 24 items targeting the past tense and 10 distracters targeting five other structures. The target items were randomly sequenced, with one distracter after every two or three target items. Half of the items were grammatical, and the other half were ungrammatical; the target items had been checked by a native speaker of Canadian English to make sure that the ungrammatical ones did not contain any other error than the past tense and the grammatical ones did not contain any errors. The number of syllables in the items ranged from 10 to 20, with the mean syllable of 15. The lexical complexity of the target items was controlled by choosing all the verbs from the first 1000 most common words in the *New General Service list* (New GSL) and all the other words from the entire list that contains approximately 2800 words (Browne et al., 2013).

The test was administered on a computer using DMDX software. The participants first read the on-screen instructions, which were then explained to them to ensure comprehension. They also conducted two practice items, one grammatical and one ungrammatical that targeted other structures than the simple past tense and received feedback on their performance of the items. After hearing each statement, they had five seconds to choose *True*, *False*, or *Not Sure*, by selecting a specific button on the keyboard, to indicate their judgement of the truth value of the sentence; this was done to preclude the possibility of rehearsal. Next, they heard a short beep sound (300 ms) after which they were given 10 seconds to repeat the sentence. The participants were instructed to repeat the statements in *correct* English. The end of the repetition time was indicated by asking them to press the spacebar to go to the next item.

The accuracy of the past verbs in the target items was scored based on three levels: (a) if obligatory context was created and the correct form of the target verb was provided, 2 points were awarded, (b) if obligatory context was created and the correct form of a verb other than the target verb was provided, 1 point was awarded, and (c) if obligatory context was created but the correct form of the target verb was not provided (e.g., Hitler visit China and Japan twice before World War I) or if obligatory context was not created because the statement was not (fully) recalled, no point was awarded. The missing data included unintelligible repetition of the target verb and the sentences partly repeated before the beep sound including the verb.

Written Error Correction Test (WECT)

This test included 18 statements, each containing an error of past tense; these items were checked by a native a speaker of Canadian English to ensure that they did not include any other error than the faulty past verbs. All the verbs were chosen from the first 1000 most common words in the New GSL, and the other words were from the entire list. The test also contained six distracter

sentences targeting three other structures; there were two distracters, one grammatical and one ungrammatical, for each structure. All 24 statements were randomly sequenced.

The participants were first asked to decide if each statement was correct or not. If it was correct, they were supposed to put 'C' next to it. If it was incorrect, they were required to underline the error and provide the correct form; there was no time limit for doing this test. For scoring this test, 1 point was awarded for the identification of the target error and 1 point was awarded for the provision of the correct form.

Practice Materials

The participants were randomly assigned to two experimental groups. Each condition involved a different set of practice activities focused on the past tense. One group engaged in aural/oral communicative activities over three consecutive days and is henceforth referred to as TAPRA group. The other group completed written grammar exercises, such as gap-fills and sentence completions, over three consecutive days and is henceforth referred to as Traditional Practice group. In addition to their respective practice activities, both groups were provided with the same rule explanation handout.

Rule Explanation

At the beginning of the first practice session, the participants were given a one-page handout that included information about the form, meaning, and use of the simple past tense along with examples (Appendix 3.3). The information was read out to the participants, and at the end they were encouraged to ask questions if any. This was intended to serve as a priming tool for raising their awareness of the past tense.

TAPRA Activities

The aim of these activities was to provide opportunities for communicative language use under increasingly complex cognitive conditions, triggering the processes involved in real-world communications. To this end, five defining features were considered in designing the activities: (1) modality (2) planning time (3) note taking (4) scaffolding and (5) learner control over language. Of the 14 TAPRA activities, the first two had aural modality and the rest involved oral production, all included planning time, note taking was allowed for some of the activities, scaffolding was initially maximal and gradually decreased to minimal, and control over language was initially minimal and gradually increased to maximal.

Maximal scaffolding was defined as the provision of linguistic cues, moderate as pictorial cues, and minimal as the absence of both. Control over language was defined as the extent to which production was restricted by the scaffolding provided; minimal control happens when output is strictly determined by the linguistic input provided whereas maximum control occurs when learners are free to draw on their own resources and express their thoughts. Table 3.1 shows the profile of the activities. Each activity is briefly described below (see Appendix 3.4). The TAPRA activities were performed in a classroom one-on-one with a participant and the researcher.

Table 3.1. Features of TAPRA Activities

Criteria	Activity													
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Modality	Aural	Aural	Oral	Oral	Oral	Oral	Oral	Oral	Oral	Oral	Oral	Oral	Oral	Oral
Planning	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Note taking	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No
Scaffolding	Max	Max	Max	Max	Max	Mod	Mod	Mod	Min	Min	Min	Min	Min	Min
Control	Min	Min	Min	Min	Min	Mod	Mod	Mod	Max	Max	Max	Max	Max	Max

Activity 1: Listening comprehension. This activity was intended as a priming tool, raising the participants' awareness of the past tense. They listened to someone talking about his last birthday and answered five multiple-choice questions, which are all about past events or activities. They were first given one minute to read over the questions and then listened to the recording twice.

Activity 2: Listening comprehension. This was a version of the *find someone who* activity aimed at raising the participants' awareness of the past tense. Three people were talking about their last birthday one by one, and the participants were supposed to select, as they listened to the speakers, what each person did or was engaged in from a list of past events or activities. They were first given two minutes to read over the list, and then listened to the recordings twice.

Activity 3: Guided question & answer. This was a pair work with the researcher acting as the partner. The activity involved asking and answering questions. There were four lists of questions each about a person's first day of school in Grade 1; each list contained 12 questions. There were also four lists of cue words/phrases, each needed for answering the questions on one

of the lists. One person picked the question list and the other the corresponding cue list; they could not see each other's list. The questioner asked the questions one by one, and the responder answered in complete sentences using the cue words/phrases. For each pair of lists, the student and researcher switched roles so that each one was the questioner twice and the responder twice.

Activity 4: Guided production. For this activity, there were four cue cards, each about a person's last summer holiday. On each card, there was a small picture of the place that the person visited and 10 cue words/phrases about the place(s), weather, people, accommodation, transport, food, and activities. The participants were given one minute to prepare the vacation story using only the information on the card and one minute to tell the story beginning with "Last summer, he/she…".

Activity 5: Guided conversation. This activity was in the form of a conversation between two friends about a celebrity that one of them had met the day before; one asked questions, and the other, who had seen the celebrity, answered. The researcher acted as the questioner and the student as the responder. The activity included two conversations, performed one at a time. The questioner had a version of each conversation with only the questions whereas the responder had a version with only the cue phrases to be used to responding to the questions; they could not see each other's worksheet. The participants were first given two minutes to read over the cues and think of the questions that might be asked and the appropriate answers.

Activity 6: Picture-guided narrative. For this activity, there were two sets of pictures each showing a person's last weekend activities in a sequence of nine graphics. The participants were asked to narrate each weekend story after one minute of preparation. They were instructed to use

connectors and time expressions to produce a cohesive narration and to start with “Last weekend …”.

Activity 7: Picture-guided narrative. Four photo strips from Heaton (1987), each showing what a person did the previous day within a certain period of time were placed on the table. The participants were asked to pick them one at a time and were given one minute to prepare the story of each prior to presenting it. They were asked to begin their narratives with “Yesterday…”.

Activity 8: 3/2 picture-guided narrative. The participants were asked to create an imaginary story about a one-week trip that they took with their friends last summer. Some pictures were provided to give them an idea of some of the activities that they could add to their story. After five minutes of planning, they were supposed to present the story twice, the first time within 3 minutes and the second time within 2 minutes. They were instructed to use connectors and time expressions to produce a cohesive narration and to start with “Last summer, we …”.

Activity 9: Open question & answer. This activity was in the form of a conversation between the participants and the researcher. First, they were given one minute to think about their last birthday and were then prompted to say a sentence about it (e.g., On my last birthday my family and I went to a restaurant!). The researcher, in response, asked a follow-up question. The participants were required to respond in complete sentences. This question-answer cycle proceeded for two to three minutes. Then they switched roles and performed the task with the researcher as the responder and the participants as the questioner.

Activity 10: 3/2 narrative. For this activity, the participants were given one minute to prepare a detailed story of their last birthday. They were then supposed to present the story twice, the first time within three minutes and the second time within two minutes.

Activity 11: Open question & answer. This activity was in the form of a conversation between the participants and the researcher. First, they were given one minute to think about their last summer vacation and were then prompted to say a sentence about it (e.g., Last summer, I went to Vancouver!). The researcher, in response, asked a follow-up question. The participants were required to respond in complete sentences. This question-answer cycle proceeded for two to three minutes. Then they switched roles and performed the task with the researcher as the responder and the participants as the questioner.

Activity 12: 3/2 narrative. For this activity, the participants were given one minute to prepare a detailed story of their last summer vacation. They were then supposed to present the story twice, the first time within three minutes and the second time within two minutes.

Activity 13: 3/2 narrative. For this activity, the participants were given three minutes to prepare a detailed account of their first day of university. They were then supposed to present the story twice, the first time within three minutes and the second time within two minutes.

Activity 14: 3/2 narrative. For this activity, the participants talked about a childhood friend with whom they spent a lot of time then. They were asked to talk about how they met, whatever they used to do together etc. They were first given three minutes to prepare what they wanted to say and then present their narrative twice, the first time within three minutes and the second time within two minutes.

Traditional Written Exercises

The traditional exercises were in the form of cloze, sentence construction, and error correction activities, and all had the same characteristics: written modality, no planning time, no opportunity for note taking, maximal scaffolding, and minimal learner control over language. Most

of the traditional exercises were matched with the TAPRA activities in terms of topic. For example, for the picture-cued narrative about last weekend (Activity 6) in the TAPRA condition, the Traditional Practice group was provided with the same pictures and asked to write a sentence for each using the verbs accompanying the pictures. For the oral narrative activity about the first day of university (Activity 13), there was a cloze exercise in the Traditional Practice condition about the same topic. The participants completed the exercises in a classroom, with an assistant present to keep track of the time taken by the students to complete each exercise and facilitate the transition from one exercise to another.

The participants who completed these exercises had little or no opportunity to produce their own language as the responses were guided and restricted by the linguistic context and input of the exercises. For sentence construction, for example, cue words and sometimes pictures were provided to determine the required answer; for the cloze exercises, there was usually a list of verbs to choose from or it was just the passage that determined the verb needed. A part of some of the exercises is provided below (see Appendix 3.5):

Gap-fill Exercise

The passage below is about someone's first day of university. Fill in the blanks with the past form of appropriate verbs.

I …… school in January 2015, at a prestigious university in Canada. My first class …… at eight o'clock. Since I lived out of town, I …… home around 6:00 am. But I …… the university bus, so I had to take a taxi**…**

Error Correction Exercise

There are a number of mistakes in the following conversation. Find them and write the correct form.

Sam: How was your weekend?

David: Sunday evening is fantastic.

Sam: Where were you?

David: At a basketball game.

Sam: How was the game?

David: It is exciting and tough.

Sam: …

David: ...

Timing of the Practice Phase

The practice activities in the experimental conditions were matched in terms of number; there were 14 written grammar exercises and 14 TAPRA activities. However, they did not match in terms of time on task, the amount of time the participants took to complete them, for a number of reasons. First, most of the TAPRA activities had detailed instructions that needed to be explained and, at times, exemplified to ensure that the participants followed the workplan as much as possible. All the TAPRA activities also allowed some time for planning. By contrast, the traditional exercises had very short and simple instructions and did not involve any planning time. Moreover, some of the participants in the Traditional Practice group were extremely fast in doing the exercises due probably to their considerable experience with written grammar exercises. The average time on task was 99 minutes in the Traditional Practice group whereas it was 123 minutes in the TAPRA group, with the difference being statistically significant [$t_{(18)} = 4.816$, $p < 0.01$].

Post-Treatment Task

One day after the third practice session, the participants performed a focused communicative task called the Alibi Game. This task was selected because it creates multiple opportunities for the use of the past tense in a meaningful context. An alibi is a claim, a piece of evidence, or a witness that a person who is accused of a criminal action uses to prove that he or she was in some other place(s) when a crime was committed. Typically, students split into two groups for playing the game. One group collaboratively create an alibi in a private room, and then the other interrogate them one by one as they are presenting the alibi. As the data from this task was intended to be used for measuring the dependent variables of the study, the game was slightly modified to serve this purpose. Each participant collaborated with a research confederate in order to create a story to prove that they were together during the last weekend. The confederate was a native speaker of Mandarin; she was a Masters student in TESL and a proficient speaker of English. The rationale for having a confederate was to provide positive evidence of the past tense as much as possible during the preparation phase of the game, and the confederate had been trained by the researcher for doing this.

The game consisted of introduction, preparation, and performance. First, the concept of alibi was defined, and the scenario for the game was described. The scenario was that a laptop and a sound speaker were stolen from one of the classrooms in their faculty's building sometime over the last weekend. They were suspected of the theft because they usually go to the building on weekends and study together there. In the preparation phase, each participant and the confederate prepared a list, with as much detail as possible, of whatever they did together over the weekend. They were given 10 minutes for preparing the alibi and were asked to note down only key words/phrases rather than complete sentences. For the presentation phase, the confederate

voluntarily left the room and the participant stayed to provide their alibi to the researcher, who acted as the interrogator. Five minutes was given for presenting the alibi, and the researcher did not interrupt the presentations. They could have their notes with them during the presentation but were asked not to look at them unless they needed to. After the alibi was presented, the researcher asked three to five questions and recorded the responses. Then the confederate was called into the room and asked the same questions. If their answers matched, they were cleared of the accusation; if not, they were announced guilty.

Exit Questionnaire

Immediately after finishing the alibi task, the participants in both groups completed a questionnaire with 11 questions about their impression of the practice activities and the alibi task (Appendix 3.6). They rated their responses on a scale of 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). One question was about the learners' interest level in the pretask activities; seven questions were about the extent to which the pretask activities could enhance their confidence and ability to use their grammar knowledge in speaking and writing; three questions were about whether they were focused on providing an acceptable alibi or using their grammar knowledge accurately during the alibi game. There was some space at the end of the questionnaire for additional comments.

Procedure

The study was completed in five consecutive sessions over one week (Figure 3.1). The pretests were conducted on the first day of the study, with the researcher or an assistant meeting with the participants individually in a quiet classroom. Over the next three sessions, the participants completed the practice activities.

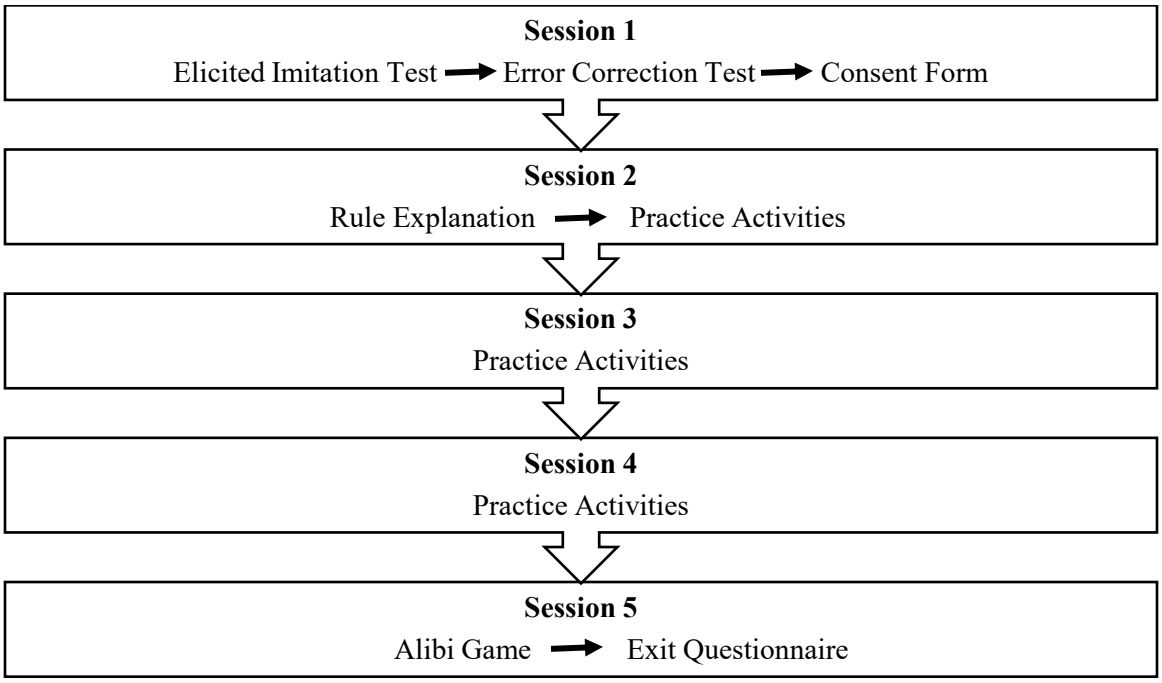

Figure 3.1. *Study Procedure for Both Groups*

The participants in the TAPRA group met with the researcher one-on-one for the practice activities, which were all audio-recorded. Over the first practice session, the TAPRA group engaged in five practice activities after receiving rule explanation. The aim of this session was to build/reinforce the declarative knowledge of the target feature and provide proceduralization opportunities. The activities of the session and their objectives are provided in Figure 3.2.

Rule Explanation	Listening Comprehension (1)	Listening Comprehension (2)	Guided Q/A	Guided Production	Guided Conversation
Declarative Knowledge & Priming			Procedural Knowledge		

Figure 3.2. Activities in Session 1 and their Objectives

The participants completed five practice activities during the second practice session (Figure 3.3) and four activities in the last practice session (Figure 3.4); all the activities over these two sessions were aimed at developing procedural knowledge.

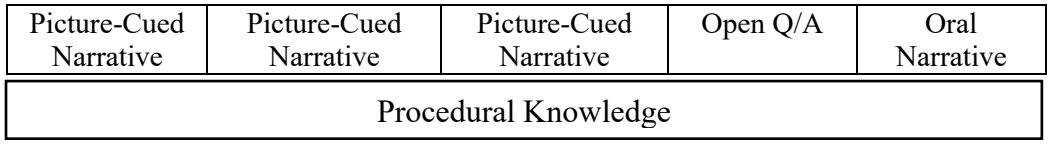

Figure 3.3. Activities in Session 2 and their Objectives

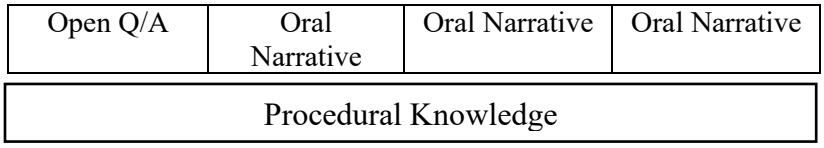

Figure 3.4. Activities in Session 3 and their Objectives

The Traditional Practice group completed 14 grammar exercises over three sessions. Like the TAPRA group, they received the rule explanation followed by five exercises during the first practice session; in the second and third practice sessions, they conducted five and four exercises, respectively. The participants attended these sessions in groups of two to four depending on their availability. A booklet was created for each session, which was facilitated by a research assistant. The assistant recorded the time each participant took to complete the exercises, monitored the transition across the exercises, and made sure that the participants understood the instructions.

On the last day of the study, the participants in both groups performed the alibi game. After preparing their alibi with a research confederate, each participant met with the researcher in a quiet classroom to present the alibi. After the task, a questionnaire about their impression of the practice activities and alibi task was given to the participants. They could return it the next day or could complete it in the classroom right after the task.

Data Analysis

The learners' oral production from the alibi task was transcribed by the researcher using PRAAT 6.1.16 (Boersma & Weenink, 2020). The transcriptions were coded in terms of the general

measures of performance (i.e., Complexity, Accuracy, and Fluency) and the use of the target feature.

Complexity

This construct was measured as the length of AS (analysis of speech) units calculated by dividing the number of words, excluding false starts, repetitions, and self-corrections, by the number of AS units. Following Foster et al. (2000), an AS unit was defined as an independent clause or a subclausal unit with one or more dependent clauses. With coordinated clauses, if the subject of the second clause was omitted, both clauses were considered as one AS unit unless there was a pause of 0.5 s or longer before the coordinator; in that case, they were considered as two AS units. It should be noted that subordination-based measures of complexity were not used in this study since there were not many instances of subordinate clauses in the data. Below are some examples of AS units from the learners:

(1) *We wake up at nine a.m. and we had breakfast.* [2 AS units]

(2) *We went to the mall to buy some food.* [1 AS unit]

(3) *We went to HUB* (pause: 0.31) *and had breakfast.* [1 AS unit]

(4) *We went to the Rutherford library together* (pause: 0.65) *and study at five pm*. [2 AS units]

A research assistant was trained to check the reliability of AS unit identification in 50% of the oral production data, which was selected randomly. This resulted in an inter-rater reliability of 0.97, which indicates a strong agreement.

Accuracy

Errors per hundred words was used as an index of accuracy; it was calculated by dividing the number of errors by the total number of words, excluding false starts, repetitions, and self-corrections, multiplied by 100. The lower this value was, the more accurate the oral productions were. Subclausal units were not included in measuring accuracy due to their elliptical nature; it may not have affected this measure because there were only a few incidence of subclausal units in the entire data. Also, self-corrections were omitted from the analysis with a view to examining the extent to which the morphosyntactic encoding of the statements (Levelt, 1989) occurred automatically without flaws. A research assistant checked the reliability of measuring accuracy in 50% of the oral production data, selected randomly. This resulted in an inter-rater reliability of 0.91, which indicates a strong agreement.

Fluency

Average pause length was used to measure fluency and was calculated by dividing the total length of pauses by the number of pauses; the lower this value was, the more fluent the oral productions were. A pause was defined as a filled or unfilled pause of 0.25 s or longer (De Jong & Bosker, 2013). The unfilled pauses were identified using 'To TextGrid (silences)' function in PRAAT, with the researcher adjusting the length if necessary. The filled pauses (e.g., eh, uh, etc.) were transcribed and measured by the researcher using the waveforms.

Target Accuracy

Target-Like Use (TLU) analysis was used to measure the accurate use of the past tense (Pica, 1983); the number of correct occurrences of past tense in obligatory contexts was divided by the sum of the number of obligatory contexts and suppliance in non-obligatory contexts. The reason for adopting this method was that there were several instances of overuse and misformation in the

oral production data. A research assistant checked the reliability of measuring TLU in 50% of the oral production data, which was selected randomly. This resulted in an inter-rater reliability of 0.99, which indicates a strong agreement.

Statistical Analysis

Two independent samples t-tests with Bonferroni Correction ($\alpha = 0.025$) were conducted to examine whether the experimental groups were different in terms of their knowledge of the target feature at the outset of the study measured by the ECT and EIT, respectively.

For comparing the TAPRA and Traditional groups in terms of the general measures of performance and target feature accuracy in the alibi game, MANOVA was used. Given the small size of the sample, the following assumptions of MANOVA (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013; Pallant, 2013) were checked meticulously to ensure that it is a robust test for the data: (1) absence of univariate and multivariate outliers in each dependent variable (2) normality of each dependent variable (3) linearity of the relationship between the dependent variables (4) homogeneity of variance and covariance and (5) absence of multicollinearity between the dependent variables.

There was no serious violation of the assumptions, suggesting that MANOVA was a robust test for the data. The only issue was that the boxplots for the dependent variables revealed one univariate outlier in the TAPRA group for general and target-like accuracy; this learner had not made any errors in their oral production. However, further investigation showed that the z scores for both measures were not beyond -/+ 2.5 standard deviation from the mean (Miller, 1991), and the trimmed mean and mean values were not very different. Consequently, it was decided to maintain this outlier in the analysis as it seemed not to be a serious threat to the robustness of MANOVA.

Results

Two independent-samples t-tests, using a Bonferroni adjusted alpha level of 0.025, were conducted to compare the learners at the outset of the study in terms of their performance on the EI test and WECT. There was no significant difference on the EI test between the TAPRA (M = .33, SD = .11) and Traditional Practice groups (M = .37, SD = .13); t (18) = .682, p = .50 (two-tailed). Similarly, there was not a significant difference on the WECT between the TAPRA (M = .85, SD = .11) and Traditional Practice groups (M = .84, SD = .10); t (18) = .256, p = .80 (two-tailed).

Table 3.2 provides the descriptive statistics for the dependent variables, all reported in raw scores for the sake of clarity. As shown in this table, the TAPRA group had a higher complexity, accuracy, and fluency but slightly lower TLU. Since the dependent variables were measured in different scales, they were all converted into z scores for inferential analysis.

Table 3.2. Descriptive Statistics of the Dependent Variables in Each Experimental Condition

Dependent Variable [a]	**TAPRA**		**Traditional**	
	M	SD	M	SD
Complexity	9.48	1.13	8.74	0.84
Accuracy	6.71	3.06	7.98	3.11
Fluency	539.15	70.30	639.47	62.54
TLU	54.21	21.56	55.26	16.52

[a] The variables are measured in different scales: complexity in the ratio of words to AS units, accuracy in the ratio of errors to words, fluency in average pause length in millisecond, and TLU in the ratio of the correct use of past tense to the obligatory contexts.

The association between the dependent variables for each experimental group was computed using Pearson correlation. The target-like use of the past tense had a negative correlation only with accuracy (r = - 0.9, p < .01) in the TAPRA condition but with fluency (r = - 0.31, p = .373) as well as accuracy (r = - 0.85, p < .01) in the Traditional Practice condition. A one-way MANOVA was

performed to investigate the differential effect of the TAPRA activities and written grammar exercises. There was a statistically significant difference between the groups on all four variables combined: F (4, 18) = 2.97, p = .05; Wilks' Lambda = 0.55, partial eta squared = 0.44. When considered separately, the only significant difference, using a Bonferroni adjusted alpha level of .012, was for fluency: F (1, 18) = 7.35, p = .003, partial eta squared = .38. An inspection of the mean scores revealed that the learners in the TAPRA group had a shorter length of pause (M = 539.15 ms) than their counterparts in the Traditional Practice group (M = 639.47 ms).

The exit questionnaire included 11 questions eliciting information about the learners' impression of the pretask activities and alibi game on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 (*Strongly disagree)* to 5 (*Strongly agree*). All the learners in each group (n = 10) completed the survey. Overall, the results revealed a positive attitude towards both types of pretask activities and the alibi game. In the Traditional Practice group, half of the respondents strongly agreed that the pretask exercises were fun to do (M = 4.3) and in the TAPRA group 80% had the same opinion about the pretask activities (M = 4.8).

There were four questions about the effect of pretask activities on the learners' ability and confidence to speak accurately and fluently. The learners in both conditions overall had a positive impression about the influence of the pretask activities on the development of their speaking skill; this is indicated by the overall means from the four questions for the TAPRA (M = 4.77) and Traditional Practice (M = 4.35) groups. There were also two questions about the effect of the pretask activities on the learners' ability and confidence to write. As with speaking skill, both groups indicated a positive impression about the effect of the pretask activities on their writing ability; the overall means from the two questions were 4.34 and 4.45 for the Traditional Practice and TAPRA groups, respectively. The last question about the pretask activities asked whether the

respondents felt that the activities could help them use English confidently outside of class. While all the respondents in the TAPRA group strongly agreed with the real-world benefits of their pretask activities, only four in the Traditional Practice group had this opinion about the written grammar exercises (M = 4.3).

A few of the respondents from each group left a brief comment about the pretask activities. For instance, one of the respondents from the Traditional Practice group pointed to the awareness-raising function of the pretask exercises by stating that: "*During these days for practice past tense I really become awarenss [sic] when I say something in the past …. I correct the error and become carefully [sic] when I describe in the past*". Another respondent from the same group mentioned that the exercises provided a good opportunity for practicing writing. One respondent from this group complained about the repetitious nature of the activities by noting that: "*The practice activities are useful, but there were lots of some questions, just changed the subject. They made some practice activities a little boring*". This was echoed in a comment made by another participant from this group: "*Too much repetition in writing, and these repetitions are a little boring*". Those from the TAPRA group who commented on the pretask activities expressed a positive attitude. For example, one of the respondents noted that: "*These activities are fun to do and increase my confidence in speaking English, but it does little help in writing*". Another respondent, similarly, pointed to the positive impact of the activities on her speaking ability. One respondent was more specific about the benefits of the activities by stating that: "*It really help [sic] me build up my confidence, I can think faster and present accurately*".

Three questions pertained to the alibi task. One asked whether the participants had enjoyed playing the game. Nineteen respondents strongly agreed that the alibi game was interesting. This is further supported by a few positive comments made by some of the respondents; three

respondents mentioned that the game was interesting and that they liked it. The other two questions were about the learners' focus during the game. When asked if they focused on meaning (i.e., providing a convincing alibi) during the game, 16 respondents, seven from the Traditional Practice group and nine from the TAPRA group, strongly agreed that they were focused on convincing the interrogator to accept their alibi (M = 6.65). By comparison, only nine respondents, four from the Traditional Practice and five from the TAPRA group, strongly agreed that they were focused on using grammar accurately during the game (M = 3.9). An independent-samples t-test revealed that the mean rating for focus on meaning was substantially higher than that for focus on form (t (38) = 2.06, p = .04).

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to explore the effect of pretask instruction and practice on the accurate use of the past tense and the global aspects of performance during a communicative focused task. Specifically, two types of pretask activities, namely TAPRA activities and written grammar exercises were compared. Descriptive statistics showed that the TAPRA group had a higher mean than the Traditional Practice group in global complexity, accuracy, and fluency while the latter group was slightly better only in terms of the target-like use of the past tense. The results of MANOVA, however, revealed that the only significant difference was in fluency, measured as the mean length of pauses in oral production. Despite these findings, the data from the exit questionnaire showed that overall, the learners found the pretask practice activities that they had engaged in and the main task favorable and effective, with a more positive attitude towards the TAPRA activities. In what follows, the research questions are discussed in relation to the previous studies.

The first two research questions were concerned with the differential impact of the TAPRA activities and written grammar exercises on the global and specific aspects of task performance. The findings partially lend support to the Trade-off Hypothesis (Skehan, 1998), which proposes that due to the limited attentional capacity of L2 learners, a competition arises between the processes and features of performance for the available resources. Accordingly, since the learners in both conditions received explicit instruction and engaged in the practice of a specific grammatical feature, it was hypothesized that the target-like use of the past tense may interfere with the global aspects of performance. This hypothesis can in part be accepted given the negative correlations between the past tense accuracy and global accuracy in the TAPRA condition and between the past tense accuracy and global accuracy and fluency in the Traditional Practice condition. This finding is in line with Ellis et al. (2019) and Van de Guchte et al. (2017) in which drawing the learners' attention to form in the pretask phase was found to have a negative impact on task performance; yet it is in conflict with Mochizuki and Ortega (2008) where pretask instruction did not show any interference with the fluency and complexity of task performance. The extent to which the pretask phase may influence task performance seems to depend on what the learners engage in prior to conducting a task. In Mochizuki and Ortega, for instance, the learners who were merely provided with a handout about relative clauses and encouraged to use it during the planning time were better than a non-instructed group in the frequency and accuracy of using the target feature but were not significantly lower in terms of fluency and complexity. In Ellis et al., on the other hand, the learners who had received a brief teacher-led instruction on the past passive constructions and did one grammaticality judgement activity (within a total of 10 minutes) outperformed a group without instruction only in terms of the attempted use of the target feature but were outperformed in measures of complexity, accuracy, and fluency. They attributed

the discrepancy in the results of these two studies to the deeper processing involved in the explicit instruction provided in their own study.

In the current study, the pretask phase incorporated both teacher-led instruction and persistent practice of the targeted structure. In this sense, it was more explicit and involved much deeper processing than the pretask instruction in the previous studies. The results of MANOVA, however, revealed an advantage of pretask instruction and practice for fluency, a finding that runs counter to the trade-off hypothesis. Specifically, the TAPRA group was significantly more fluent than the Traditional group and had a more, although not significantly, accurate and complex oral production. This finding can be attributed to the nature of the TAPRA activities. In contrast to the traditional exercises that were exclusively focused on form, the TAPRA activities provided alternate opportunities for practicing form, meaning, and form-meaning mapping in various situations under increasingly difficult processing conditions (Lightbown, 2008). This practice condition is more likely to simulate the demands of real-life situations (DeKeyser, 2017) and, in turn, enhance the transferability of practice effects.

For the groups' similarity in terms of complexity, one possible explanation could be the resemblance of some of the pretask activities in both conditions to the main task in terms of content. For example, for one of the activities in the TAPRA condition, the participants were asked to talk about a person's last weekend using a sequence of pictures. The Traditional Practice group were provided with the same pictures and were asked to write a sentence describing the action in each picture. Regarding the accuracy of the past tense, it is not surprising that neither group is significantly better since both were provided with explicit instruction and performed activities that required the use of the past tense. The focus on the target structure might have equally deflected the attention of the learners in both conditions from the accurate use of other structures in the

production, leading to a nonsignificant difference between the groups in global accuracy; this explanation is supported by the negative correlation between the accuracy of the past tense and the general accuracy of the oral production in both groups. Lastly, the significant difference in fluency can be accounted for by the high frequency of rehearsal opportunities similar to the alibi game during the pretask phase. The TAPRA group practiced the retrieval and production of form and meaning under (increasing) time pressure in different contexts. Therefore, the processing conditions triggered by the activities resembled those of the alibi task to varying degrees.

The findings discussed above can also be explained in light of Levelt's (1989) model of speech production, which demonstrates how the propositional and linguistic content of an oral message develop and map onto each other to produce a stream of sounds. The model operates via three specialized buffers, namely conceptualizer, formulator, and articulator. The conceptualizer, which is a language-independent component of the model, is responsible for creating ideas (i.e., macroplanning) and choosing the concepts that can be expressed in words (i.e., microplanning). Therefore, its operation can affect the complexity of oral production. When the topic is unfamiliar, speakers have to allocate extra attentional capacity to macro- and microplanning. When the participants performed the alibi task, they had already had some ideas to verbalize as a result of the pretask activities/exercises that pertained to last weekend.

The output of the conceptualizer is a preverbal message that does not have a grammatical shape, nor does it contain lexical items. The formulator grammaticizes the message and places lexical items in the grammatical structure to produce a surface structure, which is ready to be uttered by the articulator. The formulator is a language-specific operator (De Bot, 1992) and, therefore, plays a crucial role in the fluency and accuracy of converting thoughts into language during L2 oral production. Repeated practice is needed for training the formulator and boosting its

efficiency under the temporal constraints of online processing (De Jong & Perfetti, 2011; De Jong & Tillman, 2018; Segalowitz, 2010). Practice activities should be aimed at promoting the rapid and accurate encoding of a conceptual message morphosyntactically. The TAPRA activities were intended to provide multiple opportunities for this kind of practice, and apparently, they were successful as indicated by the higher fluency without lower accuracy of the TAPRA compared to the Traditional Practice group during the alibi task.

The aim of Research Question 3 was to explore the learners' perception of the pretask activities and the alibi game. Regarding the pretask activities, both groups indicated a positive attitude. The positive perception of the TAPRA group can be attributed to their learning context at the time of the study (Loewen et al., 2009). They were first-year undergraduate students in an English-speaking country where they needed communicative skills both inside and outside of university. Hence, they were aware of the value of communicative activities. On the other hand, the Traditional Practice group's positive attitude towards the pretask grammar exercises can be traced back to their language learning experience in China where traditional grammar exercises constitute a major portion of teaching L2 English. Furthermore, research has shown that Chinese learners of English as a foreign language welcome both noncommunicative and communicative activities (Littlewood, 2010; Rao, 2002).

One of the concerns about the incorporation of pretask instruction in a task-based lesson is that it may deflect learners' attention from the communicative intent of the main task, and, in turn, they may view the task as a grammar exercise (Ellis, 2003; Willis, 1996). The last two questions in the exit questionnaire were intended to address this issue. Although it cannot be claimed that the learners were solely focused on communication during the alibi game, the results suggest that they did not ignore the nonlinguistic goal of the task, which was to present an acceptable alibi.

This is indicated by the significantly higher rating of the question that asked if the learners had tried to provide a good alibi than the question that asked if they had attempted to provide a grammatically correct oral production.

Conclusion

The research reported in this paper is based on a proof-of-concept experiment. The purpose of the study was to explore how the concept of transfer-appropriate processing can be applied to designing grammar practice activities and what effect those activities are likely to have on L2 oral production. The findings suggest that pretask activities of the right type can have a positive impact on the fluency of task performance, without unduly focusing learners' attention on the formal aspects of performance. Several commentators have talked about the potential efficacy of transfer-appropriate practice (Gatbonton & Segalowitz, 1988; Lightbown, 2008; Segalowitz & Lightbown, 1999), and this study was an attempt to operationalize and test it.

Caution, however, should be exercised when considering these findings owing to the limitations of the study. Firstly, it was a small-scale study with only 10 participants in each experimental condition. This weakens the power of the analysis; specifically, in the case of the exit questionnaire, having only 20 respondents cannot produce reliable results. Second, the study was conducted in a laboratory-like environment, outside of the participants' regular class time. As a result, the participants were engaged with only one grammatical structure over four consecutive sessions, something that is not likely to occur in any L2 class. This reduces the ecological validity and generalizability of the findings. Last but not least, the study did not include a control group, without which it remains unknown whether the presence of pretask instruction and practice makes any difference in task performance. Future studies should compare a task-only group, that only perform the main task, with groups engaged in different pretask conditions. Further, both the

TAPRA activities and written grammar exercises can be embedded in the regular class time and integrated with other components of instruction to enhance the ecological validity of the results. This study looked at the effect of different types of practice activities on the quality of oral production. Future research should consider the role of pretask instruction and practice in L2 acquisition using a pretest/posttest design.

An implication of this study for research into L2 practice is that researchers can use similar practice activities for investigating the effects of the distribution of practice (e.g., Bird, 2010; Miles, 2014) and schedule of practice (e.g., Nakata & Suzuki, 2019), two factors that have been shown to mediate the efficacy of practice activities. The main pedagogical purpose of the study was to provide examples of transfer-appropriate grammar activities for L2 teachers, especially those who seek to integrate grammar instruction and practice with task-based language teaching in the pretask phase. Teachers of Canadian Language Benchmarks (CLB), for example, who are advised to provide grammar presentation and practice before task performance (Toronto Catholic District School Board, 2004) may benefit from such sample activities in designing pretask activities for different grammatical structures. Moreover, the sequence of the TAPRA activities was intended to demonstrate a sense of practice repetition that involves the reproduction of the same behaviour in the same or similar meaningful contexts rather than the mechanical reproduction of utterances elicited during decontextualized drills (Bygate, 2018; DeKeyser, 2018).

With all this being said about TAPRA activities, the value of the so-called traditional grammar exercises, as a tool commonly used in grammar lessons, cannot be denied. It was shown in this study that such exercises have a positive effect at least on accuracy. They are particularly useful at the beginning of the practice sequence for analyzing and understanding grammatical

rules, which is the initial step in developing the skill of using grammar knowledge accurately and fluently during communication.

Chapter 4 : Study 2

Elicited Imitation as a Measure of Implicit Knowledge of the Past Tense: The Role of Design and Implementation

This chapter addresses the issue of measuring L2 learning effects that result from form-focused instruction. Typically FFI researchers need to a measure of both explicit and implicit and knowledge of the target feature under investigation. Elicited imitation is often used as a measure of implicit knowledge. The study reported in this chapter examined how different features of the target feature (the past tense in English) and of the EI task instructions and implementation influenced learners' imitations and the type of knowledge that they drew upon during the test. In the discussion, the reasons why this test may be a better measure of automatized explicit rather than of implicit knowledge are discussed.

Introduction

It is now a common practice in instructed second language acquisition research to use measures of both implicit and explicit knowledge in examining the efficacy of different types of intervention. Some researchers have used elicited imitation (EI) tests to measure learners' implicit knowledge of specific grammatical structures (e.g., Ellis, 2007; Ellis et al., 2006; Li et al., 2016). Although defining implicit and explicit knowledge and specifying how they interact are not uncontroversial, it is generally accepted that these two types of knowledge represent distinct constructs. While explicit knowledge is consciously held and verbalizable, implicit knowledge is intuitive and represented only in performance (Ellis, 2009a). Regardless of how explicit and implicit knowledge interact, if the goal of language learning and teaching is the acquisition of implicit knowledge (DeKeyser, 2007; Ellis, 2005), valid measures of this type of knowledge are needed.

Valid tests of implicit knowledge are those that tap into the processes involved in the retrieval of this knowledge. These processes operate automatically, without awareness of what is being processed (Hulstijn & De Graaff, 1994). Since Norris and Ortega's (2000) call for using tests of implicit as well as explicit knowledge in instructed SLA (ISLA) research, there has been a growing tendency among researchers to incorporate in their studies measures of implicit knowledge such as oral narrative tasks and EI tests (e.g., Ellis, 2007; Ellis et al., 2006; Trofimovich et al., 2009). These measures have four defining characteristics: (1) eliciting performance that is based on feel rather than rule, (2) being time-pressured, (3) requiring attention to meaning rather than form, and (4) not requiring metalinguistic knowledge (Ellis, 2009a). The aim of this study is to investigate whether different design and implementation features of an EI task focused on one grammatical feature affect learners' performance on this test, and, consequently, the type of knowledge that they draw upon during the test.

Literature Review

Features of EI Tests as a Measure of Implicit Knowledge

EI tests have been used in both first and second language acquisition research. In the latter case, it has featured in observational and (quasi-)experimental studies for assessing the validity of the test and measuring second language (L2) learning, respectively (Yan et al., 2016). In this test, participants are required to listen to a statement and repeat it as exactly as possible. Its underlying assumption is that the accurate imitation of target language structures under time pressure and when the focus is on meaning is reflective of the internalization of that feature in interlanguage (Erlam, 2006; Wu & Ortega, 2013). In other words, EI tests are expected to tap participants' ability to automatically use their linguistic competence under conditions similar to those of real-world

situations to imitate stimulus sentences. Automatic use signifies processing and reconstructing the original item without awareness and without relying on rote repetition.

EI tests are a meaningful task with both grammatical and ungrammatical statements to be repeated under time pressure, and there is a time gap between the presentation and repetition of the stimuli to eliminate or reduce the possibility of rote repetition (Erlam, 2006). The reconstructive nature of EI tests can be checked by including ungrammatical as well as grammatical stimuli in the test. If test-takers correct the ungrammatical items and correctly repeat the grammatical ones, a positive correlation is expected between the scores of grammatical and ungrammatical items, indicating the reconstructive processing of the stimulus statements (Chrabaszcz & Jiang, 2014; Erlam, 2006; Suzuki & DeKeyser, 2015). In an EI test, moreover, the length of the statements is not correlated with success in repeating them, and the test is expected to have a strong relationship with other time-pressured tests that elicit spontaneous language use (Erlam, 2006).

Validating EI Tests as a Measure of Implicit Knowledge

As a valid measure of implicit knowledge, EI tests are expected to positively correlate with other tests of implicit knowledge, and several studies have succeeded in corroborating their validity (Bowles, 2011; Ellis, 2005; Erlam, 2006; Granena, 2016; Kim & Nam, 2017; Sarandi, 2015; Spada et al., 2015). In an exploratory study, Ellis (2005) developed a battery of five tests: an EI test, an oral narrative task, a timed grammaticality judgement test, an untimed grammaticality judgement test, and a metalinguistic knowledge test. The tests were administered to both L2 learners and native speakers of English. A principal component factor analysis revealed that the EI task, oral narrative task, and the timed grammaticality judgement test had a high loading of .82, .80, and .72, respectively, on a factor determined to represent implicit knowledge. On the other

hand, the untimed grammaticality judgement test and the metalinguistic knowledge test had a high loading of .73 and .92, respectively, on the factor representing explicit knowledge.

The first factor accounted for a substantially greater portion of the scores than the second factor. This led Ellis to propose a two-factor model of linguistic competence with implicit knowledge as the dominant factor. In a replication study, Bowles (2011) administered the Spanish version of the tests used by Ellis (2005) to native speakers, heritage language learners, and L2 learners of Spanish. The tests targeted 17 structures problematic for Heritage language and L2 learners. A confirmatory factor analysis verified the two-factor model found in Ellis between L2 learners on the one hand, and heritage language learners and native speakers on the other hand.

Erlam (2006) administered the EI test used in Ellis (2005) to L2 learners of English to examine its validity as a potential measure of implicit knowledge. The test addressed 17 structures and included one grammatical and one ungrammatical sentence for each. Participants were asked to first indicate their opinion about each statement and then to repeat it in correct English. The other measures of implicit knowledge used in this study were an oral narrative task and the speaking and listening sections of IELTS (International English Language Testing System). Results revealed a moderate correlation ($r = 0.48$) between the overall scores on the oral EI test and the overall percentage accuracy of the target features in the oral narrative task. Small but significant correlations were also found between the accuracy scores of regular past tense ($r = 0.36$) and third person –s ($r = 0.42$) in the EI and oral narrative tasks. A strong positive correlation was found between the scores of correcting ungrammatical items and repeating the grammatical items, showing the reconstructive nature of the test. Given these findings, Erlam concluded that the EI test was likely a measure of implicit knowledge of the target structures.

In these three studies, the EI test included 17 structures with two stimulus statements for each. However, when this test is supposed to measure the implicit knowledge of a grammatical structure, more items are needed to militate against the effect of the lexical and phonological features of items on their imitation (Bley-Vroman & Chaudron, 1994). Sarandi (2015) set out to check the validity of an EI task focused on the English third person '–s' against an oral narrative task that was intended to elicit the use of the target feature. The test included 18 stimuli, half grammatical and half ungrammatical, for the target feature. Results showed a moderate correlation ($r = 0.73$) between the two tasks in the accuracy of the target form. In contrast, Spada et al. (2015) did not find a significant correlation ($r = 0.23$) between an EI test with 14 items focused on the English passive structure and an oral production task. After each stimulus sentence, the participants were given 6 seconds to indicate their opinion and immediately afterwards 8 seconds to repeat the statement in correct English. Results, however, revealed that the EI test had a significant correlation with a timed aural and a timed written grammaticality judgement test; while all three loaded on an implicit factor, the written judgement test also had a high loading on the explicit factor. The authors attributed the lack of correlation between the EI and oral production tasks to the design features of the latter and the target feature, which is not easy to render task-essential in free production.

The Presence of Awareness during EI Tests

The validity of EI tests as a measure of implicit knowledge has recently been called into question. Suzuki and DeKeyser (2015) considered two features of an imitation test that draws on implicit knowledge, namely reconstructive processing and absence of awareness. They administered an EI test to a group of Chinese learners of L2 Japanese. The test included 80 target items, half grammatical and half ungrammatical, on five Japanese structures (16 items for each).

The test was split into a detection and an imitation phase. In the detection phase, the participants were prompted to press a button upon hearing a target word in the aural stimuli; this was assumed to be done with little or no awareness, so it was considered as a measure of implicit knowledge. In the imitation part of the test, the participants were instructed to repeat the statements and correct any grammatical problems that they noticed. Firstly, a strong positive association was found between the scores of grammatical and ungrammatical items, suggesting that the participants did not regurgitate the statements from memory. To validate the monitoring and imitation parts of the test as measures of implicit knowledge, a serial reaction time task and a metalinguistic knowledge test as measures of aptitude for implicit learning and explicit knowledge, respectively, were used.

It was found that neither the monitoring nor the imitation scores significantly correlated with the performance on the reaction time task. On the other hand, only the imitation scores were found to be significantly correlated with the metalinguistic knowledge test. These findings led the authors to conclude that the imitation component of an EI test may be better labelled as a measure of automatized explicit rather than implicit knowledge because it involves conscious processing during imitation. This is supported by stimulated recall data demonstrating test-takers' awareness of the target structures during the repetition of stimuli in EI tests (Chrabaszcz & Jiang, 2014; Granena, 2016). Self-report data in Granena (2016), for example, indicated that 94.7% of the participants noticed errors and 92.1% corrected them.

The primary aim of the present study is to explore the validity of an EI test focused on one grammatical structure by considering the relationship between the imitation test and a battery of tests including: oral narrative task (ONT), picture-cued oral narrative task (PONT), error correction test (ECT), and metalinguistic knowledge test (MKT). The characteristics of these tests

in relation to the features of measures of explicit and implicit knowledge (Ellis, 2005, 2009a) are provided in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1. Features of the Tests

Criterion	EIT	ONT	PONT	ECT	MKT
Presence of awareness	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
Time pressure	+Available	+Available	+Available	-Available	-Available
Focus on form	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
Use of metalinguistic knowledge	No	No	No	No	Yes
Modality	Oral	Oral	Oral	Written	Written

As indicated in Table 4.1, the EI test, ONT, and PONT seem to have the features of an implicit knowledge test while the ECT and MKT appear to be a measure of explicit knowledge. However, it is not as straightforward as it looks given the fact that learners may rely on one type of knowledge or the other depending on such factors as task demands, target structure, and their proficiency level (Spada et al., 2015).

Accordingly, the study is also aimed at exploring the effects of three test features on the imitations in the EI task: the past tense morpheme type, position of target features in the utterances, and the type of instructions provided (Bley-Vroman & Chaudron, 1994; Tomita et al., 2009). There are three past tense morphemes in English: regular past, irregular past, and copula past. Choosing this grammatical feature allows for examining the role that morphological variation may play in the accuracy of the imitations and the knowledge that the test-takers are likely to draw upon for each of the morphemes. Regular and irregular morphemes differ in that the former is a rule-based feature involving processing and computation whereas the latter is an exemplar-based feature drawing on memory and storage (Pinker & Ullman, 2002). In other words, the regular morphemes

are built by retrieving and applying the rule of adding –ed to the base verb while the irregular verbs are expressed by retrieving a lexical item from declarative memory.

Regarding the position of the target feature, Lewandowsky and Murdock (1989) found that the relationship between the position of lexical items in a stimulus and its recall accuracy follows a U-shaped pattern, with the targeted features at the beginning and end of statements recalled more accurately than the ones in the middle. This is known as serial-order effect and is tested by placing half of the past verbs near the beginning of the utterances and the other half farther but not at the end of the sentences. Moreover, the nature of the instructions may influence learners' processing and reproduction of the stimulus sentences. Yan et al. (2016) cautioned that the explicitness of instructions in directing attention to error correction can bear upon the nature of the construct that an EI test is purported to measure. Granena (2016), for example, compared two versions of an imitation task that differed in terms of instructions: the participants were either asked to repeat the sentences or to repeat the sentences in correct English. However, the participants in both conditions were found correcting ungrammatical items and there was no significant difference between the two groups. To further explore the impact of test instructions on imitation accuracy and participants' awareness, two types of instructions (one more explicit than the other) are compared in this study. Participants are asked either 'to repeat the sentences in *correct* English' (e.g., Erlam, 2006) or 'to repeat grammatical sentences and correct ungrammatical sentences' (e.g., Suzuki & DeKeyser, 2015). This study is guided by the following questions:

1. Is there any correlation between the EI test and the other tests of implicit and explicit knowledge?

2. Does the type of the past morpheme, position of the target verb, and explicitness of instructions affect the accuracy of repeating the stimulus statements?

3. Does the repetition and correction of the statements involve awareness as indicated by the participants' self-report data?

Method

Target Structure

The target feature for this study is the simple past tense that consists of regular, irregular, and copula verb forms. Regular past verbs are made by adding –ed or –d to the stem of the verb (e.g., played, watched, included). Depending on the final phoneme of the base verb, the past morpheme may sound like /d/, /t/, or /Id/. In irregular past verbs, on the other hand, the stem may change internally (e.g., Bring ---- Brought, Keep ---- Kept) or remain unchanged (e.g., Cut ---- Cut). The copula (i.e., the verb 'to be') is unique in having two completely different past tense forms: *was* for the first and third person singular and *were* for the second person and plural. The simple past tense pertains to the notions of completeness and remoteness in time and is used to talk about actions or events that happened once or more or states that existed in the past (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999). Choosing the past tense for this study provided the opportunity to investigate whether there was any interaction between the type of the past morpheme and the quality of imitating the utterances.

Participants

The study was advertised via short presentations by the researcher and his assistant in EAP classes at a Canadian university. The classes that were visited followed the same syllabus and learning outcomes, preparing international students for starting their undergraduate program.

Those who expressed interest were provided with a brief questionnaire about their first language, IELTS score before entering the EAP program, age of arrival in Canada, and length of stay in Canada and other English-speaking countries by the time of the study. The inclusion criteria were: Mandarin as the first language, IELTS overall score of 5.5 to 6, and less than one year of residence in Canada and/or other English-speaking countries. Forty-four students were randomly selected from the volunteers who met the criteria. At the time of the study, their mean age of arrival in Canada was 19.47 (ranging from 17 to 22 years old) and their length of stay was 1.81 months (ranging from 1 to 10 months). None of the participants had resided in any other English-speaking country for more than one month. This study was approved by the Research Ethics Board at the University of Alberta, and written informed consent was obtained from the participants prior to the study.

Instruments

The EI test was administered using a special software program, the ONT and PONT were audio-recorded on a laptop computer using Audacity 2.3.3, and the ECT and MKT were completed on paper. All the tests were administered one-on-one, with each participant meeting the researcher or an assistant in a quiet room.

EI Test

The EI test included 52 statements about different topics such as history, sports, and famous people. There were 36 items targeting regular, irregular, and copular past verbs (12 items per past morpheme) and 16 distracters targeting four other structures (four items per structure). Half of the items for each past morpheme (henceforth referred to as target items) had a correct and the other half had an incorrect past verb form. All the target items were checked by a native a speaker of

English to ensure that the ungrammatical ones did not include any other error than the incorrect past verbs and the grammatical ones did not contain any error at all.

The length of the target items was between 13 and 20 syllables, which was considered medium to long (Yan et al., 2016). The average length was 16.05 syllables, which is slightly higher than the average length of 15 found in Yan et al. review study. There were two types of target items in terms of the position of the past verb: (1) '-Distant' items with the past verb two to three syllables away from the beginning of the statement and (2) '+Distant' items with the past verb five to ten syllables away from the beginning of the sentence; there was a significant difference between the mean number of syllables at the beginning of the two types of items. Three to ten words consisting in total of five to 16 syllables were placed after the target verb in each stimulus to ensure that none of the verbs was in or close to the final position. The lexical complexity of the target items was controlled by choosing all the verbs from the first 1000 most common words in the *New General Service list* (New GSL) and all the other words from the entire list that contains approximately 2800 words (Browne et al., 2013).

Two versions of the EI test were created by counterbalancing the target items in terms of grammaticality and target verb position (Appendix 4.1). In one version, the correct verb forms were in '-Distant' and the incorrect verb forms were in '+Distant' position. In the other version, the incorrect verb forms were in '-Distant' and the correct verb forms were in '+Distant' position. The target items in both versions were randomly sequenced, with one distracter after every two to three target items.

The test was administered on a computer using DMDX software. The participants first read the instructions on the screen, which were then explained to them to ensure comprehension. They

also conducted two practice items, one grammatical and one ungrammatical that targeted other structures than the simple past tense and received feedback on their performance. After hearing each statement, they had five seconds to choose *True*/*False*/*Not Sure* by selecting a specific button on the keyboard to indicate their judgement of the truth value of the sentence. Then they heard a short beep sound (300 ms) after which they were given 10 seconds to repeat the sentence. Half of the participants were instructed to repeat the grammatical statements as they were and repeat the ungrammatical ones in *correct* English ('+Explicit' group) whereas the other half were just asked to repeat the statements in *correct* English ('Explicit' group). At the end of the 10 seconds, the participants were asked to press the spacebar to go to the next item.

Oral Narrative Task (ONT)

For the ONT, the participants were asked to present a detailed account of their last weekend. They were given 2 minutes to prepare their weekend story and were recommended to use time adverbials and conjunctions to make a structured story. They were also asked not to use passive voice and negative sentences. During the planning phase, they were not allowed to take any notes. The participants had 3 minutes to present their story; however, they were not stopped if they went over the time nor were they pushed to speak if they spoke less.

Picture-Cued Oral Narrative Task (PONT)

The PONT was based on the wordless graphic novel "The Arrival" by Shaun Tan. It is the story of a man who immigrates to a new land where everything is new, and he encounters challenges in the course of getting settled down. A set of pictures that showed one of these challenges were extracted from the book and sequenced in a logical order (Appendix 4.2). The participants were required to create the story demonstrated by the pictures. They were given 2 minutes to prepare the story without making any notes; they were recommended to use time

adverbials and conjunctions and were asked to avoid using passive voice and negative sentences. As there were strange-looking objects and animals in some of the pictures to indicate that everything looks different for new immigrants, the participants were asked to use general words such as *animal*, *food*, *fruit*, *thing* etc. to refer to them. The participants had 3 minutes to present their story; however, they were not stopped if they went over the time nor were they pushed to speak if they spoke less.

To situate the story in the context of past, the participants were told that the pictures showed some of the problems that a man who immigrated to a country 50 years ago faced during the first week of his residence there. Moreover, the beginning of the story was provided: "*Fifty years ago, there was a man who immigrated to another country for work and better life* condition", and the participants were asked to start with "*One day*…" following the opening sentence.

Error Correction Test (ECT)

The ECT included 18 statements targeting simple past tense, with six ungrammatical items for each past morpheme (Appendix 4.3). All these items were checked by a native speaker of English to ensure that they did not include any other error than the incorrect past verbs. All the verbs were chosen from the first 1000 most common words in the New GSL, and the other words were from the entire list. The test also contained six distracter sentences targeting three other structures (one grammatical and one ungrammatical distracter for each structure); all 24 statements were randomly sequenced.

The participants were first asked to decide if each statement was grammatically correct or not. If it was grammatical, they were supposed to put 'C' next to it. If not, they were required to underline the error and provide the correct form. There was no time limit for doing this test.

Metalinguistic Knowledge Test (MKT)

The MKT included six ungrammatical statements, two for each past morpheme (Appendix 4.4). In each sentence, there was an obligatory context for simple past, but the verb, which was underlined, was in present tense. The participants were first asked to explain the error and then to provide the correct form. There was no time limit for doing this test.

Awareness Questionnaire for EI Test

The participants completed this questionnaire (adapted from Granena, 2016) immediately after the imitation task (Appendix 4.5). It was intended to elicit information about the test-takers' noticing and correction of the errors in the target items. The questionnaire had two sections. In the first part, the participants were asked whether they had noticed any errors in the statements and how frequently they had noticed those errors if any. In the second part, they were asked whether they had made any corrections in the statements, and which structures they had corrected if any.

Procedure

The participants conducted the tests over two consecutive days (Figure 4.1). On Day 1, after signing the consent form, they performed the PONT, ONT, and EIT in order. At the end of the session and immediately after the last test, they completed the awareness questionnaire about the EIT. The next day, they completed the ECT and then the MKT.

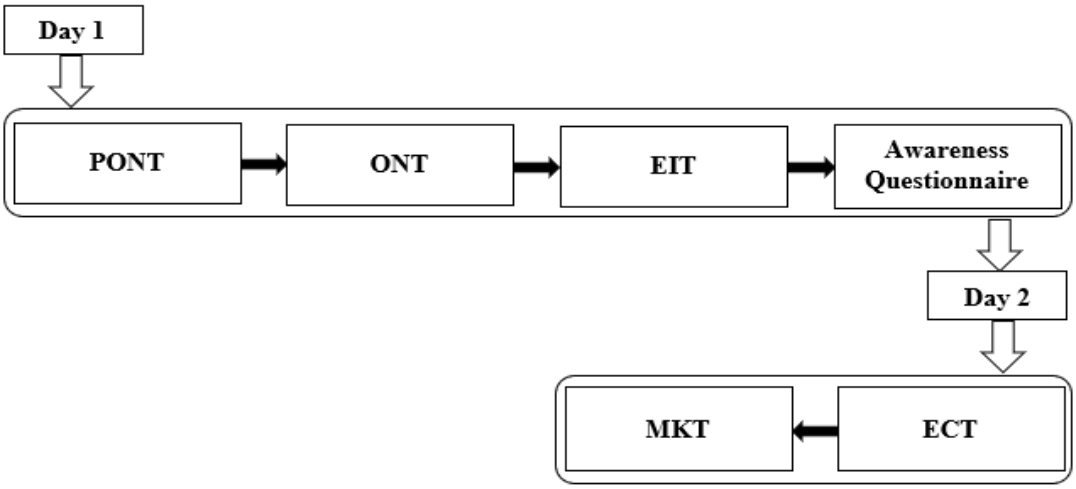

Figure 4.1. Study Timeline

Scoring

The researcher transcribed and coded the oral data using obligatory context analysis. Then a second rater coded 15% of the data randomly selected from each oral test. The interrater reliability for PONT, ONT, and EI test was 0.99, 0.98, and 0.99, respectively. For both the oral and written tests, the percentage score was calculated by dividing the obtained score by the perfect score.

Oral Tests

Each past morpheme correctly supplied in an obligatory context in the PONT and ONT was assigned 1 point, and the sum was divided by the total number of obligatory contexts for that morpheme. Self-corrections (e.g., I go oh went …) and misformations (I goed …) were considered as deviant and given a zero; non-suppliance, however, was not included in the analysis as it was in most cases not possible to determine the missing morpheme. Self-corrections were given a zero because the accuracy score was intended to demonstrate automatic access, without self-monitoring, to the knowledge of the past tense. Oversuppliance (i.e., suppliance of past morphemes in non-obligatory contexts) was not considered in measuring accuracy since there was no non-obligatory context in the EI test. In addition to the accuracy of each past morpheme, the overall

simple past accuracy (i.e., regular, irregular, and copular verbs combined) was calculated by dividing the sum of suppliance in obligatory contexts by the total number of obligatory contexts. Unintelligible verbs and verbs used in past passive form were considered missing data and not included in the analysis.

The accuracy of past morphemes in the target items of the EI test was scored based on three levels. Each target item could receive 0, 1, or 2 points; therefore, the perfect score for each past morpheme was 24 (if there were no missing data) and for overall past tense accuracy was 72 (if there were no missing data). The criteria, corresponding points, and examples from the imitation test data are provided in Table 4.2. The missing data included: unintelligible repetition of the target verb, sentences partly repeated before the beep sound including the verb, and sentences with the target verb in correct passive form.2

Table 4.2. Scoring Criteria for EI Test

Score	Criteria	Example
2	Obligatory context created and the correct form of the target verb provided	**Stimulus**: Until last year, Obama <u>was</u> the president of Canada. **Response**: Until last year, Obama <u>was</u> the president of Canada.
1	Obligatory context created and the correct form of a verb other than the target verb provided	**Stimulus:** one hundred years ago, WWI <u>finished</u> in Europe and Asia. **Response:** One hundred years ago, WWI <u>ended</u> in Europe and China.
0	Obligatory context created but the correct form of the target verb not provided[a] **<u>OR</u>** The incorrect form of the target verb self-corrected in obligatory context **<u>OR</u>** No obligatory context created	**Stimulus**: Hitler <u>visited</u> China and Japan twice before WWI. **Response:** Hitler <u>visit</u> China and Japan twice before WWI. **Stimulus:** Two years ago, Obama <u>was</u> president of the United States. **Response**: Two years ago, Obama <u>is was</u> president of the United States.

[a] It includes both the suppliance of incorrect verb forms and non-suppliance of a verb.

Written Tests

For the ECT, 1 point was awarded for the identification of the target error and 1 point was awarded for the provision of the correct form. The total score for each past morpheme was 12 and for overall past tense accuracy was 36. In the MKT, any explanation indicating that the problem was with past tense was awarded 2 points, an explanation suggesting that the problem was with tense without specifying the tense was given 1 point, and an incorrect explanation was given zero. In the second part of the MKT, 1 point was given if the correct form was provided and zero was given if the correct form was not provided. The total score for each past morpheme was 6 and for the overall past tense accuracy was 18.

Results

This section is divided into three parts. First, the correlations between the EI test and the other four tests are provided. Then, the results of analysing the EI test's features are presented. Finally, the results of the Awareness Questionnaire are summarized.

EI Test's Correlation with other Measures

Significant correlations ($p < 0.001$) were found between the grammatical and ungrammatical items for the regular morpheme ($r = 0.65$), irregular morpheme ($r = 0.63$), and copular morpheme ($r = 0.73$) in the EI test. However, when the association between the EI test and the other measures was checked, mixed results were found. For regular and copular morphemes, there was not any significant correlation between the grammatical and ungrammatical items and the PONT, ONT, ECT, and MKT (Table 4.3). There was also not any significant correlation between the imitation test's grammatical and ungrammatical scores combined (for regular and copular) and the other four tests.

Table 4.3. Correlations between the Tests for Regular and Copular Morphemes

	PONT	ONT	ECT	MKT
EIT grammatical regular	-0.07	-0.15	0.21	0.07
EIT ungrammatical regular	-0.007	0.12	0.15	0.04
EIT total regular	-0.04	-0.01	0.2	0.06
EIT grammatical copular	0.21	0.04	0.03	-0.009
EIT ungrammatical copular	-0.11	-0.02	0.03	-0.02
EIT total copular	0.05	0.01	0.03	-0.01

For irregular morphemes, however, the correction of the ungrammatical items was significantly correlated with the ONT (r = 0.31) and ECT (r = 0.32) and showed a trend with the PONT (r = 0.26). With the grammatical and ungrammatical scores combined for the irregular morpheme, a trend was found between the EI test and PONT, ONT, and ECT. The descriptive statistics and correlation coefficients are provided in Table 4.4 and Table 4.5, respectively.

Table 4.4. Descriptive Statistics for Irregular Morpheme of the Tests

	M	SD	N
EIT Grammatical	0.45	0.26	44
EIT Ungrammatical	0.23	0.21	44
EIT Total	0.33	0.21	44
PONT	0.37	0.30	44
ONT	0.44	0.32	42[a]
ECT	0.92	0.14	44
MKT	0.91	0.16	44

[a] One of the participants did not use any irregular verbs in their narrative, and another was not audio-recorded due to a technical problem.

Table 4.5. Correlations between Irregular Morpheme Scores of the Tests

	PONT	ONT	ECT	MKT
EIT Grammatical	0.24	0.20	0.21	0.02
EIT Ungrammatical	0.26[a]	0.31[*]	0.32[*]	0.07
EIT Total	0.27[b]	0.27[c]	0.29[d]	0.04

[a] $p = 0.08$. [b] $p = 0.07$. [c] $p = 0.07$. [d] $p = 0.052$.

[*] $p < 0.05$.

EI Test Design and Implementation Features

First, the meaningfulness of the EI test was checked by considering the participants' responses to the belief statements. None of them chose only one of the options (*True*, *False*, *Not sure*) in response to all the statements. Further, in response to the statements "Until last year, Obama was/is the president of Canada." and "Obama was/is the president of Canada until last year.", which the participants were expected to select 'false', of the 70 recorded responses, 49 (70%) were *false*, 16 (23%) were *true*, and 5 (7%) were *not sure*.

Whether the EI test involved reconstructive processes was checked by calculating the correlation between the length of the stimuli and accuracy of imitations (Table 4.6). Weak negative correlations were found for the entire test and grammatical and ungrammatical statements considered separately; the only exception was the weak positive correlation for the ungrammatical items in Version 1 of the test.

Table 4.6. Correlations between Item Length and Percentage Accuracy in EI Test

	Correlation Coefficient
Grammatical items (V1)	- 0.23
Ungrammatical items (V1)	0.04
Total (V1)	- 0.09
Grammatical items (V2)	- 0.02
Ungrammatical items (V2)	- 0.02
Total (V2)	- 0.02

The stimulus statements included three variables: past tense morpheme (Regular, Irregular, and Copular past verbs), grammaticality of the past morphemes (Grammatical vs. Ungrammatical), and position of the past verbs in the stimuli (-Distant vs. +Distant). This resulted in a 3x2x2 within-group design, yielding 12 conditions. The participants were randomly assigned to a +Explicit (n = 22) or an Explicit group (n = 22) in terms of instructions; half of them in each condition (n = 11)

performed Version 1 and the other half Version 2 of the EI test. In Version 1, the grammatical verbs were in initial position (i.e., -Distant) and the ungrammatical verbs were in middle position (+Distant) in the sentences while it was the other way around in Version 2.

A series of independent samples t-tests with Bonferroni Correction ($\alpha = 0.00416$) were carried out to find if the types of instructions differentially affected performance in each experimental condition. The mean (M) and standard deviation (SD) for each experimental condition across the +Explicit and Explicit instructions are presented in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7. Mean and Standard Deviation for Groups across Instructions

Experimental Condition	Type of Instructions	M	SD
Regular-Grammatical (-Distant)	+Explicit	0.461	0.235
	Explicit	0.556	0.154
Regular-Grammatical (+Distant)	+Explicit	0.449	0.194
	Explicit	0.476	0.263
Regular-Ungrammatical (-Distant)	+Explicit	0.420	0.247
	Explicit	0.458	0.194
Regular-Ungrammatical (+Distant)	+Explicit	0.525	0.219
	Explicit	0.365	0.100
Irregular-Grammatical (-Distant)	+Explicit	0.600	0.295
	Explicit	0.329	0.146
Irregular-Grammatical (+Distant)	+Explicit	0387	0.254
	Explicit	0.490	0.285
Irregular-Ungrammatical (-Distant)	+Explicit	0.208	0.251
	Explicit	0.231	0.207
Irregular-Ungrammatical (+Distant)	+Explicit	0.286	0.243
	Explicit	0.192	0.150
Copular-Grammatical (-Distant)	+Explicit	0.618	0.328
	Explicit	0.523	0.207
Copular-Grammatical (+Distant)	+Explicit	0.527	0.325
	Explicit	0.613	0.240
Copular-Ungrammatical (-Distant)	+Explicit	0.327	0.328
	Explicit	0.300	0.194
Copular-Ungrammatical (+Distant)	+Explicit	0.290	0.315
	Explicit	0.227	0.142

Since none of the means were significantly different, the +Explicit and Explicit instructions groups were combined for each condition for further analysis. A 3x2x2 repeated-measures ANOVA was conducted to assess the impact of the variables. There was a substantial main effect for target structure, Wilks' Lambda = 0.45, $F = 11.77$, $p < 0.001$, partial eta squared = 0.54; and for grammaticality of the items, Wilks' Lambda = 0.17, $F = 100.08$, $p < 0.001$, partial eta squared = 0.82. There was also a significant interaction effect between target structure and grammaticality, Wilks' Lambda = 0.23, $F = 31.97$, $p < 0.001$, partial eta squared = 0.76. However, the position of the target feature did not show any substantial main effect, nor did it have any significant interaction with the other two variables.

Following the interaction between grammaticality and past tense morpheme, two sets of paired-samples t-tests were conducted, one with the past morpheme kept constant ($\alpha = 0.016$ for Bonferroni Correction) and the other with grammaticality kept constant ($\alpha = 0.0083$ for Bonferroni Correction). In the first case, a significant difference was found between the grammatical irregular verbs ($M = 0.44$, $SD = 0.26$) and ungrammatical irregular verbs ($M = 0.22$, $SD = 0.21$), t (43) = 3.94, $p < 0.001$, eta squared = 0.26. There was also a significant difference between the grammatical copular verbs ($M = 0.57$, $SD = 0.27$) and ungrammatical copular verbs ($M = 0.28$, $SD = 0.25$), t (43) = 6.30, $p < 0.001$, eta squared = 0.48. In the second case, there was a significant difference between the ungrammatical regular ($M = 0.44$, $SD = 0.20$) and ungrammatical irregular ($M = 0.22$, $SD = 0.21$) verbs, t (43) = 6.12, $p < 0.001$, eta squared = 0.46; and a significant difference between the ungrammatical regular ($M = 0.44$, $SD = 0.20$) and ungrammatical copular ($M = 0.28$, $SD = 0.25$) verbs, t (43) = 4.10, $p < 0.001$, eta squared = 0.46.

Awareness Questionnaire Responses

The aim of this survey was to assess the test-takers' awareness and correction of the simple past tense during the EI test, and whether it was affected by the type of instructions. Data are reported as the percentage (rounded to the nearest whole) of the respondents choosing an option. The first part was about noticing errors during the imitations. Results showed that 69% of the respondents considered both making accurate judgments and correctly repeating the statements during the test, and 17% were merely focused on the correct repetition. The rest of the respondents indicated that they were only thinking about the judgement part of the test or were not concerned about either the judgements or the imitations. Similarly, the comparison of the responses from Explicit and +Explicit groups revealed that 70% in the former and 68% in the latter were thinking about both the judgement and correct repetition during the test.

The participants were also asked if they had noticed any grammatical errors in the test. Most of the respondents (86%), regardless of the explicitness of instructions, indicated that there were errors in the test. The test-takers were further asked to indicate, using a 4-point Likert scale (*Rarely, Sometimes, Usually, Always*), how frequently they noticed errors overall and how frequently they noticed which errors (Table 4.8). In the latter case, they were asked to specify at most five errors and the frequency of noticing them; here only the results for overall noticing and the noticing of the past tense errors are reported. As shown in the following table, most of those who had reported noticing errors in the test indicated that they were "sometimes" aware of grammatical errors (67%). Further, 57% of the participants indicated that they had noticed past tense errors at varying frequencies, compared to 43% who did not report noticing any past tense errors.

Table 4.8. Frequency of Noticing Errors (% of Respondents)

	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always	Not Noticed [a]
Overall noticing of errors	14%	67%	14%	5%	N/A
Noticing of the past tense errors	3%	27%	24%	3%	43%

[a] This represents those who did not report noticing the past tense errors.

Most of the participants in the Explicit instructions (71%) and +Explicit instructions (63%) conditions indicated that they "sometimes" noticed errors. For the past tense errors, 56% from the Explicit group and 58% from the +Explicit instructions group reported noticing the errors.

The second part of the survey was about the correction of the errors in the statements. In this regard, 78% of the respondents (75% from the Explicit and 81% from the +Explicit instructions group) indicated that they had made corrections as they were repeating the stimulus sentences. On a 4-point Likert scale (*Rare*ly, *Sometimes*, *Usually*, *Always*), they also indicated the frequency of correcting errors in general and of correcting the errors listed in the first part of the survey. In Table 4.9, the results for the correction of errors in general and of the past tense errors are presented. As shown in the table, 61% of the respondents reported that they had "sometimes" corrected the errors, followed by 26% who indicated that they had "rarely" done so. Slightly over half of the respondents (51%) indicated that they had corrected the past tense errors at varying frequencies, compared to 48% who did not report correcting any past tense errors.

Table 4.9. Frequency of Correcting Errors (% of Respondents)

	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always	Not Corrected[a]
Correction of any error	26%	61%	10%	3%	N/A
Correction of past tense errors	19%	23%	6%	3%	48%

[a] This represents those who did not report correcting the past tense errors.

In the Explicit condition, most of the respondents (71%) indicated that they had sometimes corrected the errors, followed by 21% who mentioned that they had "rarely" corrected the errors.

Likewise, most of the respondents (53%) in the +Explicit condition mentioned that they had "sometimes" corrected the errors, followed by 29% who reported that they had "rarely" corrected the errors. For the past tense errors, 50% in the Explicit instructions group reported that they had not made any correction and the other half mentioned that they had "rarely" (29%) and "sometimes" (21%) corrected the errors. In the +Explicit instructions group, likewise, slightly over half (53%) of the respondents reported correcting the past tense errors and 47% indicated that they did not correct past tense errors.

Discussion

The aim of this study was to investigate the validity of an EI test as a measure of implicit knowledge and whether certain design and implementation features influence the knowledge that learners draw upon during the test. Results are discussed in relation to the research questions.

There is convincing evidence that the EI task is a reconstructive test encouraging the retrieval of the past tense knowledge from interlanguage. There was a 5-second gap between the presentation and repetition of the stimuli to preclude the possibility of practice; during this time, the participants were required to indicate their opinion about the statements. Based on the pattern of the responses to the truth value of the sentences, it can be concluded that the test was successful at orienting the participants towards meaning. Moreover, results revealed that the participants had corrected some of the ungrammatical items for all three past morphemes. As in previous studies (e.g., Erlam, 2006; Suzuki and DeKeyser, 2015), a significant positive correlation was found between the grammatical and ungrammatical items for regular, irregular, and copular past morphemes.

The reconstructive nature of the EI test was further demonstrated by the weak negative correlations found in both versions of the test between sentence length and success in imitating the utterances. This accords with the weak correlation (-0.28) found in both Erlam (2006) and Sarandi (2015) but contrasts with the strong correlation that Hameyer (1980) found. Weak correlations were also found between the length and accuracy of repeating grammatical ($r = -0.23$ in Version 1 and $r = -0.02$ in Version 2) and ungrammatical (0.04 in Version 1 and -0.02 in Version2) items, further suggesting that the test did not involve rote repetition. In Sarandi (2015), however, there was a significant correlation for grammatical items ($r = -0.74$) and a high, though not significant, correlation for ungrammatical items ($r = -0.51$) when considered separately. This discrepancy, according to Erlam (2006), could be due to the different populations and test design features.

Research Question 1 pertained to the relationship between the EI test and other tests that are commonly used in ISLA literature as measures of implicit (ONT and PONT) and explicit (ECT and MKT) knowledge. The correlations revealed mixed results with both positive and negative coefficients. The only significant correlations were found for irregular morphemes. The ungrammatical items in the EI test had a significant correlation with the percentage accuracy of irregular verbs on ONT and ECT and had a trend with that of irregular verbs in the PONT. Furthermore, successful repetition of the grammatical and ungrammatical items with irregular verbs combined showed a trend with the accuracy score for irregular verbs in ONT ($r = 0.27$), PONT ($r = 0.27$), and ECT ($r = 0.29$) but a weak relationship with MKT ($r^2 = 0.04$).

The coefficient of determination indicated that the ONT and PONT account for 8% and the ECT accounts for 9% of the variation in the imitation task. The findings differ from those of the previous studies (Bowles, 2011; Ellis, 2005; Erlam, 2006; Sarandi, 2015) that found a clear and strong association between EI test and other measures of implicit knowledge. However, the EI

test's correlation with ECT for irregular morphemes accords with the correlations found in Spada et al. (2015) between an imitation test and the identification (r = 0.25), correction (r= 0.30), and explanation (r = 0.11) components of an error correction test. These low correlations suggest that the participants may rely on their explicit knowledge, not at a metalinguistic level, during the repetition of stimuli in an imitation test (Spada et al., 2015).

The second research question concerned the effect of the explicitness of instructions on performance in the EI test. Granena (2016) did not find any difference in successful repetition of grammatical and ungrammatical statements between the participants who were just asked to repeat the statements and those who were prompted to repeat the statements in correct English. Similarly, the results of the current study did not reveal any significant difference in the performance of the group that was asked to repeat the sentences in correct English and the one that was instructed to correct any ungrammatical statement. This suggests that, regardless of the explicitness of the instructions, spontaneous correction can happen in EI tests once a grammatical feature is internalized.

Regarding the effect of the test design features, namely the past tense morpheme and position of the past verbs, on success in repeating the stimulus statements, a significant interaction was found between the type of morpheme and grammaticality of the target verbs. When the past morpheme was kept constant (i.e., grammatical and ungrammatical items were separately compared for each morpheme), post-hoc analyses revealed a significant difference between grammatical and ungrammatical items for irregular and copular verbs. When performance on the past morphemes was compared pairwise with the grammaticality of the items kept constant (e.g., regular ungrammatical vs. irregular ungrammatical), it was found that the participants had done significantly better on the ungrammatical regular verbs than the ungrammatical irregular and

copular verbs. These findings suggest that the participants were better at applying the rule for regular verbs than retrieving the lexical items for irregular and copular verbs (Skehan, 1998). Although regular past verbs are less salient than irregular verbs (Salaberry, 2000), and the computation of the rule for regular verbs may take more time than the retrieval of irregular items (Yang & Lyster, 2010), the participants' strong declarative knowledge of the past tense seems to have accelerated their ability in applying the rule during the repetition of the stimuli with regular verbs.

Regarding the position of the target feature in the stimuli, it was found that the closer the verbs to the beginning of the sentences, the higher the accuracy rate of repeating those verbs although there was not a significant difference between the -Distant (M = 0.42) and +Distant (M = 0.40) verbs. The mean difference between the two positions was indeed so small that the higher mean of -Distant was likely due to a performance rather than a memory or competence deficiency (Granena, 2016). The nonsignificant correlations between the length of the stimuli and success in correctly repeating them indicate that the participants may possess comparable levels of working memory capacity, which is claimed to influence the quality of repetitions (Gillard & Tremblay, 2016). Therefore, memory capacity may not be a decisive factor in the context of this study; however, tenable assumptions about the participants' memory ability cannot be formed without evidence from tests of working memory capacity. Evidence in support of a U-shaped pattern of recall accuracy predicted in serial-order effect (Bley-Vroman & Chaudron, 1994; Lewandowsky and Murdock, 1989) may emerge with other grammatical features and more items for each position (i.e., -Distant vs. +Distant).

The last research question asked about the participants' awareness during the EI test. Most of the test-takers reported having noticed (86%) and corrected (78%) errors during the test. Similar

results were found in Chrabaszcz & Jiang (2014) and Granena (2016) where most participants reported noticing and correcting errors. When asked about the noticing and correction of the past tense errors, over half of the participants reported having noticed (57%) and having corrected (51%) errors of the past tense. Although these results do not reveal specifically which of the past morphemes were noticed and corrected, they indicate a high level of awareness of the target feature during the EI test. This awareness was not differentially prompted by the level of explicitness in instructions (i.e., Explicit vs. +Explicit), and the participants in both conditions reported similar levels of awareness. However, these results should be considered with care as the high frequency of the past tense stimuli in the imitation test and the preceding ONT and PONT might have influenced the participants' awareness.

Whether the EI test is a measure of the implicit knowledge of the past morphemes cannot be robustly supported by the results of this study. Although the EI test was administered under time pressure (the participants had 10 seconds to repeat each stimulus), it is significantly correlated with ONT and shows a trend with PONT *only* for irregular verbs. However, the the irregular verbs also have a significant positive correlation with the ECT and a weak positive correlation with the MKT, both involving the features of a measure of explicit knowledge (Ellis, 2009a). This latter finding along with the reported high rate of noticing and correction of the past tense suggests that the participants may have rapidly accessed their explicit knowledge of the past tense during the imitation test. Therefore, in line with Suzuki and DeKeyser (2015), it can be assumed that this EI test was a measure of automatized explicit rather than implicit knowledge at least when it comes to the retrieval of irregular verbs by intermediate learners who have a strong declarative knowledge of the target feature.

Conclusion and Future Research

One of the aims of this study was to explore the effects of certain design and implementation features on performance in the EI test. It was found that the past tense morpheme and its grammaticality could affect success in repeating the statements while the explicitness of instructions and the position of the target feature in the stimuli did not have a substantial effect on the repetitions. The test-takers were more accurate in imitating the regular than irregular and copula verbs. The study also set out to test the validity of the imitation test by exploring its correlation with measures of implicit and explicit knowledge. Several studies have shown that EI tests have a strong correlation with measures of implicit and a weak correlation with measures of explicit knowledge, but this study did not find this pattern. It was only the irregular verbs in the imitation test that revealed a significant correlation with two other tests, one purported to measure implicit and the other explicit knowledge. This finding along with the self-report data, showing awareness of the target feature during the imitations, suggests that the EI test was apparently a measure of automatized explicit knowledge, at least for irregular past morphemes, rather than implicit knowledge. That is to say, the test-takers probably retrieved the irregular items with conscious awareness from their declarative memory. This conclusion, however, cannot be generalized beyond the confines of this study until further evidence accumulates.

There were some limitations, which should be addressed in future studies. For example, the noticeability of the past tense in the EI test was probably enhanced by the ONT and PONT that preceded the imitation test and by the inclusion of all three morphemes of the past tense. This was the first attempt to validate an EI test focused on the regular, irregular, and copular morphemes of the past tense. Future studies should consider the morphemes separately and with more items. Another limitation was that some of the participants did not use all three past morphemes in the

ONT and PONT, resulting in a lot of missing data. This can be one of the main reasons for the low correlations between the tests for regular and copular morphemes. Future studies can provide a list of the base form of regular, irregular, and copular verbs and ask the participants to use those verbs in their oral narratives. Further, the participants were competent users of English given their overall IETLS scores and had a strong declarative knowledge of the past tense as attested by their high mean percentage accuracy on the ECT and MKT. Different results may be obtained with participants at a lower proficiency level and with lower declarative knowledge.

Chapter 5 : Conclusion

The papers presented in this dissertation examined the notion of transfer-appropriateness as a resource for solving the pedagogical problem of designing effective grammar practice activities within the context of CLT. This final chapter provides an overview of the three papers and discusses how they contribute to establishing the groundwork for further enquiry on this topic. It ends by considering the contribution and limitations of the enquiry as a whole and the possible pedagogical implications.

Overview of the Papers in this Dissertation

The first chapter establishes the broader context of this enquiry, which is the issue of how grammar instruction can be incorporated into task-based lessons as CLT requires. Different FFI techniques and their role in the process of second language (L2) acquisition are discussed (Ranta & Lyster, 2018). It is argued that FFI is not only compatible with tasks but is an essential component of task-based instruction if learners are supposed to develop accuracy within fluent language use. At the end of the chapter, models of integrating FFI with tasks before, during, and after task performance are described.

Chapter 2 presents a review of the literature that critically revisits how grammar practice has been conceived of in the past and in the present with the goal of identifying the features of effective practice that can promote fluent control over grammatical knowledge. Traditionally, L2 grammar practice is associated with pattern drills and highly scaffolded exercises focused on formal accuracy (DeKeyser, 2010). Such exercises typically do not encourage form-meaning mapping, which is required during real-world communication.

Based on theoretical developments in cognitive psychology, however, it is argued that optimal practice is characterized by repetition and transfer-appropriateness (Lightbown, 2008). The importance of repetition comes from skill acquisition theory, which posits that extensive practice is needed for converting declarative to automatized knowledge (Anderson, 2009). In contrast to repetition drills in audiolingual teaching, practice, in this sense, entails a range of form- and meaning-focused activities sequenced with increasing difficulty (DeKeyser, 2017). Transfer-appropriateness suggests that the similarity of practice and performance conditions facilitates the transfer of knowledge and skill from the former to the latter. Putting together these two notions, Chapter 2 provides principles for developing transfer-appropriate grammar practice activities as was used in Study 1 (Chapter 3). The paper closes with a brief discussion of how the transfer effects in L2 learning from such practice might be measured using oral elicited imitation tests.

Chapter 3 is a report of the design and findings from Study 1, which aimed at applying the concept of transfer-appropriateness in designing grammar practice activities and exploring its effectiveness. The assumption was that this type of practice, as opposed to form-focused grammar exercises, would promote learners' fluency as well as accuracy in using their second or foreign language. The study compared the effect of two types of pretask grammar practice activities in English on the use of the past tense during task performance. The participants were native speakers of Mandarin enrolled in an EAP program at a Canadian university. They were randomly assigned to either the Transfer-Appropriate Practice (TAPRA) or the Traditional Practice condition. Oral elicited imitation and written error correction tests showed that the participants were not different in terms of their implicit and explicit knowledge of the past tense at the beginning of the study. After a brief review of the past tense rules, the TAPRA group engaged in aural/oral communicative activities over three consecutive days while the Traditional group completed written grammar

exercises over the same period. As a post-test, both groups performed a focused communication task that required the use of the past tense. The results revealed that while the groups were not different in overall complexity, accuracy, and target-like use, the TAPRA group was significantly more fluent during the focused task. These findings suggest that the type of pretask practice can mediate the competition between fluent and accurate performance for the limited attentional resources of second/foreign language learners (Skehan, 1998); communicative practice activities were found more successful in promoting fluency without impairing accuracy.

Chapter 4 reports the method and results from Study 2, which investigated whether the target feature, its position in the utterances, and the explicitness of the test instructions influenced the type of knowledge that learners may draw upon in an elicited imitation test of the past tense. The study was motivated by the idea that the effect of grammar instruction and practice executed based on skill acquisition theory should be assessed using measures that tap into the automatization of declarative knowledge. While held and retrieved with conscious awareness, this knowledge can be used automatically. Although several researchers have claimed that elicited imitation tests are a valid measure of implicit knowledge (Bowles, 2011; Granena, 2016; Kim & Nam, 2017; Spada et al., 2015), Suzuki and DeKeyser (2015), more recently, showed that an elicited imitation test focused on five structures of L2 Japanese correlated with a test of metalinguistic knowledge. Moreover, the test-takers reported having imitated the stimuli statements with awareness. The researchers, accordingly, concluded that elicited imitation tests might be a measure of automatized explicit knowledge rather than implicit knowledge, with the former being the expected outcome of practice from a skill acquisition theory perspective.

Forty-four university-level students from China enrolled in an EAP program in Canada completed an elicited imitation test along with four other tests over two consecutive sessions.

Results revealed that the participants were more accurate in repeating the regular verbs and that the test had a significant correlation with an error correction test, which was purported to tap into explicit knowledge, only for the items targeting irregular past verbs. However, neither the position of the verbs nor the type of instructions significantly influenced imitations. Moreover, the participants reported having awareness of the targeted form while repeating the stimulus statements. These learners' awareness of the target structure suggests that elicited imitation tests may be a measure of automatized explicit knowledge.

Establishing a Groundwork for Future Enquiry

In the chapters of this dissertation, I have critically examined the role and importance of grammar practice in SLA and identified what appear to be key characteristics of optimal practice (Chapter 2). I have illustrated how transfer-appropriateness can be applied to the design of oral communicative grammar activities focused on the past tense in English (Chapters 2 and 3). The effect of such practice on L2 task performance was compared with written grammar exercises, which elicited limited and highly scaffolded written production (Chapter 3). I have also examined the options for measuring the transfer power of well-conceived practice through measures of implicit and explicit knowledge (Chapter 4).

The original plan for my doctoral research was to include another empirical study that would have compared the effect of different types of grammar practice activities on measures of near and far transfer of learning. That study would have incorporated tests similar to and different from the practice activities to explore how far the learners could transfer their learning. Unfortunately, due to the COVID pandemic, it was not possible to access international students and arrange for one-on-one interviews. For this reason, the empirical studies presented here can be seen as providing the conceptual groundwork and future research on this topic.

Directions for Future Research

Future studies can explore the concept of transfer distance, defined as learners' ability to use their grammatical knowledge accurately and fluently post-intervention in conditions similar to (near transfer) and different from (far transfer) the practice condition (DeKeyser, 2018). This can be done by adjusting the similarity of the tests from Study 2 to the practice activities used in Study 1 to create the context for measuring near and far transfer. Operationalizing transfer distance is not an easy task since it is based on the notion of similarity, which is relative and subjective. According to Barnett and Ceci (2002), therefore, certain dimensions can be used for defining the distance between rehearsal and performance "to avoid use of the summary term [far transfer] and instead specify whether the transfer situation is near or far along each dimension" (p. 623). Researchers should also use a pretest/posttest design to study L2 development resulting from transfer-appropriate activities compared to other types of practice. In addition, the reappearance of practice has unlocked new research agendas. For example, researchers have recently been investigating the effect of practice repetition under different distribution (Suzuki, 2018) and scheduling patterns (Suzuki & Sunada, 2019).

Future research can also set out to compare the effect of practice on a wider range of grammatical features. For example, Spada and Tomita (2010) found that explicit instruction is more effective than implicit instruction in the acquisition of both simple (e.g., regular past morpheme requiring only one transformation) and complex (e.g., question formation requiring more than one transformation) structures. The same issue can be addressed with regard to the type of practice.

Contribution of this Dissertation Research to ISLA

After a period of neglect, the role of practice has returned to the mainstream, beginning with the book-length treatment of the topic in Practice in a Second Language: Perspectives from Applied Linguistics and Cognitive Psychology edited by DeKeyser (2007) and the 2019 special issue on L2 practice in the Modern Language Journal. However, there are still some issues pertaining to practice that have primarily been addressed at a theoretical level. For example, several commentators have underlined the importance of the principle of TAP in designing classroom activities (DeKeyser, 2007; Lightbown, 2008, 2019; Segalowitz & Lightbown, 1999), but limited research has been done to address this topic in relation to grammar practice. A case in point is Spada et al.'s (2014) study, which associated transfer-appropriateness to the timing of FFI by exploring the effect of instruction before and within communicative content-based practice, known respectively as isolated and integrated FFI. They found that simultaneous focus on form and meaning in integrated FFI positively affected oral production, which requires attention to form under time pressure, while the form-before-meaning instruction facilitated error correction. Their study, however, was focused on the timing of FFI, and did not examine the type of practice activities.

Ranta and Lyster (2007), on the other hand, proposed an instructional sequence in which practice is intended to promote accuracy during spontaneous language use (i.e., fluency) after learners are made aware of the targeted grammatical features. Practice in this model should involve repetition and language use under conditions of real-world communication. Thus, Study 1 in this dissertation adds a new dimension to research in this area by illustrating how TAP can be applied to designing practice activities and how the activities can be integrated with tasks, as pretask practice, to promote target-like language use during fluent communication.

Furthermore, the use of the past tense as the target feature in this dissertation brought the benefit of investigating the participants' use of three past tense morphemes (regular past, irregular past, and past copula). This is important due to the differences in the retrieval of each of the morphemes. Regular past is a rule-based feature that involves processing and computation whereas irregular past is an exemplar-based feature that involves memory and storage (Pinker & Ullman, 2002). It was not possible to examine the effect of practice on the use of each of the morphemes because some of the participants in the study reported in Study 1 (Chapter 3) did not use one or two of these morphemes at all; removing these participants from the analysis would have resulted in a very small dataset. On the other hand, it was possible to compare the participants' accurate use of each of the morphemes in Study 2 (Chapter 4). Future research could examine whether there is any interaction between the type of practice and the correct use of each of the past tense morphemes in oral production.

Pedagogical Implications

As a teacher of English as a second language, I am typically asked by my students to address grammar more than the other issues. This has stimulated me to invariably pursue effective ways of teaching grammar with a view to enabling students to use their grammar knowledge accurately and fluently in oral communication. Proponents of communicative language teaching are now quick to acknowledge the importance of grammar instruction for the development of both accuracy and fluency. But teachers often express their uncertainty about when and how to address grammar in a communicative framework.

From a pedagogical perspective, this dissertation is an attempt to respond to the dominance of controlled written grammar exercises in commercially produced ESL materials (Nitta & Gardner, 2005; Ranta, 2013). It is hoped that teachers' attention can be drawn to how grammar

practice can aim to develop learners' fluent control over their grammatical knowledge under the pressures imposed by oral communication with target language speakers. A term for this idea that is occasionally used is “accurate fluency” (Byrd, 2005, p. 551). This is potentially very relevant to teachers of adult ESL in Canada. In programs where the Canadian Language Benchmarks (CLB) are mandated, it is expected that teachers plan instruction around tasks and that grammar teaching should serve an enabling role for task completion, preparing learners for performing communicative tasks (e.g., Toronto Catholic District School Board, 2004). CLB documents recommend that such enabling practice occur in a pretask phase; however, they do not explain how such grammar activities should be designed. Teachers, therefore, are likely to turn to written exercises, which are exclusively focused on accuracy, or skip the grammar practice phase.

In addition, L2 teacher education textbooks typically distinguish grammar practice from communication practice in that the former is accuracy-focused whereas the latter is viewed as a means of promoting only fluency (e.g., Harmer, 2015; Johnson, 2008; Ur, 2012). This distinction may not be useful for equipping learners with accurate fluency in using their grammar knowledge during communicative task since exclusive accuracy work (e.g., written grammar exercises) does not involve creating form-meaning connections under conditions similar to real-world situations.

Nonetheless, one caveat regarding the implications of this dissertation is that it is not intended to propose the utter abandonment of highly-scaffolded written grammar exercises. They have a role to play in the learning process in that they can solidify learners’ declarative knowledge, which is the foundation for knowledge automatization (Criado, 2016; DeKeyser, 2017). Moreover, as shown in Study 1 (Chapter 3), written grammar exercises were relatively successful in drawing the participants’ attention towards the accurate use of the targeted form.

Limitations

One of the unwelcome limitations of this dissertation, imposed by the COVID pandemic, is the absence of a control group in Study 1 (Chapter 3). This study was initially designed to include a task-only group, in which participants only performed the final task (i.e., alibi task) without engaging in any kind of pretask practice. The inclusion of this group could have revealed whether practice, regardless of type, had any impact on the quality of the participants' oral performance. This gap will be addressed in a follow-up study later.

The empirical studies reported in this dissertation were conducted in a laboratory setting in order to maximize control over the execution of the studies and, in turn, their internal validity. Study 1, however, faced some threats to its internal validity. First, the time frame of the practice phase (three consecutive sessions) could not be longer nor more distributed due to the limited availability of the participants. With more practice sessions spread over a longer a period time, the TAPRA activities and written exercises may have affected task performance differently. Second, the study did not include a delayed posttest; therefore, it is not clear whether the effect of practice on task performance was a function of the proximity of the posttest to the practice phase or the type of the activities.

Control over internal validity is sometimes achieved at the expense of external validity. The participants in both studies were homogenous in terms of their first language (all were native speakers of Mandarin) and, to a large extent, their L2 learning experience. Nevertheless, working with native speakers of Mandarin who had similar ESL learning trajectories still leaves us with whether learners from a different first language and L2 learning background would show similar results. In Mandarin, as opposed to English, verbs are not morphologically inflected to indicate pastness; instead, speakers rely on adverbs of time to refer to past events. This is likely to impose

higher cognitive pressure on the formulator, in which the pre-verbal message is grammatically encoded (Levelt, 1993), when native speakers of Mandarin use the past tense in oral production. Speakers of a language in which past tense is conveyed by modifying the base verb morphologically may react differently to the practice activities and tests used in the present research or the advantages might be much more modest.

Another factor that restricts the generalizability of the findings pertains to the context of the studies. The participants in both studies were university-level students who were required to take an EAP course to fulfill the English language proficiency requirement for beginning their undergraduate studies. Storch and Sato (2020) found that learners of L2 English in Australia and Chile had different perceptions of the same task as a learning activity. This suggests that the effect of practice activities may vary according to the context of instruction. Therefore, without further research in other contexts (e.g., learning L2 English at a private language school), the findings cannot be generalized beyond the confines of these studies. Two other threats to external validity are the small sample size and lack of random selection due to the limited number of volunteers in both studies. Future studies in this area should consider these two issues.

Final Remarks

As an ESL instructor who tries to practice scholarly teaching (Kreber, 2002), I am interested in SLA research that addresses pedagogically relevant issues. My motivation for this investigation was the desire to engage in rigorous research aimed to connect learning theory with real-world L2 teaching. Accordingly, in response to the pedagogical problem of how to design and implement grammar practice activities in a task-based lesson, I sought the solution in the concept of TAP. Teachers may immediately turn to highly-scaffolded exercises, prevalent in ESL materials, for grammar practice. However, such exercises are not adequate for promoting accuracy during fluent

language use. If teachers should rely less upon controlled grammar exercises, they need ample examples of innovative transfer-appropriate activities. Accurate fluency emerges when learners engage in activities that involve processes similar to those of real-world tasks. After all, as noted by Lightbown (2008, p. 43), it is TAP that "helps to explain why learners are not always able to mobilize the knowledge they have acquired in certain situations when they face new ones".

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Appendices

Appendix 3.1

Language Learning Background

By responding to the questions below, you will provide me with information about your experiences of learning English and contact with it. Because this information can be significant to the findings of this study, please try to provide accurate and honest responses. Note that all your responses will be stored in a password-protected laptop and every effort will be made to keep the responses confidential. Thank you so much for your help.

Part 1: Background Information

1. Gender: *Male* ☐ *Female* ☐

2. Name: …….

2. Age: …….

3. Education: …….

4. Country of Birth: ……

5. Native Language: ……...

6. Age of Arrival in Canada: …….

7. Length of Stay in Canada (Number of year or month): …….

Part 2: Language Proficiency

1.Have you ever taken IELTS? **YES/NO.** If yes, answer Questions 2 and 3. If no, go to Question 4.

2. What is your IELTS score? Overall …… Speaking …… Listening …… Reading …… Writing ……

3. In which year, did you do IELTS?

4. Have you ever taken TOEFL? **YES/NO.** If yes, answer Questions 5 and 6. If no, go to Part 3.

5. What is your TOEFL score? Overall …… Speaking …… Listening …… Reading …… Writing ……

6. In which year, did you do TOEFL?

Part 3: Contact with English in your Country of Birth

The following questions are about your contact with English inside and outside the classroom setting **in your home country**. Please provide accurate and honest responses.

1. How old were you when you started learning English?

2. How many years did you study English at school (primary, junior secondary, & senior secondary in total)?

3. At what grade did you start learning English at school?

4. What was the focus of instruction at primary, junior secondary, and senior secondary school? Please tick three items that were mostly focused at each level. If English was not taught in primary school, skip it.

	Primary School	**Middle School**	**High School**
a. Grammar	……..	……..	……..
b. Vocabulary	……..	……..	……..
c. Pronunciation	……..	……..	……..
d. Listening	……..	……..	……..
e. Reading	……..	……..	……..
f. Speaking	……..	……..	……..
g. Writing	……..	……..	……..
h. Translation	……..	……..	……..
i. Others (specify)	……..	……..	……..

5. What was the language of instruction for school subjects (e.g., Was Mathematics/Physics/Chemistry taught in English or Chinese?) at your:

a. Primary School: ……...

b. Middle School: …….

c. High School: ……...

6. Did you study English at private language schools? **YES/NO**. If yes, please answer the next questions 7 and 8. Otherwise, go to question 9.

7. How many years did you study English at private institutes?

8. What was the focus of teaching? Please tick three items that were mostly focused.

a. Grammar ☐

b. Vocabulary ☐

c. Pronunciation ☐

d. Listening ☐

e. Reading ☐

f. Speaking ☐

g. Writing ☐

h. Translation ☐

i. Others (specify) ……..

9. Did you go to university in your home country? **YES/NO.** If yes, please answer questions 10 to 13. Otherwise, go to question 14.

10. What was your major?

11. What was the language of instruction in your program of study?

12. Did you have to do any English-as-a-second-language (ESL) and/or English-for-Academic-Purposes (EAP) courses? **YES/NO**. If yes, please answer the next question. Otherwise, go to question 14.

13. What was the focus of teaching in the ESL and EAP courses? Please tick three items that were mostly focused.

a. Grammar ☐

b. Vocabulary ☐

c. Pronunciation ☐

d. Listening ☐

e. Reading ☐

f. Speaking ☐

g. Writing ☐

h. Translation ☐

i. Others (specify) ……..

14. How often did you use English in your home country for the following activities? Circle a number from 1 to 5.

1= *Never* 2 = *Rarely* 3 = *Sometimes* 4 = *Often* 5 = Always

a. Routines (e.g., cooking, paying bills, shopping)	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*
b. Social (e.g., phone conversation, online chats, writing emails)	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*
c. Academic (e.g., writing assignments, giving oral presentations)	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*
d. Entertainment (e.g., reading books, party, watching movie	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*

Part 4: Contact with English outside your Country of Birth

The following questions are about your contact with English inside and outside the classroom setting **out of your home country**. Please include your English-learning experiences in Canada.

1. Have you ever been to an English-speaking country or a non-English-speaking country where you had to use English? **YES/NO.** If yes, please complete the following table.

Country	Length of Stay	Purpose

2. If you took any ESL and/or EAP courses in any of the countries listed above, please complete the following table.

Country	Focus of the Course	Length of Course

Thank you very much for your time and cooperation. If you would like to receive a report of the findings of this study, please provide your email here: …….

Sincerely,

Majid Nikouee
PhD student of TESL
Department of Educational Psychology
University of Alberta
Email: Nikouee@ualberta.ca
Phone: 780-8028552

Appendix 3.2

Elicited Imitation Test

This test includes 34 statements about different topics from history to natural world, sports, science, cultural and social issues, and famous people's lives. Here is how you are supposed to do the test:

1. Listen to each statement and decide if it is true or false, or if you are not sure about it. Indicate your opinion by pressing left shift key if it is *True*, right shift key if it is *False,* and backspace key if you are *Unsure*. You have just **5** seconds for making your choice. Immediately after indicating your opinion, you will hear a beep sound.
2. Immediately after the beep sound, repeat the statement in *correct* English.
3. After that, press the Space key to go to the next statement. You have just **10** seconds to repeat the statement. If you do not repeat it within this period, you will hear a beep sound and immediately after that the next statement is presented.

Please note that the statements will be presented only once, and you are not allowed to repeat them more than once.

Let's first do a practice test with three statements to make sure that you are familiar with the procedure of the test. You will be provided with feedback at the end of this training session.

1. Bruce Lee was a famous actor in the twentieth century.
2. In nineteen eighty, Queen Elizabeth marries prince Philip.
3. Chinese people enjoy to eat seafood and vegetables.
4. Nelson Mandela died in South Africa.
5. Two hundred years ago, Jane Austen writes love stories.
6. Before becoming president, Xi Jinping was a teacher.
7. An octopus has two legs and six arms.
8. Before entering politics, Justin Trudeau taught French at a school.
9. In the last century, some countries are under the control of the British.
10. Jinping has been the President of China since twenty thirteen.
11. Americans go into space for the first time two years after Russians.
12. At age ten, Yang Mi and Victoria Song were in the same school in Beijing.

13. Pregnant women must eat healthy food and exercise every day.
14. A French designer designs the Canton Tower in China.
15. Canada wins the hockey World Cup last year.
16. Dave Wang and Sun Nan are taxi drivers before becoming famous.
17. New York is more big and expensive than most of the cities in the United States.
18. At the end of the last century, Hong Kong becomes part of China.
19. At age thirty, Barack Obama studied law at Harvard.
20. Chinese people can to speak both Mandarin and Cantonese.
21. Hu Jintao was the President of China until last year.
22. World War one finishes almost one hundred years ago.
23. A few years ago, China bought some commercial planes from France.
24. Bill Gates live in Washington but his family live in New York.
25. Last year, the world's population increased by one percent.
26. In the last century, most men in China are farmers.
27. China is bigger and greener than Canada.
28. Two German brothers made the first plane in the world.
29. The Chinese discovered tea and coffee.
30. Queen Elizabeth the second has four child and eight grandchildren.
31. Brad Pitt is a teacher before becoming an actor.
32. One year before his death, Nelson Mandela visits China for the last time.
33. World War two began in the middle of the last century.
34. Chinese people want to make their country clean and green.

Written Error Correction Test

This test includes 24 sentences. Decide if each of them is grammatically correct or not. If correct, write 'C' in front of it. If incorrect, underline the error and write the correct form. You will receive 1 point for deciding whether the sentence is correct or incorrect (an underlining the error if it is incorrect) and 1 point for providing the correct form. This test does not have a set time limit.

1. His mother dies when he was nine years old.
2. Sam and I are alone last weekend, so we decided to invite some friends over for dinner.
3. My car is more expensive than your car.
4. The team wins all of the games in the last Olympic games.

5. Dan is home when I called him last night.
6. I visit the Science Museum on my last trip to London.
7. I go around her house last night to find out what was wrong.
8. The world's population increases a lot in the first half of the twentieth century.
9. The company makes only furniture when it opened in 1999.
10. Tim and Sarah are both ill when we saw them last night.
11. My room is modern than her room although it is smaller than hers.
12. The museum buys the painting in New York last month.
13. You should to take your jacket with you because it may rain.
14. Her parents teach her two languages when she was 10 years old.
15. He finishes second in the 100 meters in the last Olympic Games.
16. James is with me at the library yesterday afternoon.
17. I have three children, one son and two daughters.
18. He writes several letters to her last month, but she did not reply.
19. Sam and Terry are in David's house last night.
20. My parents study French literature after their marriage.
21. Drivers must stop when the traffic lights are red.
22. Susan and Tom marry when they were twenty years old.
23. She is at the movies yesterday evening.
24. Sarah is going to buy several new book.

Appendix 3.3

Past Tense Rule Handout

Contexts of Use

- Simple past is used to describe a single/repeated action that started and finished at a specific time in the past. The time of the action can be in the recent past or the distant past and action duration is not important.
- Simple past is used to talk about a series of completed actions in the past.

Verb Forms

- Regular verbs: Making past verbs by adding –d or –ed
    - Live – Live**d**
    - Play – Play**ed**
    - Cry – Cri**ed**
- Irregular verbs
    - Begin – **Began**
    - Break – **Broke**
    - Fall – **Fell**
- To Be
    - Am/Is – **Was**
    - Are – **Were**

Signal Words

- Last month, Yesterday, In 1999, Ago, etc.

Examples

- The weather was rainy yesterday.
- I friends went to Paris a week ago.
- We visited London last week.
- Last Saturday, first I got up, then I had breakfast.

Appendix 3.4

Transfer-Appropriate Practice Activities

Activity 1: Listening Comprehension (Session 1)

David, John, Sarah, and Emily study Psychology at a Canadian university. Today is the last day of their first year at university. They are now at a restaurant celebrating the end of school year. David's birthday is next week, and he is going to have a party. He is telling his friends about his last birthday and that he wants his birthday this year to be like his previous one.

Listen to David talking about his last birthday, and choose the correct answer for each of the following questions as you listen. The listening will be played twice. First you have **1 minute** to read the questions.

1. When was David born?
    a. He was born on July 4th
    b. He was born on July 21st
    c. He was born on July 2nd

2. What did David's brother make?
    a. He made grilled chicken.
    b. He baked a cake.
    c. He made some cookies.

3. Where was David's mother on his birthday?
    a. She was out of town.
    b. She was in the farmer's market.
    c. She was on a business trip.

4. What did David's friends give him as a gift?
    a. They gave him a camera.
    b. They gave him a Harry Potter collection.
    c. They gave him a backpack.

5. What time did the party finish?
    a. It finished around 2:00 am.
    b. It finished at 4:30 am.
    c. It finished at 8 pm.

Activity 2: Find someone who (Session 1)

Now Emily, John, and Sarah are telling David about their last birthday.

You have **2 minutes** to read the sentences in the following table. They are about what Emily, John, and Sarah did on their last birthday. As you listen to the stories, check the activities that each person did; note that each activity can be chosen for more than one person. The audios will be played twice.

Find someone who	**Emily**	**John**	**Sarah**
had a surprise for his/her birthday.			
invited his/her sister to a restaurant.			
went to a restaurant.			
started with some cold drinks.			
went out with an old friend.			
took some pictures.			
had a chocolate cake.			
was sick on his/her birthday.			
was born in August.			
received a CD of his/her favorite singer.			
went out with his/her parents.			
received a perfume.			
danced at a bar.			
celebrated his/her birthday in the Summer.			

Activity 3: Cued Question and Answer (Session 1)

Tyler, Mary, Susan, and Brian are Grade 8 students. On the way to school, they are talking about their first day of school in Grade 1.

Part 1

Mary: You have a list of questions to ask Tyler about his first day of school. You have **1 minute** to have a look at the questions.

Questions

How did you go to school?

Where did you sit in the classroom?

What did you do during the break?

What did you do in the first class?

What time did you leave home in the morning?

Did you make any friends?

What time did you arrive at school?

What did you eat for lunch?

Did your mother take you to school?

What time did you return home?

Where was your school?

What was the teacher's name?

Tyler: Mary is going to ask you 12 questions about your first day of school. Below is a list of the cue words to use for answering the questions. You have **1 minute** to go over the list. Try to the guess what each question will be. You can make notes, but not in the form of complete sentences.

Cue Words for Answers

Bus

Back row

Soccer

Painting a picture with watercolor

8:00 am

A lot

8:30 am

Chicken soup

My brother

3:30 pm

Near a shopping centre

Ms. Jones

Part 2

Tyler: You have a list of questions to ask Mary about her first day of school. You have **1 minute** to have a look at the questions.

Questions

How did you go to school?

What time did you leave home?

What was the teacher's name?

What time did you arrive at school?

What did you do during the break?

Did your older sister take you to school?

Where did you sit in the classroom?

Where was your school?

What did you do during the first class?

Did you make any friends?

What did you have for lunch?

What time did you return home?

Mary: Tyler is going to ask you 12 questions about your first day of school. Below is a list of the cue words to use for answering the questions. You have **1 minute** to go over the list. Try to the guess what each question will be. You can make notes, but not in the form of complete sentences.

Cue Words for Answers

On foot

8:15 am

Ms. Anderson

8:25 am

Table tennis

My father

First row

Near my house

'Find a Friend' game

A few

Pasta salad

2:30 pm

Part 3

Susan: You have a list of questions to ask Brian about his first day of school. You have **1 minute** to have a look at the questions.

Questions

What time did you arrive at school?

Where was your school?

What time did you leave home?

What was the teacher's name?

What did you have for lunch?

What did you do during break?

Did your older brother take you to school?

Where did you sit in the classroom?

What did you do during the first class?

Did you make any friends?

How did you go to school?

What time did you return home?

Brian: Susan is going to ask you 12 questions about your first day of school. Below is a list of the cue words to use for answering the questions. You have **1 minute** to go over the list. Try to the guess what each question will be. You can make notes, but not in the form of complete sentences. The cue words are not listed in the same order as the questions.

Cue Words for Answers

Train

7:45 am

Mr. Jones

8:30 am

Basketball

My mother

First row

Downtown

'Find a Friend' game

Only one

Hot dog

3:30 pm

Part 4

Brian: You have a list of questions to ask Susan about her first day of school. You have **1 minute** to have a look at the questions.

Questions

What time did you arrive at school?

How did you go to school?

What time did you return home?

What was the teacher's name?

What did you have for lunch?

Where was your school?

What did you do during the break?

Did your father take you to school?

Where did you sit in the classroom?

What did you do during the first class?

What time did you leave home?

Did you make any friends?

Susan: Brian is going to ask you 12 questions about your first day of school. Below is a list of the cue words to use for answering the questions. You have **1 minute** to go over the list. Try to the guess what each question will be. You can make notes, but not in the form of complete sentences. The cue words are not listed in the same order as the questions.

Cue Words for Answers

Taxi

8:15 am

Mr. Jones

8:40 am

Soccer

My sister

Back of the classroom

Downtown

'Find someone who' activity

A few

Pizza

4:30 pm

Activity 4: Cued Oral Production (Session 1)

Chun, Feng, Jun, and Ling are four international students at a Canadian university. They are on the way back from their summer holiday in Vancouver. They have had so much fun in there that they think it has been a better summer vacation than their previous one. Each of them went to a different vacation spot last summer, and they are now talking about their previous vacation.

There are four cue cards on the table; each contains some information about Chun, Feng, Jun, and Ling's last summer vacation. Pick the cards one at a time and prepare a vacation story using the given information. You have **1 minute** to prepare and **1 minute** to tell the story. You can take notes but not in the form of complete sentences.

Start your account with: "Last summer, Chun/Jun/ Ling/Feng …".

Chun

Where: *Banff*

How: *by car*

Who with: *two old friends*

Accommodation: *hotel*

How long: *3 days*

Visiting sites: *Banff Park Museum*

Food*: mostly Chinese and Mexican food*

Weather: *sunny and hot*

Shopping: *a cup & a travel pillow*

Most interesting thing: staying *in a tent for one night*

Jun

Where: *Toronto*

How: by *plane*

Who with: *her cousin*

Accommodation: *her brother's house*

How long: *2 weeks*

Visiting sites: *CN Tower*

Food*: only Fast food and Chinese food*

Weather: *sometimes windy*

Shopping: *a hockey jersey*

Ling

Where: *Victoria*

How: *by car*

Who with: *her brothers*

Accommodation: *her close friend's apartment*

How long: *3 weeks*

Visiting Sites: *Royal BC Museum*

Weather: hot & humid every day

Special food*: mostly seafood*

Souvenirs: *an iron teapot*

Feng

Where: *Montreal*

How: *by plane*

Who with: *his girlfriend*

Accommodation: *hotel*

How long: *6 days*

Visiting Sites: *Montreal museum*

Weather: *Vey hot*

Food*: mostly sushi and Chinese food*

Shopping: *a pair of ski boots*

Activity 5: Guided Conversation (Session 1)

Part 1

Two friends, Wang and Li, are talking about a celebrity that Wang saw the previous day. Li is now asking Wang questions about what happened then. Wang is supposed to answer the questions using the information provided in parentheses. Each of you has a different version of the conversation. The person playing Li has only the questions while the person playing Wang has only the cue words for responding to Li's questions. First, you have 2 minutes to go over your version of the conversation; you can take notes (e.g., write down the verb that should be used to answer the questions), but not in the form of complete sentences. Then do the conversation. All of the responses must be a complete sentence, having a subject and verb.

Li's version of the dialogue

Wang: Guess what? I saw Fan Bingbing yesterday.

Li: Really? Where did you see her?

Wang: Answer.

Li: What time did you see her?

Wang: Answer.

Li: What did she look like?

Wang: Answer.

Li: Did you talk to her?

Wang: Answer.

Li: What did she do?

Wang: Answer.

Li: Sure! What was she like?

Wang: Answer.

Wang's version of the dialogue

Wang: Guess what? I saw Fan Bingbing yesterday.

Li: Question?

Wang: …… (On Wangfujing Street).

Li: Question?

Wang: …… (Around 6:00 pm).

Li: Question?

Wang: Like Fan Bingbing! …… (Absolutely gorgeous).

Li: Question?

Wang: Yes, …… (Asking for her signature).

Li: Question?

Wang: …… (Writing her name on a T-shirt). Do you want to see it?

Li: Question?

Wang: Yes, ……..…… (Warm and approachable)! I could easily approach her and talk to her.

Part 2

Two friends, Zhang and Liu, are talking about a celebrity that Zhang saw the other day. Liu is now asking Zhang questions about what happened then. Zhang is supposed to answer the questions using the information provided in parentheses. Each of you has a different version of the conversation. The person playing Liu has only the questions while the person playing Zhang has only the cue words for responding to Liu's questions. First, you have 2 minutes to go over your version of the conversation; you can take notes (e.g., write down the verb that should be used to answer the questions), but not in the form of complete sentences. Then do the conversation. All of the responses must be a complete sentence, having a subject and verb.

Liu's version of the dialogue

Zhang: Guess what? I saw Kris Wu yesterday.

Liu: Really? Where did you see him?

Zhang: Answer.

Liu: What time did you see him?

Zhang: Answer.

Liu: What did he look like?

Zhang: Answer.

Liu: Did you talk to him?

Zhang: Answer.

Liu: What did he do?

Zhang: Answer.

Liu: What was he like?

Zhang: Answer.

Zhang's version of the dialogue

A: Guess what? I saw Kris Wu yesterday.

B: **Question?**

A: …… (On Quianmen Street).

B: **Question?**

A: …… (Around 10:00 in the morning).

B: **Question?**

A: Like a prince! …… (Tall and handsome).

B: **Question?**

A: Yes, …… (Asking for a picture and his signature).

B: **Question?**

A: ……..…… (Taking a picture and writing his name on a piece of paper). Do you want to see it?

B: **Question?**

A: Yes, …….....…… (Be, Welcoming)! We had a chat and he gave me a hug at the end.

Activity 6: Picture-Cued Oral Narrative (Session 2)

Jack and Susan are colleagues. During lunch time, they are talking about what they did over the last weekend.

Part 1

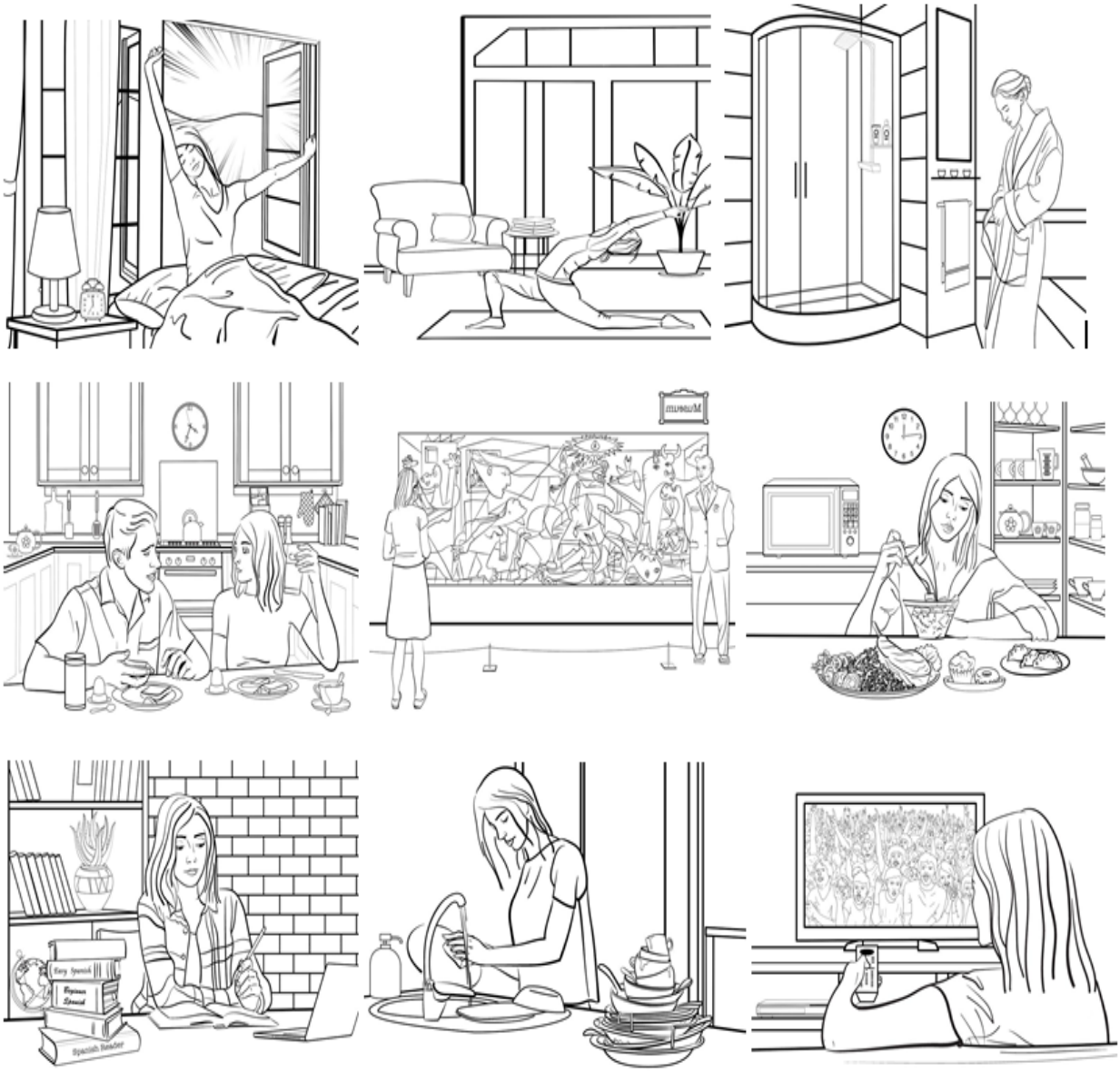
The following picture sequence shows some of the activities that Jack did over the last weekend. The activities are numbered from 1 to 9 according to the order in which they were done. You have **1 minute** to prepare and **2 minutes** to present Jack's weekend story. Try to use time expressions and connectors (e.g., after that, then, at 2 'o'clock, in the morning) to a clear timeline in your story. You can take notes, but not in the form of complete sentences, as you are preparing. Begin your narrative with "Last weekend …".

Jack's Weekend

Part 2

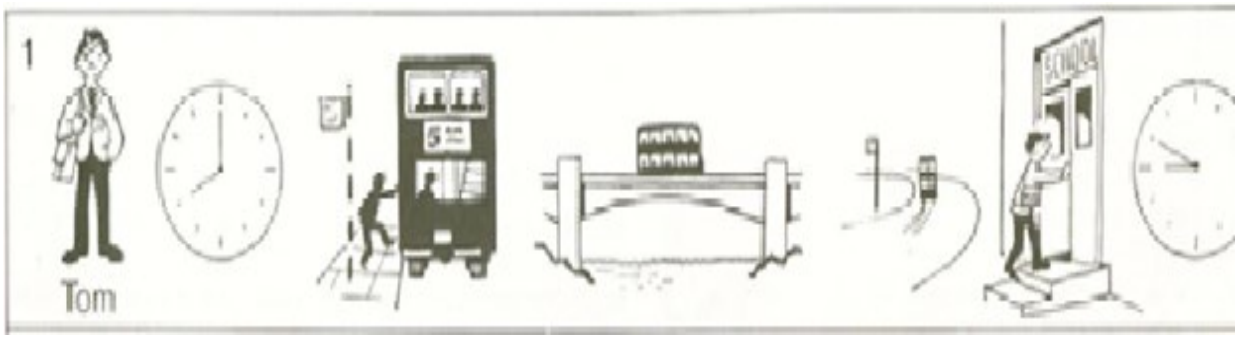
The following picture sequence shows some of the activities that Susan did over the last weekend. The activities are numbered from 1 to 9 according to the order in which they were done. You have **1 minute** to prepare and **2 minutes** to present Susan's weekend story. Try to use time expressions and connectors (e.g., after that, then, at 2 'o'clock, in the morning) to build a clear timeline in your story. You can take notes, but not in the form of complete sentences, as you are preparing. Begin your narrative with "Last weekend …".

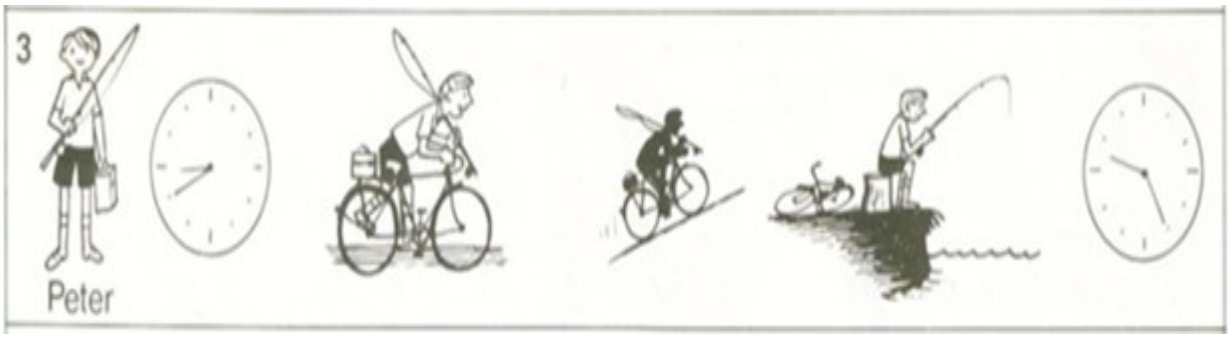
Susan's Weekend



Activity 7: Picture-Cued Oral Narrative (Session 2)

Each of the following four pictures shows what a person did yesterday. You have **1 minute** to prepare the story of each picture and **1 minute** to narrate the story. You can take notes, but not in the form of complete sentences. Begin your narrative with "Yesterday …"





Activity 8: Picture-Cued Oral Narrative (Session 2)

You and your friends took a week off from work last July and went to Banff. You are now telling your parents about your trip.

The following pictures show SOME of the activities that you did in Banff. Use the pictures to create a story of your vacation back in July. In addition to these pictures, use your imagination to add more events and activities to your story to make it as detailed as possible. You have **5 minutes** to prepare your story. You can take notes, but not in the form of complete sentences. Try to use different time expressions and connectors (e.g., the next day, in the morning, after that, before breakfast) to build a clear timeline in your story.

You are supposed to present the story twice: the first time within **3 minutes** and the second time within **2 minutes**.

Start your story with "Last summer, we…".






Activity 9: Open Question & Answer (Session 2)

Student A: For **1 minute,** think about your last birthday party (time, location, people, food, activities, etc.). Do not make any notes. Then say a sentence about it. Begin your first sentence with: *On my last birthday …*

If you did not celebrate your last birthday, you can talk about any birthday that you celebrated in the past. For example, you can talk about your birthday party when you were 10 years old. In this case, you can begin your first sentence with: *On my tenth birthday …*

Student B: Ask a follow-up question based on Student A' first sentence.

Continue the question/answer cycle for 2 to 3 minutes. The questions should be both Wh- and Yes/No, and the answers should be given in complete sentences. Then change roles and follow the same procedure. Here is an example for you:

Student A: On my last birthday, my family and I went to a restaurant.

Student B: Who did you go with?

Student A: I went with my parents.

Student B: Did you get any gifts?

Student A: Yes, they gave me a smartphone.

Activity 10: Oral Narrative (Session 2)

Now you have **1 minute** to prepare the story of your last birthday. You are not allowed to make notes at all. Then present your story twice with as much detail as possible: the first time within **3 minutes** and the second time within **2 minutes**.

Activity 11: Open Question & Answer (Session 3)

Student A: For **1 minute,** think about your last summer location (time, location, people, food, activities, etc.). Do not make any notes. Then say a sentence about it. Begin your first sentence with: *Last summer …*

If you did not go on any vacation last summer, you can talk about any vacation that you took in the past. For example, you can talk about your summer vacation two years ago. In this case, you can begin your first sentence with: *Two years ago …*

Student B: Ask a follow-up question based on Student A' first sentence.

Continue the question/answer cycle for 2 to 3 minutes. The questions should be both Wh- and Yes/No, and the answers should be given in complete sentences. Then change roles and follow the same procedure. Here is an example for you:

Example

Student A: Last summer, I went to Vancouver.

Student B: How did you go there?

Student A: I went there by bus.

Student B: Why did you go to Vancouver?

Student A: I wanted to visit my parents.

Activity 12: Oral Narrative (Session 3)

Now you have **1 minute** to think about your last summer vacation. You are not allowed to make notes at all. Then present your story twice with as much detail as possible: the first time within **3 minutes** and the second time within **2 minutes**.

Activity 13: Oral Narrative (Session 3)

Try to recall as much as you can about your first day of university (location, time, events, activities, professors, classmates, friends, etc.) in Canada or anywhere else. You have **3 minutes** to prepare an account of your first day of university; you are not allowed to make any notes. After that, you are supposed to present your story twice: the first time within **3 minutes** and the second time within **2 minutes**.

Activity 14: Oral Narrative (Session 3)

Describe a close friend from childhood. You can talk about his/her appearance and personality, what you liked about him/her, when and where you first met, how you met, and what activities you used to together. You have **3 minutes** to prepare a description of this friend; you are not allowed to make any notes. After that, you are supposed to present your story twice: the first time within **3 minutes** and the second time within **2 minutes**.

Appendix 3.5

Traditional Written Exercises

Exercise 1

Complete the following passages with the simple past form of an appropriate verb from the following list. There is one extra verb, and each verb may have to be used more than once.

Passage 1

Buy	**Arrive**	**Have**	**Celebrate**	**Prepare**	**Invite**
Clean	**Play**	**Be**	**Give**	**Offer**	**Finish**

I was born on July 3rd, 1998. Last year, I……. my 21st birthday in my grandparents' house. They live in an old farmhouse in the country with a beautiful view in the summertime. I……. my brother, my cousins, and some of my close friends to the party. Regrettably, my sister was out of town then, so she was not able to come. My grandparents ……. to help me with food. My grandmother made potato salad, and my grandfather ……. some grilled chicken. They ……. so tasty that little of it remained after the party. As for drinks and snacks, I ……. lemonade and homemade cookies from a farmers' market near my grandparents' house. My brother surprised me by baking a cake for my birthday. Usually, my mother baked my birthday cake; however, she ……. on a business trip last year. My birthday was on Wednesday, but last year I decided to have the party on Friday, which was July 4th. As some of the guests had to come from work, we decided to begin the party around 8:00 pm. Still, some of the quests ……. a little bit late because they were stuck in traffic. I think it was a fun night for everyone. We ……. games, listened to music, and danced. We had the cake after dinner and then I opened the gifts. My brother ……. me a camera, which I myself wanted to buy; I think he knew that I loved that camera. My cousins gave me a backpack, and my friends gave me a Harry Potter collection. Because everybody ……. the next day off, we continued the party until midnight. My friends left around 2:00 am, but my brother and cousins stayed over. We stayed up until 4:30 am and talked. The next day, we ……. the house and backyard and went back home afterwards.

Passage 2

Have	**Get**	**Receive**	**Invite**
Sing	**Be**	**Take**	**Stay**

On my last birthday, I ……. my brother, sister, and best friend, Susan, to a restaurant for dinner. What I liked the most about that restaurant was its menu that contained both local and international foods. We planned to meet at the restaurant at 6:30. However, because the restaurant was downtown and there ……. heavy traffic then, Susan arrived an hour late. For my next birthday, I am going to invite the same people to another restaurant that is not in a busy area. I was born on August 10th; that was a very hot, so we started with some cold drinks and then we ……. dinner. After that, I ……. a surprise. The waitress came with a chocolate cake and suddenly people at the restaurant ……. a happy birthday song for me. My sister baked the cake for me. I ……. some nice gifts, but the cake was my best birthday gift. After having the cake, we ……. some pictures. Then we went to a nearby bar and danced a lot. We ……. there until midnight.

Exercise 2

There are four sets of scrambled sentences, each is about a person's last birthday. Write the sentences using the words provided with simple past verbs.

Emily

1. Her cousins/Emily/To a restaurant/Invite
2. They/Start/And/Cold drinks/With/Snacks
3. Some/A little late/Of the guests/are
4. A surprise/Emily/After dinner/Have
5. A chocolate cake/Her sister/Bring

John

1. A school friend/John/After 18 years/Meet
2. She/A perfume/For his birthday/Get
3. Childhood memories/Talk /They /About
4. Invite/John/To his apartment/Her/For coffee
5. They/Pictures/Take/In his apartment

Sarah

1. A surprise party/Sarah/In the kitchen/Has
2. Sing/For her/Her parents/A special song
3. Give/Her parents/Her/A box of chocolate
4. They/To/Her favorite music/Listen
5. Sarah/Lunch/With her boyfriend/Eat

Sam

6. My birthday/Celebrate/My grandparents'/I/House/In

7. Invite/To/My cousins/Close/I/Friends/My/And
8. Decide/The party/To/We/At/Begin/Eight o'clock
9. Surprise/By baking/My brother/Me/A cake
10. Homemade/My grandmother/Cookies/Make

Exercise 3

There is a mistake in each of the following conversations. Find the mistakes and write the correct form.

1. A: Feng, did you go to work yesterday?
   B: Yes, I did. I work all afternoon.

2. A: Did Susan help you with the garden?
   B: Yes, and he does a good job.

3. A: Did it take you a long time to help your father?
   B: Yes, it takes me about three hours.

4. A: How many films did you watch last month?

   B: I watch four movies.

5. A: Why did Sarah come home late last night?
   B: She is in an accident on the way back home.

6. A: What time did you get to work this morning?
   B: At 10:30 am. I am late because I overslept.

7. A: When did you first meet your wife?
   B: I first meet her 10 years ago when I was 25 years old.

8. A: Are Sam and Sarah doing homework?
   B: No, they are not. But it is ok!

9. A: Did you pay for your parents' vacation last year?
   B: Yes, I did. They go on a trip to Vancouver.

10. A: Did you go out for dinner last night?
    B: No, Susan makes dinner for me at home.

11. A: Did you take Sam to the soccer game last Saturday?
    B: Yes, I take him in my car.

12. A: How did you learn to drive?
    B: My uncle teaches me how to drive.

13. A: What did your son do at school this morning?

B: You cannot believe it! He breaks three windows at school.

14. A: Susan, did you come back home late last night?
    B: Yes, I go to a bar with my friends after work.

15. A: Were you thirsty after the game last night?
    B: Yes, I was so thirsty that I drink two bottles of water right after the game.

16. A: Is Susan clean her room?

    B: No, she is not. She is writing a story.

17. A: How many miles did you run in the marathon last week?
    B: I run about 27 miles in just under two and a half hours.

18. A: What time does the party start?

    B: It start at 8:00 pm.

19. A: Why did you go to bed so late last night?
    B: I was not feeling well. I have a terrible headache last night.

20. Why did you wear a dress yesterday?
    B: I have an important appointment in the afternoon.

Exercise 4

Fill in the blanks in the following passages with the past form of the verbs provided. There are two extra verbs, and each verb may have to be used more than once.

Passage 1

Sleep	**Have**	**Be**	**See**	**Catch**	**Wash**
Play	**Go**	**Draw**	**Eat**	**Finish**	**Take**

David and Emily ---------- to Banff last summer. They ---------- in Banff for four days. On the first day, they ---------- some pictures in the national park. They also ---------- a grizzly bear and some deer from a distance. After that, they went to Bow River for fishing and ---------- two fish. The next day, they went on a hike in the national park. They ---------- in a campground in the park that night. They met with some people in the campground and ---------- volleyball with them. Emily is a painter. So, she ---------- a picture from a landscape in the park. On the last day of their trip, they ---------- a helicopter ride over Banff. After that, they ---------- Italian food in a restaurant near their hotel. At night, they ---------- to a concert near their hotel and they loved it. They drove back home the next day.

Passage 2

Make	**Write**	**Be**	**See**	**Rain**	**Stop**
Do	**Go**	**Stay**	**Eat**	**Call**	**Clean**

It ---------- all day long last Saturday, so Jane ---------- home. She ---------- lunch for her children, and they ---------- lunch together at 1:00 pm. After lunch, Jane ---------- her apartment, and her children ---------- their homework. She also ---------- her mother who was in the hospital. The rain ---------- the next day, and Jane and her children ---------- out for grocery shopping. It was a beautiful day! She also ---------- her mother in the hospital. Finally, at 10:00 pm, Jane and her children ---------- to bed.

Exercise 5

Part 1

The questions in the left-hand column are about a person's first day of school in Grade 1. Write an answer to each question using the cue words provided in the other column. The answers must be complete sentences, having a subject and verb.

Question	**Answer**
1. What was the teacher's name?	(Ms. Jones)
2. What time did he arrive at school?	(8:30 am)
3. Where did he sit in the classroom?	(Back row)
4. What did he eat for lunch?	(A sandwich)
5. What did he do during the break?	(Basketball)
6. What did he do in the first class?	(Painting a picture)
7. What time did he leave home in the morning?	(8:00 am)
8. Did he make any friends?	(A lot)
9. How did he go to school?	(Bus)
10. Where was the school?	(Near a shopping centre)
11. Did his mother take him to school?	(His brother)
12. What time did he return home?	(3:30 pm)

Part 2

The questions in the left-hand column are about a person's first day of school in Grade 1. Write an answer to each question using the cue words provided in the other column. The answers must be complete sentences, having a subject and verb.

Question	Answer
1. How did he go to school?	(On foot)
2. What time did he leave home?	(8:15 am)
3. What was the teacher's name?	(Ms. Anderson)
4. What time did he arrive at school?	(8:25 am)
5. What did he do during the break?	(Table tennis)
6. Did his older sister take him to school?	(His father)
7. Where did he sit in the classroom?	(First row)
8. Where was the school?	(Near his house)
9. What did he do during the first class?	('Find a Friend' game)
10. Did he make any friends?	(A few)
11. What did he eat for lunch?	(Pasta salad)
12. What time did he return home?	(2:30 pm)

Part 3

The questions in the left-hand column are about a person's first day of school in Grade 1. Write an answer to each question using the cue words provided in the other column. The answers must be complete sentences, having a subject and verb.

Questions	Answer
1. What time did you arrive at school?	(8:30 am)
2. How did you go to school?	(Train)
3. Where was your school?	(Downtown)
4. What time did you leave home?	(7:45 am)
5. What was the teacher's name?	(Mr. Coates)
6. What did you have for lunch?	(Hot dog)

7. What did you do during break?	(Basketball)
8. Did your older brother take you to school?	(His mother)
9. Where did you sit in the classroom?	(First row)
10. What did you do during the first class?	('Find someone who' activity)
11. Did you make any friends?	(Only one)
12. What time did you return home?	(3:30 pm)

Part 4

The questions in the left-hand column are about a person's first day of school in Grade 1. Write an answer to each question using the cue words provided in the other column. The answers must be complete sentences, having a subject and verb.

Questions	**Answer**
1. What time did you arrive at school?	(8:40)
2. How did you go to school?	(Taxi)
3. What time did you return home?	(4:30 pm)
4. What was the teacher's name?	(Mr. Yiling)
5. What did you have for lunch?	(Pizza)
6. Where was your school?	(Downtown)
7. What did you do during the break?	(Soccer)
8. Did your father take you to school?	(My sister)
9. Where did you sit in the classroom?	(Back of the classroom)
10. What did you do during the first class?	('Find someone who' activity)
11. What time did you leave home?	(8:15 am)
12. Did you make any friends?	(A few)

Exercise 6

There are a number of mistakes in each of the following conversations. Find them and write the correct form.

Conversation 1

Mr. Jones: Hello, I would like to report a car accident.

Officer: Thank you. What time did the accident happen?

Mr. Jones: It happens at 2:30 this afternoon.

Officer: Where did it happen?

Mr. Jones: On 107 Street and Whyte Avenue.

Officer: How did it happen?

Mr. Jones: A car runs into the avenue and the car in front of me stops. I hit the car.

Officer: Who called the police?

Mr. Jones: I did. And I take pictures, too.

Officer: Thank you for reporting the accident.

Conversation 2

Edward: What did you do yesterday?

Paul: I just stay at home and cleaned the house.

Edward: That sounds boring!

Paul: Yes, it does. What did you do yesterday?

Edward: My friends and I drive to the mountains.

Paul: That sounds fun! What did you do there?

Edward: We went hiking. I have a great time.

Conversation 3

Jane: I once drove without a driver's license.

Rob: When did you do that?

Jane: About five years ago. I am fourteen, and I drove to my grandfather's house.

Rob: Why did you drive there?

Jane: My grandfather calls and said he was sick. My parents are away that day and there was no bus to their house.

Rob: So what happened?

Jane: Well, I drive to his house and take her to the hospital.

Rob: How long did it take you to reach your grandfather's house?

Jane: About thirty minutes.

Exercise 7

There are a number of mistakes in each of the following conversations. Find them and write the correct form.

Conversation 1

Sam: How was your weekend?

David: Sunday evening is fantastic.

Sam: Where were you?

David: At a basketball game.

Sam: How was the game?

David: It is exciting and tough.

Sam: How long was it?

David: One hour.

Sam: Who did you go with?

David: I go with my brother.

Sam: How was the weather?

David: It was very cold.

Conversation 2

Anna: Mike, how often did you work out when you were a student?

Mike: I work out six or seven days a week.

Anna: Did you ever get tired?

Mike: I am always tired at that time. But I enjoyed the gym.

Anna: Ok. How often did you travel when you were a student?

Mike: I travel five times a year then.

Anna: Did your girlfriend get unhappy because you travelled a lot?

Mike: No, she never gets unhappy. She always travels with me when we were together.

Conversation 3

Judy: This is a picture of me when I was fifteen years old.

Roy: You are kidding!

Judy: No. Really. I wear glasses and my hair is long at that time.

Roy: Who is the other girl?

Judy: She is my best friend at that time. Her name was Lauren.

Roy: She looks very unhappy in this picture.

Judy: Yes. We play cards almost every day. Here she loses the game and was very unhappy.

Roy: Where is she now?

Judy: I do not know. Her family move to another city one year after taking this photo, and we lost contact.

Conversation 4

Jane: I am really hungry today. I did not have breakfast.

Allen: Why? What time did you get up today?

Jane: I get up at 8:15. I just drink a glass of orange juice.

Allen: Did you stay up late last night?

Jane: Yes, I did.

Allen: Why?

Jane: Well, first I babysat for my sister. Then I buy some medicine for my father.

Allen: Did you write your essay for English 102?

Jane: Yes, I did.

Exercise 8

The first passage below is about someone's first day of university and the second one is about someone's childhood friend. Fill in the blanks with the past form of appropriate verbs.

Passage 1: First Day of University

I …… school in January 2015, at a prestigious university in Canada. My first class …… at eight o'clock. Since I lived out of town, I …… home around 6:00 am. But I …… the university bus, so I had to take a taxi. I was a little late that day. When I …… the classroom, I was shocked. I had never seen such a big classroom with so many students. I …… at the back of the room next to a girl. Her name …… Ashley. Over the break, Ashley and I …… to the university cafeteria. Many of the students from the first class …… there. After the second

class, we …… lunch together at a nearby restaurant. I …… home after lunch, and it …… me almost one hour to reach home. After that day, I …… to rent a house near the campus.

Passage 2: A Childhood Friend

My name is Takashi. When I …… a child, I was a very shy boy. My family and I …… in a small town near Tokyo. My best friend, Tysuke, and I ……. to the same elementary school. We …… both eight years old. Tysuke ……. near my house, so we spent a lot of time together. We ……. cartoons on TV, played games, and ……. our homework together. After elementary school, Tysuke's family ……. to Tokyo. We kept in touch until we ……. high school. After that, my family moved to Tokyo, too, and we decided to rent a house in their neighbourhood.

Exercise 9

There are six cue cards below, each containing seven prompts about a person's last summer holiday. Write a sentence in past tense about each prompt.

Emily
Where: Banff
1**.**
Accommodation: hotel
2.
Visiting sites: Banff Park Museum
3.
Who with: Two old friends
4.
Food: Chinese & Mexican food
5.
Weather: sunny and hot
6.
Souvenirs: a cup & a travel pillow

Sarah
Where: Toronto
1.
Accommodation: Her brother's house
2.
Visiting sites: CN Tower
3.
Food: only Fast food & Chinese food
4.
Who with: Her cousin
5.
Weather: Windy
6.
Souvenirs: a hockey jersey

John	David
Where: Montreal	**Where:** Victoria
1.	1.
Accommodation: hotel	**Accommodation:** his close friend's house
2.	2.
Visiting Sites: Montreal museum	**Visiting Sites:** Royal BC Museum
3.	3.
Special food: mostly sushi & Chinese food	**Special food**: mostly seafood
4.	4.
Who with: his girlfriend	**Who with:** his brothers
5.	5.
Weather: very hot	**Weather:** hot & humid every day
6.	6.
Souvenirs: a pair of ski boots	**Souvenirs:** an iron teapot

Exercise 10

Two friends are talking about a celebrity that one of them saw yesterday. Complete the following conversation using the cue words in parentheses. You have to write complete questions and answers.

A: Guess what? I saw Fan Bingbing yesterday.

B: Really? ……..? (See)

A: ……. (Wangfujing Street).

B: ……...? (See)

A: ……. (6:00 in the evening).

B: ……...? (Look like)

A: Like Fan Bingbing! …….. (Gorgeous and well-dressed).

B: Did you ……...? (Talk)

A: Yes, I ……. (Asking for her autograph).

B: ……...? (Do)

A: ……. (Writing her name on a T-shirt). Do you want to see her signature?

B: Sure! ……..? (Be)

A: Yes, she ……. (Very friendly and approachable).

Exercise 11

Two friends are talking about a celebrity that one of them saw yesterday. Complete the following conversation using the cue words in parentheses. You have to write complete questions and answers.

A: Guess what? I saw Kris Wu yesterday.

B: Really? ……..? (See)

A: ……. (Quianmen Street).

B: ……...? (See)

A: ……. (11:00 in the morning).

B: ……...? (Look like)

A: Like a prince!
……. (Tall and handsome).

B: Did you ……...? (Talk)

A: Yes, I ……. (Asking for a selfie and his autograph).

B: ……...? (Do)

A: ……. (Writing his name on a piece of paper and a selfie with my phone.

B: ……...? (Be)

A: Yes, he ……. (Very welcoming and modest)

Exercise 12

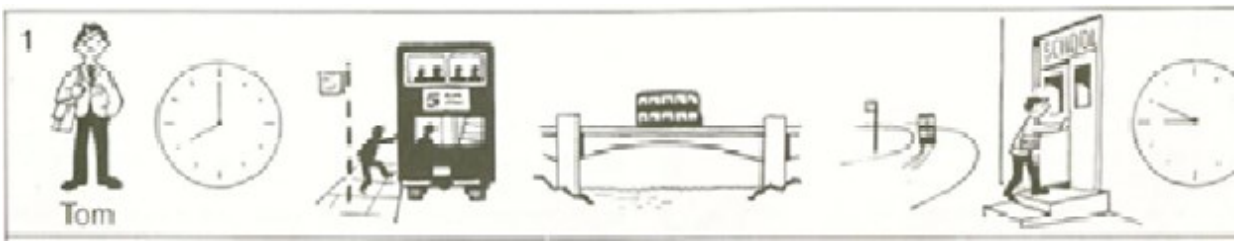
Complete the following passages with the simple past form of an appropriate verb.

Justin Bieber ……. Born in 1994, Stratford, Ontario, Canada. As a child, he ……. a lot of interest in music. He ……. to perform when he ……. 12 years old. He ……. a local talent competition. He ……. the opportunity of posting his performances in YouTube. The videos ……. the attention of talent agent Scooter Braun. Later on, Usher Raymond ……. Bieber to sign a record deal. In 2009, his first single "One Time" ……. a worldwide hit. His first album, "My World", ……. out on March 19, 2010, and ……. very successful internationally. He also ……. a successful concert film in 2011. In 2000, he ……. the role of a younger killer in a film. Bieber has a large and loyal fanbase and continues with a hugely successful music career. He ……. a Grammy Award in 2015.

Exercise 13

Each of the following four pictures shows what a person did yesterday. Write two sentences describing each picture. You can use any of the verbs in the following list. You can use time expressions such as *Yesterday, At 10 o'clock* etc.

Take	**Go**	**Reach**	**Arrive**	**Buy**
Catch	**Leave**	**Swim**	**Do**	**Ride**



Tom

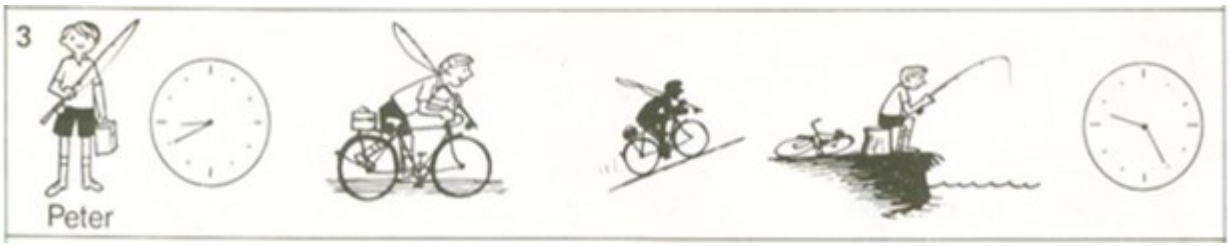
1.

2.

Mary

1.

2.



Peter

1.

2.

Anna

1.

2.

Exercise 14

Part 1

The following pictures show what David did last weekend. Use an appropriate verb from the list below (each verb may be used more than once) to write a sentence in past tense describing each picture. For each sentence, add a time expression of your choice (e.g., at 10:30 pm).

Take	**Study**	**Play**	**Have**	**Wash**	**Go**	**Wake up**
Do	**Get up**	**Watch**	**Make**	**Eat**	**Play**	**Buy**

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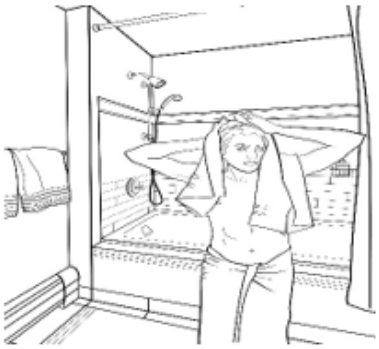


9

Part 2

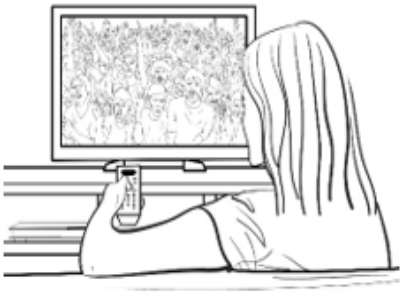
The following pictures show what Kate did last weekend. Use an appropriate verb from the list below (each verb may be used more than once) to write a sentence in past tense describing each picture. For each sentence, add a time expression of your choice (e.g., at 10:30 pm).

Take	**Make**	**Play**	**Have**	**Wash**	**Go**	**Wake up**
Do	**Get up**	**Watch**	**Read**	**Eat**	**Study**	**Visit**

1

2

3



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Appendix 3.6

Exit Questionnaire

How do you feel about the practice activities and alibi game that you did?	Level of agreement				
	Strongly disagree ---------- Strongly agree				
	1	2	3	4	5
1. The practice activities were fun to do (i.e., I enjoyed doing them).					
2. Practice activities like these can help me improve my speaking skill.					
3. Practice activities like these can help me use my grammar knowledge in speaking correctly.					
4. Practice activities like these can help me use my grammar knowledge in speaking fast, without spending too much time thinking about how to use it.					
5. Practice activities like these can help me use my grammar knowledge in writing correctly.					
6. Practice activities like these can increase my confidence in using my grammar knowledge in speaking.					
7. Practice activities like these can increase my confidence in using my grammar knowledge in writing.					
8. Practice activities like these can increase my confidence in using English out of class.					
9. The alibi game was fun to do (i.e., I enjoyed doing it).					
10. During the alibi game, my main focus was on convincing the officer to accept my alibi.					
11. During the alibi game, my main focus was on using grammar correctly.					
Comments (Optional):					

Appendix 4.1

Elicited Imitation Test (Version 1 with '+Explicit' instructions)

This test includes 52 statements about different topics from history to natural world, sports, science, cultural and social issues, and famous people's lives. Here is how you are supposed to do this test:

1. Listen to each statement and decide if it is true or false, or if you are not sure about it. You can indicate your opinion by pressing left shift key if it is *True*, right shift key if it is *False,* and backspace key if you are *Unsure*. You have just **5** seconds for making your choice.
2. After indicating your opinion, you will hear a beep sound. Immediately after the beep sound, (1) if the statement is grammatical, repeat it as it is and (2) if the statement is ungrammatical, repeat it in *correct* English. You have just **10** seconds to repeat the statement. After that, you will be asked to press the *Space key* to go to the next statement.

Please note that you will hear each statement only once, and you are not allowed to repeat it more than once.

Let's first do a practice test with three statements to make sure that you are familiar with the procedure of the test. You will be provided with feedback at the end of this training session.

1. In two thousand and seven, Yao Ming marries Ye Li in China.
2. Germans made the first telephone in the world one hundred years ago.
3. Until last year, Obama is the president of Canada.
4. Horror movies can cause violence in society.
5. Xi Jinping became the president of China six years ago.
6. In the past, the Chinese are poorer but healthier.
7. Most of the Chinese celebrities live in Beijing and Shanghai.
8. Hitler visited China and Japan twice before World War one.
9. Two hundred years ago, Jane Austen writes love stories about marriage.
10. Bruce Lee was a famous actor in China in the twentieth century.
11. Chinese people enjoy to eat seafood and vegetables.
12. China won the Women's Football World Cup in twenty fifteen.
13. At age twenty, Steve Jobs studies computer science at Harvard.
14. The United States has a larger population than Canada.
15. The Chinese were poorer but healthier in the past.
16. Bruce Lee died at his house in China at age fifty.
17. Barack Obama and his family is now living in the suburb of New York.
18. Two years ago, Obama is the president of the United States.
19. Yao Ming married Ye Li in China in two thousand and seven.
20. New York is more big and expensive than most of the cities in the United States.
21. Before starting his business, Steve Jobs teaches at a school in Texas.
22. One hundred years ago, World War one finishes in Europe and Asia.
23. Xi Jinping has been the president of China since twenty-thirteen.

24. Canada bought some commercial planes from France last year.
25. Steve Jobs studied computer science at Harvard at age twenty.
26. Doctors usually recommend doing exercises to people with diabetes.
27. Obama was the president of the United States two years ago.
28. Six years ago, Xi Jinping becomes the president of China.
29. In the last century, the Chinese are mostly farmers and drivers.
30. Rich people should to donate a lot of money to charities.
31. The Chinese discovered tea and coffee by accident two thousand years ago.
32. One hundred years ago, Germans make the first telephone in the world.
33. The Amazon River is more longer than most of the rivers in the world.
34. Bruce Lee was an actor in his childhood.
35. Before World War one, Hitler visits China and Japan twice.
36. Jane Austen wrote love stories about marriage two hundred years ago.
37. *Princess Diana's death are still a mystery.*
38. The Chinese were mostly farmers and drivers in the last century.
39. Last year, Canada buys some commercial planes from France.
40. Chinese people can to speak both Mandarin and Cantonese.
41. Steve Jobs taught at a school in Texas before starting his business.
42. In the twentieth century, Bruce Lee is a famous actor in China.
43. Most Chinese people plan having more than one child.
44. At age fifty, Bruce Lee dies at his house in China.
45. Obama was the president of Canada until last year.
46. Pregnant women must eat healthy food and exercise every day.
47. In twenty fifteen, China wins the Women's Football World Cup.
48. Five thousand years ago, the Chinese discovers tea and coffee by accident.
49. Mount Everest is higher than the other mountains in the world.
50. In the twentieth century, Bruce Lee is a famous actor in China.
51. World War one finished in Europe and Asia one hundred years ago.
52. Chinese people want to make their country clean and green.

Elicited Imitation Test (Version 2 with 'Explicit' instructions)

This test includes 52 statements about different topics from history to natural world, sports, science, cultural and social issues, and famous people's lives. Here is how you are supposed to do this test:

1. Listen to each statement and decide if it is true or false, or if you are not sure about it. You can indicate your opinion by pressing left shift key if it is *True*, right shift key if it is *False,* and backspace key if you are *Unsure*. You have just **5** seconds for making your choice.
2. After indicating your opinion, you will hear a beep sound. Immediately after the beep sound, repeat the statement in *correct* English. You have just **10** seconds to repeat the statement. After that, you will be asked to press the *Space key* to go to the next statement.

Please note that you will hear each statement only once, and you are not allowed to repeat it more than once.

Let's first do a practice test with three statements to make sure that you are familiar with the procedure of the test. You will be provided with feedback at the end of this training session.

1. In two thousand and seven, Yao Ming married Ye Li in China.
2. Germans make the first telephone in the world one hundred years ago.
3. Until last year, Obama was the president of Canada.
4. Horror movies can cause violence in society.
5. Xi Jinping becomes the president of China six years ago.
6. In the past, the Chinese were poorer but healthier.
7. Most of the Chinese celebrities live in Beijing and Shanghai.
8. Hitler visits China and Japan twice before World War one.
9. Two hundred years ago, Jane Austen wrote love stories about marriage.
10. Bruce Lee is a famous actor in China in the twentieth century.
11. Chinese people enjoy to eat seafood and vegetables.
12. China wins the Women's Football World Cup in twenty fifteen.
13. At age twenty, Steve Jobs studied computer science at Harvard.
14. The United States has a larger population than Canada.
15. The Chinese are poorer but healthier in the past.
16. Bruce Lee dies at his house in China at age fifty.
17. Barack Obama and his family is now living in the suburb of New York.
18. Two years ago, Obama was the president of the United States.
19. Yao Ming marries Ye Li in China in two thousand and seven.
20. New York is more big and expensive than most of the cities in the United States.
21. Before starting his business, Steve Jobs taught at a school in Texas.
22. One hundred years ago, World War one finished in Europe and Asia.
23. Xi Jinping has been the president of China since twenty-thirteen.
24. Canada buys some commercial planes from France last year.
25. Steve Jobs studies computer science at Harvard at age twenty.
26. Doctors usually recommend doing exercises to people with diabetes.
27. Obama is the president of the United States two years ago.
28. Six years ago, Xi Jinping became the president of China.
29. In the last century, the Chinese were mostly farmers and drivers.
30. Rich people should to donate a lot of money to charities.
31. The Chinese discover tea and coffee by accident two thousand years ago.
32. One hundred years ago, Germans made the first telephone in the world.
33. The Amazon River is more longer than most of the rivers in the world.
34. Bruce Lee is an actor in his childhood.
35. Before World War one, Hitler visited China and Japan twice.
36. Jane Austen writes love stories about marriage two hundred years ago.
37. *Princess Diana's death are still a mystery.*

38. The Chinese are mostly farmers and drivers in the last century.
39. Last year, Canada bought some commercial planes from France.
40. Chinese people can to speak both Mandarin and Cantonese.
41. Steve Jobs teaches at a school in Texas before starting his business.
42. In the twentieth century, Bruce Lee was a famous actor in China.
43. Most Chinese people plan having more than one child.
44. At age fifty, Bruce Lee died at his house in China.
45. Obama is the president of Canada until last year.
46. Pregnant women must eat healthy food and exercise every day.
47. In twenty fifteen, China won the Women's Football World Cup.
48. Five thousand years ago, the Chinese discovered tea and coffee by accident.
49. Mount Everest is higher than the other mountains in the world.
50. In the twentieth century, Bruce Lee was a famous actor in China.
51. World War one finishes in Europe and Asia one hundred years ago.
52. Chinese people want to make their country clean and green.

Appendix 4.2

Picture-Cued Oral Narrative Task

Fifty years ago, there was a man who immigrated to another country for work and better life condition. When he reached there, he had several problems as a newcomer. You have a sequence of pictures that show some of the challenges that he encountered in the new country over the first week of his stay. You may see strange objects, tools, animals, food items etc. in the pictures. This is just to indicate that everything looks different for people who immigrate to a new country. You do not have to name them; just use general words such as animal, fruit, or food to refer to them.

Here is what you are supposed to do:

(1) You have **2 minutes** to go over the pictures and prepare your story. Try to figure out what each picture shows and what the whole story is. To make a structured story, use time adverbials and conjunctions such as: after that, then, therefore, first, next, finally, etc. Do not use passive and negative sentences in your story. Note that you are not allowed to take any notes when you are preparing your story.
(2) You have **3 minutes** to tell the story. Make sure that in your narrative you describe all of the pictures.

This is the beginning of the story: "*Fifty years ago, there was a man who immigrated to another country for work and better life condition. One day…".* Now complete the story using the pictures. Note that you do not need to repeat the opening sentence.

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Appendix 4.3

Error Correction Test

Decide if each of the following sentences is grammatically correct or not. If correct, write 'C' in front of it. If incorrect, underline the error and write the correct form. You will receive 1 point for a correct judgment (i.e., deciding whether the sentence is correct or incorrect) and 1 point for providing the correct form. This test does not have a set time limit.

1. His mother dies when he was nine years old.
2. Sam and I are alone last weekend, so we decided to invite some friends over for dinner.
3. My car is more expensive than your car.
4. The team wins all of the games in the last Olympic games.
5. Dan is home when I called him last night.
6. I visit the Science Museum on my last trip to London.
7. I go around her house last night to find out what was wrong.
8. The world's population increases a lot in the first half of the twentieth century.
9. The company makes only furniture when it opened in 1999.
10. Tim and Sarah are both ill when we saw them last night.
11. My room is modern than her room although it is smaller than hers.
12. The museum buys the painting in New York last month.
13. You should to take your jacket with you because it may rain.
14. Her parents teach her two languages when she was 10 years old.
15. He finishes second in the 100 meters in the last Olympic Games.
16. James is with me at the library yesterday afternoon.
17. I have three children, one son and two daughters.
18. He writes several letters to her last month, but she did not reply.
19. Sam and Terry are in David's house last night.
20. My parents study French literature after their marriage.
21. Drivers must stop when the traffic lights are red.
22. Susan and Tom marry when they were twenty years old.
23. She is at the cinema yesterday evening.
24. Sarah is going to buy several new book.

Appendix 4.4

Metalinguistic Knowledge Test

In each of the following nine sentences, there is a grammatical problem that is underlined. Here is what you are supposed to do:

(1) Write an explanation of the error. A correct explanation receives **2 points,** an incomplete or partially correct explanation receives **1 point**, and an incorrect explanation receives **0 points**. Note that you do not have to use technical terms such as 'subject' or 'object in your explanation. Also, grammatical and vocabulary mistakes in your explanation do not matter as far as your explanation is understandable.

(2) Write the correct form of the error. You will be given **1 point** for providing the correct form.

This test does not have a set time limit.

1. I <u>study</u> Spanish when I was a university student in England.

Explanation:

Correct form: ----------

2. The teacher <u>begins</u> the class at 8:30 am yesterday but at 9:00 am today.

Explanation:

Correct form: ----------

3. I <u>am</u> at home with my brother all day yesterday.

Explanation:

Correct form: ----------

4. The children <u>play</u> basketball in school yard yesterday afternoon.

Explanation:

Correct form: ----------

5. When she <u>is</u> in Paris last summer, she met a nice French guy.

Explanation:

Correct form: ----------

6. Natasha <u>goes</u> to the United States four months ago to visit her sister.

Explanation:

Correct form: ----------

Appendix 4.5

A Questionnaire about the Imitation Test

Part 1

1. While you were doing the test, were you thinking about:
   a. Making a correct judgment about the content of the sentences
   b. Correctly repeating the sentences.
   c. Both **a** and **b**
   d. Neither **a** nor **b**
   e. Other (Please explain): ----------
   ----
2. Did you notice any grammatical errors in the test?
   Yes ☐ No ☐
3. If you noticed any errors, how frequently did you notice them? Check one of the following.
   Never ☐ Rarely ☐ Sometimes ☐ Usually ☐ Always ☐
4. List <u>at most five</u> grammatical structures that you think were incorrectly used in the test. Then indicate how frequently you remember the errors of each structure occurred. (The present perfect tense is an example of a grammatical structure)
   1. .....
      Never ☐ Rarely ☐ Sometimes ☐ Usually ☐ Always ☐
   2. .....
      Never ☐ Rarely ☐ Sometimes ☐ Usually ☐ Always ☐
   3. .....
      Never ☐ Rarely ☐ Sometimes ☐ Usually ☐ Always ☐
   4. .....
      Never ☐ Rarely ☐ Sometimes ☐ Usually ☐ Always ☐
   5. .....
      Never ☐ Rarely ☐ Sometimes ☐ Usually ☐ Always ☐

Part 2

1. Did you make any corrections in the statements as you were repeating them?

   Yes ☐ No ☐

2. If you made any corrections, how frequently did you do that? Check one of the following.

   Never ☐ Rarely ☐ Sometimes ☐ Usually ☐ Always ☐

3. How frequently did you correct the errors of each of the grammatical structures listed in Part 1 (Question 3)? Write the grammatical structure and check one of the frequency indicators for it.

   1. .....

      Never ☐ Rarely ☐ Sometimes ☐ Usually ☐ Always ☐

   2. .....

      Never ☐ Rarely ☐ Sometimes ☐ Usually ☐ Always ☐

   3. .....

      Never ☐ Rarely ☐ Sometimes ☐ Usually ☐ Always ☐

   4. .....

      Never ☐ Rarely ☐ Sometimes ☐ Usually ☐ Always ☐

   5. .....

      Never ☐ Rarely ☐ Sometimes ☐ Usually ☐ Always ☐

4. If you did not make any correction, please explain why.