EFFECTS OF TASK-BASED INSTRUCTION AND NOTICING THE GAP
ON ENGLISH SPEAKING ABILITY OF UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS

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A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

for the Degree of Master of Education Program in Teaching English as a Foreign Language

Department of Curriculum and Instruction

Faculty of Education

Chulalongkorn University

Academic Year 2014

ผลของการสอนแบบเน้นงานปฏิบัติและการสังเกตความแตกต่างทางภาษาที่มีต่อความสามารถในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษของนักศึกษาปริญญาตรี

นางสาวดวงกมล คลังทอง

Thesis Title	EFFECTS OF TASK-BASED INSTRUCTION AND NOTICING THE GAP ON ENGLISH SPEAKING ABILITY OF UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS
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Accepted by the Faculty of Education, Chulalongkorn University in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Master's Degree

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ดวงกมล คลังทอง : ผลของการสอนแบบเน้นงานปฏิบัติและการสังเกตความแตกต่างทาง
ภาษาที่มีต่อความสามารถในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษของนักศึกษาปริญญาตรี (EFFECTS OF
TASK-BASED INSTRUCTION AND NOTICING THE GAP ON ENGLISH SPEAKING
ABILITY OF UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS) อ.ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก: ราเชน มีศรี,
232 หน้า.

การวิจัยนี้มีจุดประสงค์เพื่อ (1) ศึกษาผลของการสอนแบบเน้นงานปฏิบัติและการสังเกต
ความแตกต่างทางภาษาที่มีต่อความสามารถในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษ (2) ศึกษาความคิดเห็นของ
นักศึกษาที่มีต่อการสอนแบบเน้นงานปฏิบัติและการสังเกตความแตกต่างทางภาษาที่มีต่อ
ความสามารถในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษ กลุ่มตัวอย่างประกอบด้วยนักศึกษาชั้นปี 1 ปีการศึกษา 2557
สถาบันกรุงเทพคริสตศาสนศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยคริสเตียนจำนวน 18 คนในวิธีวิจัยเชิงปริมาณ และ
นักศึกษา 6 คนจาก 18 คนในวิธีวิจัยเชิงคุณภาพ เครื่องมือวิจัยที่ใช้เก็บข้อมูลได้แก่แบบทดสอบการ
พูดภาษาอังกฤษก่อนและหลังเรียน การถอดเสียง การเก็บข้อมูลย้อนหลังโดยวิธีการบอกกระบวนการ
คิด และคำถามสัมภาษณ์ การวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลเชิงปริมาณใช้ Wilcoxon signed ranks test และการ
วิเคราะห์ข้อมูลเชิงคุณภาพใช้การวิเคราะห์เนื้อหา

ผลการวิจัยพบว่า (1) คะแนนความสามารถในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษหลังเรียนของนักเรียนสูง
กว่าคะแนนก่อนเรียนอย่างมีนัยสำคัญทางสถิติที่ระดับ $p < 0.05$ และคะแนนเพิ่มสูงขึ้นในชิ้นงานที่
ต้องการคำพูดที่สั้นมากกว่าชิ้นงานที่ต้องการคำพูดที่ยาว นักศึกษาสังเกตไวยากรณ์และความถูกต้อง
ได้มากที่สุด รองลงมาคือความคล่องและสหนัย การออกเสียง และคำศัพท์ ตามลำดับ (2) นักศึกษา
รู้สึกเชิงบวกต่อการสอน เช่น ได้เรียนรู้ด้วยวิธีใหม่ และมีความมั่นใจในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษ อย่างไรก็
ตามมีปัญหาเกี่ยวกับนักศึกษาเกิดขึ้น เช่น นักศึกษาบางคนไม่สามารถสร้างสารที่ตั้งใจได้อย่างถูกต้อง
และขาดความมั่นใจในการสังเกตความแตกต่างทางภาษาคนเดียว

ภาควิชา	หลักสูตรและการสอน	ลายมือชื่อนิสิต	....
สาขาวิชา	การสอนภาษาอังกฤษเป็น	ลายมือชื่อ อ.ที่ปรึกษาหลัก	....
	ภาษาต่างประเทศ		
ปีการศึกษา	2557		

5583388027 : MAJOR TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

KEYWORDS: TASK-BASED INSRTUCTION / NOTICING THE GAP / ENGLISH SPEAKING ABILITY / TRANSCRIPTIONS / STIMULATED RECALL

DUANGKAMON KLUNGTHONG: EFFECTS OF TASK-BASED INSTRUCTION AND NOTICING THE GAP ON ENGLISH SPEAKING ABILITY OF UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS. ADVISOR: MAJOR RA-SHANE MEESRI, Ph.D., 232 pp.

The objectives of the study were to: (1) investigate the effects of task-based instruction and noticing the gap on students' English speaking ability; and (2) explore students' opinions toward the use of task-based instruction and noticing the gap on English speaking ability. The participants were 18 first-year students in the first semester of the academic year 2014 at Bangkok Institute of Theology, Christian University of Thailand for the quantitative method; and 6 out of the 18 students for the qualitative method. The data collection instruments were English speaking pre-test and post-test, transcriptions, stimulated recall, and interview questions. Wilcoxon signed ranks test was used for quantitative data analysis, and content analysis was used for qualitative data analysis.

The results revealed that (1) the students' English speaking ability post-test scores were higher than the pre-test scores at a significant level ($p<0.05$). The scores increased in the task that required short utterances more than those that required long utterances. The students noticed grammatical range and accuracy the most, then fluency and coherence, pronunciation, and lexical resource respectively. (2) The students felt positive toward the instruction e.g. they experienced a new way of learning and became confident in speaking English. However, some problems occurred regarding the students e.g. some of them could not correctly form the intended messages and lacked confidence to notice the gap alone.

Department:	Curriculum and	Student's Signature	....
	Instruction	Advisor's Signature	....
Field of Study:	Teaching English as a		
	Foreign Language		
Academic Year:	2014		

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter includes the importance of English speaking ability, the background of task-based instruction, and noticing the gap. It then leads to the study on effects of task-based instruction and notice the gap on English speaking ability of undergraduate students.

1.1 Background of the study

Speaking is one of the four main skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) in language teaching and learning. It is common in our daily life and people do not pay attention to it until they learn a foreign language and realize how hard to master this skill (Thornbury, 2005). What people overlook in everyday life are "the myriad physical, mental, psychological, social, and cultural factors that must all work together when we speak" (Bailey, 2005, p. 2). The characteristics of spoken language, which can make speaking either easy or difficult are clustering, redundancy, reduced forms, performance variables, colloquial language, rate of delivery, stress, rhythm, intonation, and interaction (Brown, 2001). Thus, speaking is complex; it requires expertise of certain skills and different types of knowledge (Thornbury, 2005). Regardless of difficulties people may encounter in learning to speak a foreign language, having a good command of English is necessary nowadays, because it is

used worldwide in many sectors of the society such as education, job industry, economy, politics, art and culture etc. English is a compulsory subject in schools around the world. People who can speak English certainly have great advantage in many areas of competition, which English has served its speakers almost half a century (Graddol, 2006).

When talking about studying English in Thailand, English is considered a foreign language (EFL) as the language is used only inside classrooms and there is little or no context for English communication in daily life (Brown, 2001). As a result, the chance for the majority of Thai people to speak English is rare, which even obstructs or retards the possibility to have a good command of spoken English. However, as Thailand has recently become one of the members of ASEAN Economic Community (ACE), there is a social need for its people to be able to communicate with the people in ASEAN because communication is a means to facilitate economic growth, strengthening relationships, and sharing knowledge and culture. English speaking, as a productive oral skill, is likely to play an important role; therefore, Thai people need to develop English speaking skill.

Task-based instruction (TBI) has been used to promote speaking or oral communication. It has distinctive features in focusing primarily on meaning and communication to achieve outcome (Nunan, 2004; Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Willis, 1996). It also promotes students to be active to take risk, create communication, and

notice the language use (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). The fact that tasks encourage students to interact with the focus on meaning from the start helps them to naturally acquire language (Willis, 1996).

On the other hand, because of its great emphasis on meaning and task outcome, it may draw students away from focus on form and may not help improve their interlanguage, because students will only learn how to do tasks, use strategies, and rely only on vocabulary (Skehan, 1996). Task-based approach stems from communicative approach (R. Hughes, 2002). However, the problem of communicative approach is that it mostly overlooks the language structure including phonology, morphology, and syntax. Furthermore, most wrong production of sounds, words, structures while students performing tasks seems not to disappear by means of communicative interaction (Hammerly, 1991). In sum, Skehan (1996) agreed on the justification to use task-based instruction due to its primary connection with acquisition processes, and support from research. Still, it should focus on both form and meaning, and take a role of consciousness for language learning from psycholinguistics to help manage students' focus.

Noticing is considered consciousness as awareness (Schmidt, 2011). Schmidt (2011), the advocate of noticing hypothesis, claimed that noticing is necessary for learning to take place and it is the process of paying conscious attention to the language in the input. Besides the idea of noticing alone, Schmidt and Frota (1986)

proposed the idea 'noticing the gap'. It means students notice the gap between their current interlanguage as shown in their output and the way native or proficient speakers produce the language, and students must notice the gap before they can make needful changes in their proficiency. Furthermore, Ellis (2003) said that it means students' awareness that they cannot produce something in second language or produced them improperly. Krashen (1983) mentioned the importance of noticing the gap that acquisition will occur when acquires notice a difference between their current form i and the new form i+1. If it shows a gap, then the new form can cause acquisition. Schmidt (2001) said that noticing is the essential starting point for learning.

A number of research studies relevant to noticing the gap have done with English writing in a pre- and post-test design. The focus was on a few grammatical forms through a output-input-output sequence in one writing task; for example, a picture description task, or a text reconstruction writing task (Adams, 2003; Hanaoka & Izumi, 2012; Izumi, 2002; Leeser, 2008; Swain & Lapkin, 1995; Uggen, 2012). Some research studies were conducted by the researcher meeting one-on-one with the students (e.g. Swain & Lapkin, 1995; Uggen, 2012) or by dividing the students in groups but each one did individual work (e.g. Izumi, 2002; Leeser, 2008). Some had students do pair work first and do individual work later (e.g. Adams, 2003). The students were ESL and EFL university students who had relatively good English.

Some research studies on noticing employed speaking tasks such as a role play or a picture carousel task (T. Lynch, 2001, 2007; Mackey, 2006; Stillwell et al., 2009). In such work except Mackey (2006), transcribing was used as a means to noticing. However, Lynch (2011, 2007) and Stillwell et al. (2009) used only one task and lasted for a couple weeks. The students were also postgraduate or university students who already had good English skill as those in Lynch (2001) study had IELTS score 5.5; those in Lynch (2007) had IELTS 4.5-7.5; and those in Stillwell (2009) were in the second highest tier due to the in-house placement test. Their work did not give details of noticed linguistic features. Mackey (2006) studied the relationship between feedback and noticing of three grammar forms, which were questions, plurals, and past tense. However, the class time was only three hours. The students had already good English skill as the mean score of TOEFL was 529.5. The results showed the number of the students who noticed and developed.

It can be said that most research studies on noticing so far are conducted with writing skill, but fewer with speaking skill. When they are conducted with speaking skill, transcribing is a useful route to noticing or editing the language. These studies employed only one task research design, which lasted for a few hours to a couple weeks; therefore, they revealed merely a short language learning event which may not be enough to explain noticing in a long term. Besides, only students with relatively good command of English participated in these studies. Moreover, Schmidt

(2011) stated that skill level including the automaticity affects noticing since students who can easily attend to both meaning and form at the same time have advantage in noticing. Lynch (2001) raised an argumentative point that there is a bias involving noticing since Schmidt and Frota (1986), who were the major advocates of it, are specialized in language learning, so they may have ability to notice the language form. He also raised questions of how to help less proficient language students to notice the language and whether it is possible. However, it should be noted that the students in Lynch (2001) already had relatively good English.

In conclusion, because English speaking ability is becoming in high demand nowadays, more research studies on English speaking should be investigated. It would worth exploring Thornbury's (2005) idea that the task sequence of perform-observe-re-perform in task-based instruction and noticing the gap will help English speaking, because students might benefit from learning by trying to speak first, then observing proficient speakers doing the same task, and using what they notice in their re-speaking. Nevertheless, research studies using task-based instruction to improve English speaking ability in Thailand such as Sanguanngarm (2010) and Vega (2010) have not investigated the students' noticing of the language focus of the tasks, nor have had task repetition to see how the language focus was used. Therefore, to date there is little research study which investigates noticing the gap with task-based

instruction. This research, then, aimed to study effects of using task-based instruction and noticing the gap on English speaking ability.

1.2 Research questions

1. To what extent do task-based instruction and noticing the gap enhance students' English speaking ability?

2. What are students' opinions toward the use of task-based instruction and noticing the gap on English speaking ability?

1.3 Research objectives

1. To investigate the effects of task-based instruction and noticing the gap on students' English speaking ability

2. To explore students' opinions toward the use of task-based instruction and noticing the gap on English speaking ability

1.4 Definition of terms

1. Task-based instruction

Conceptually, it is the language instruction which uses tasks to be the main focus of the instruction in order to promote communication. The students study by communicating first and learning the language focus later. The tasks focus primarily on meaning, relate to real-world language use, and have predetermined non-linguistic outcomes.

Operationally, the task-based instruction in this study had three phases: pre-task, during task, and post-task. The two phases: pre-task and during task were in the first week, while the phase of post-task was in the following week. In the pre-task phase, students were provided with vocabulary and activities to prepare for the main task. In the during task phase, students were assigned to do the main speaking task. Their speeches were recorded and they had to self-transcribe as homework. In the post-task phase, students were assigned to: notice the gap by comparing their own speaking from their self-transcriptions with the model language provided by the teacher; learn the language focus of the tasks; and speak again in task repetition by using the knowledge learned from noticing the gap and the language focus to improve their speeches.

2. Noticing the gap

Conceptually, it is students' noticing of the differences between their current language as shown in their speech and the effective one in proficient speakers' speech. The noticed language item is likely to cause language learning of such item. It is also students' noticing of the lack of or impropriety of their own language.

Operationally, it was the process which the students were fostered to perceive, notice the differences between the language they used in their speaking and the model language, and also the differences between their production and the correct intended language in the aspects of fluency and coherence, grammatical

range and accuracy, lexical resource, and pronunciation. The activities used to guide the students' noticing the gap included assigning students to transcribe their speaking, making notice of the selected boldfaced language items in the model of proper speaking, doing consciousness raising-tasks, sharing to group, and providing teacher feedback.

3. English speaking ability

Conceptually, it is the students' ability to speak English with appropriate content, grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and fluency in order to communicate well with others in everyday situations.

Operationally, it was the ability that students will gain from participating in task-based instruction and noticing the gap through the English speaking class in this study. It was assessed by the two parallel forms of English speaking ability pre- and post-tests developed by the researcher. The scoring rubric criteria included fluency and coherence, grammatical range and accuracy, lexical resource, and pronunciation.

4. Undergraduate students

Conceptually, they refer to Thai students who study at bachelor's degree level around Thailand who could benefit from learning through task-based instruction and noticing the gap in this study.

Operationally, they referred to the first-year students who studied in the English speaking course at Bangkok Institute of Theology, Christian University of

Thailand in the first semester of the academic year 2014 as they were the participants in this study. Their English proficiency was considered at the beginner level.

1.5 Scope of the study

1. The participants in the quantitative method were eighteen first-year students of Bangkok Institute of Theology, Christian University of Thailand.

2. The participants in the qualitative method were six out of the eighteen first-year students of Bangkok Institute of Theology, Christian University of Thailand. They were two students from the high-score group, two from the average-score group, and two from the low-score group based on their English speaking pre-test scores of the English speaking class in this study.

3. The variables in this study were as follows:

Independent variables: task-based instruction and noticing the gap

Dependent variable: English speaking ability

1.6 Significance of the study

1. Theoretical contribution: It gave light on how task-based instruction and noticing the gap can be used to help students improve their English speaking ability through the entire semester, which was different from other research studies employing only a single task.

2. Practical contribution: It helped improve the students' English speaking ability so that they can orally communicate in English more effectively. Furthermore, since the students in this study came from different parts of Thailand and had various English background knowledge, task-based instruction and the noticing the gap helped them know and fix individuals' gaps to improve themselves from their true current knowledge.

3. Pedagogical contribution: It helped the teacher to understand to what extent students benefitted from the instruction, and to know their opinions toward the instruction. The teacher may use the results to develop or adjust their teaching to help students learn better.

Next, Chapter 2 will present the literature review related to this study.
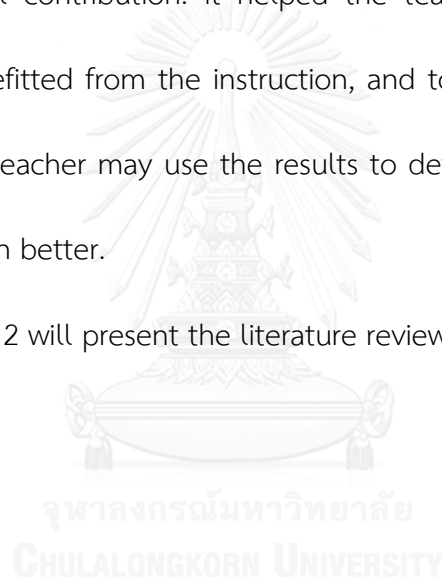
CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents the literature review related to the topic "Effects of task-based instruction and noticing the gap on English speaking ability of Thai undergraduate students." It includes task-based instruction, noticing the gap, English speaking ability, and previous studies.

2.1 Task-based instruction

Task-based instruction was one of the independent variables in this study. To understand it, this section covers: task-based instruction; the framework of task-based instruction in this study; the roles of the teacher and students in task-based instruction. Additionally, other literature review related to tasks i.e. types of tasks, grammar in tasks, and grading tasks was included.

2.1.1 Task-based instruction

Task-based instruction or task-based language teaching (TBLT) is an approach in current communicative approaches for language teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). It is one ways to reach a strong version of communicative language teaching (CLT) as it believes that students learn second language indirectly by communicating it, not directly studying it (Ellis, 2003). Willis (1996) defined tasks as "a goal-oriented communication activity with a specific outcome, where the emphasis is on

exchanging meaning not producing specific language forms" (p. 36). Skehan (1998) proposed a definition of tasks following several theorists that tasks focus primarily on meaning, aim to solve communication problem, relate to real-world activities to some degrees, need to be completed, and are assessed through outcome. Ellis (2003) described the elements of a task as the following.

1. It is a teaching plan. There are materials and plans for activities. However, the results from real implementing in the classroom could differ from the plan.

2. If focuses primarily on meaning. It aims to teach language through communication by creating a gap such as information gap or opinion gap for students to close it. Regarding forms, tasks drive students to use some forms but eventually leave them to choose the forms they want.

3. It includes language use in real world. It means the language tasks resemble real world tasks. Yet, artificial activities such as deciding whether two pictures are the same or not are acceptable because it involves asking, answering, and solving misunderstanding, which are similar to real-world language use.

4. It can require students to use any or a combination of listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills.

5. It requires cognitive processes such as "selecting, classifying, ordering, reasoning, and evaluating information in order to carry out the task" (Ellis, 2003, p. 10).

6. It has a precise communicative outcome, which is a non-linguistic outcome that students must produce to complete the task.

Regarding outcome, Ellis (2003) gave a different view of setting it as a standard. He said that "the real purpose of the task is not that learners should arrive at a successful outcome but they should use language in ways that will promote language learning...It is the cognitive and linguistic processes involved in reaching the outcome that matter" (p.8). He concluded that the assessment should focus on the evidence of language use aiding students to learn language.

The characteristics of task-based instruction make it belong to indirect intervention type of instruction, which provides opportunity to help students learn language through experience of communicating in second language (R. Ellis, 2005). It tends to equip students with linguistic knowledge that they can retrieve when participating in real-life communication. Yet, it may not yield high levels of linguistic knowledge or analytical classroom learning (R. Ellis, 2005).

2.1.2 The framework of task-based instruction in this study

The framework which this study is based on is from Ellis (2003). He said that most task-based frameworks have three phases in common: pre-task, during task, post-task. The during-task is the necessary phase that every task-based lesson must have. The pre- and post-task phases can be designed to help increase language development. His framework is in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1

Task-based instruction framework by Ellis (2003, p. 244)

Phase	Examples of options
A. Pre-task	Framing the activity e.g. establishing the outcome of the task
	Planning time
	Doing a similar task
B. During task	Time pressure
	Number of participants
C. Post-task	Learner report
	Consciousness raising
	Repeat task

According to Ellis (2003), the pre-task phase is for preparing students for the task. There are four options that the teacher can choose: having them perform a similar task; providing a model of how to perform the task so students can observe; doing non-task activities such as activating content schemata and learning vocabulary; and strategic planning, which students access the task directly to plan for doing it. Regarding strategic planning, the students can be left to do by themselves or the teacher can give guidance on forms or content to them. It also includes the planning time. Skehan (1998) said it should be within ten minutes. Moreover, Skehan

(1996), Willis (1996) said that the planning time can help with fluency, accuracy, complexity and naturalness.

The during-task phase involves task performance options and process options. Task performance options consist of three options: time pressure, access to input data while performing task, and surprise elements. For time pressure, the teacher should allow the students to complete the task at their pace if accuracy is primary. In contrast, if fluency is primary, the teacher should set time limit. For access to input, tasks that provide access to input such as pictures or texts are easier than those without it. For surprise elements, Foster and Skehan (1996) found that they had no effect on fluency, complexity, or accuracy. Yet, it helps students spend more time speaking and may increase intrinsic motivation. Process options are options applied while the task is running. The teacher must make decision on the spot about discourse, linguistic forms, and scaffolding.

The post-task phase has many options. The three major goals are:

1) Provide a chance for students to repeat the task. Bygate (1996), T Lynch and Maclean (2000) said that task repetition helps increase fluency, accuracy, and complexity. Carter and Nunan (2001) and Harmer (2007) also found positive effects of task repetition on speaking. Harmer (2007, p. 346) said that repetition will be better if analysis is added as the flow "plan → perform → analysis ←→repeat".

2) Reflect and evaluate performance and the task itself. Students can report on how they solve communication problems, what language they learn, or the usefulness of the task itself.

3) Focus on form. The teacher can select useful or natural forms, or problematic forms to focus. There are several options available including review learner errors, consciousness-raising tasks, production-practice activities, and noticing activities. The details are as follow.

Regarding review of learner errors, the teacher can spot remarkable errors when he or she monitors each group of students doing the task. After the task, the teacher the whole class to help correct them together.

Regarding consciousness-raising (CR) tasks, it can be the main task itself or a post-task to explicitly draw students' attention to form and discover the rule underlying it. When it is used as a post-task, the teacher can use students' erroneous utterances as points to study. According to the levels of awareness, Schmidt (1994) said that CR tasks aim at level of understanding rather than noticing. Bourke (1996), Craik and Lockhart (1972) believed that when students discover the rule by themselves and use deep processing, they will remember it better than when the teacher tells them. CR tasks also support students to notice and compare language (R. Ellis, 2002).

Regarding production-practice activities, they are exercise of the focused forms. They may not have direct effect on interlanguage system but they help automatize the forms. The examples of these activities are substitution, transformation drills, and dialogue. Willis (1996) includes such activities in her task-based instruction framework.

Regarding noticing activities, Fotos (1994) used CR tasks to make students focus on forms first, then used dictation exercises that is rich in the focused forms to see if the students noticed them or not. Lynch (2001) used students' self-transcribing as a means for them to notice the differences in language between their transcriptions and the teacher's reformulation of their transcriptions.

2.1.3 The roles of the teacher and students in task-based instruction

The teacher roles are to select, design, sequence tasks to motivate the students to participate, which means tasks well suit the students' interests and proficiency level. The teachers predict possible language learning, problems, and solution (Van Avermaet, Colpin, Van Gorp, Bogaert, & Van den Branden, 2006). They prepare students in pre-task activities such as helping them learn useful words and demonstrating some part of the task. All these can be "inductive and implicit or deductive and explicit" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 236). Some interventions during task performance may be needed because things may come out differently from the plan. When students face problems, the teacher should use questions to guide the

students to initiate problem-solving. However, as students are different, the teacher can adjust giving support (Van Avermaet et al., 2006).

Student role in task-based instruction are described by Richards and Rodgers (2001), as follow:

- Group participant: Students will do tasks in pairs or groups, which promotes interaction.

- Monitor: Tasks have to be designed to help students notice how language is used in communication. Students need to attend to the meaning and the form.

- Risk-taker and innovator: Students are encouraged to take risk in tasks that they have not fully attained linguistic resources or background experience. They will have to try several strategies.

From the information above, it can be said that task-based instruction makes students' role supportive to develop noticing and speaking. It supports speaking because tasks-based instruction promotes student interaction, which Brown (2001) and Bailey (2005) said that it is important for learning speaking. Furthermore, students' role as a risk taker supports them to learn to speak. Thornbury (2005) said that they should dare to speak whatever they can from the beginning. Nonetheless, it supports noticing because they are supposed to notice the language features for which tasks are designed.

2.1.4 Other literature review related to tasks

Besides the literature review on task-based instruction, other literature related to tasks was reviewed to help design the tasks in this study. This section included types of tasks, grammar in tasks, and grading tasks.

2.1.4.1 Types of tasks

Tasks have been categorized in various ways by many researchers. First, Nunan (1989) said they can be categorized into real-world tasks and pedagogical tasks to support syllabus design. Real-world tasks will be tasks which result from needs analysis and support real world use. Pedagogical tasks have psycholinguistic connection with second language acquisition theory and research, but do not have to generate real world use.

Second, tasks can be categorized regarding to the degree of knowledge involved. Willis (1996) arranged tasks from the least to the most knowledge involvement as: listing, ordering and sorting, comparing, problem solving, sharing personal experience, and creative tasks.

Third, they can be categorized from interaction involved as follow (Pica, Kanagy, & Falodun, 1993).

- Jigsaw tasks: Each student has pieces of information and they exchange them to complete the task.

- Information-gap tasks: One student has information and the other has to request it to complete the task.

- Problem-solving tasks: There is a problem and information given to students to solve. One solution is normally set for the outcome.

- Decision-making tasks: It is similar to the problem-solving task, but there are more than one solution for the outcome.

- Opinion exchange tasks: Students exchange ideas without having to agree to each other.

Fourth, tasks can be categorized due to the focus on language features. R. Ellis (2005) mentioned unfocused tasks and focused tasks. The former are designed to prompt the use of general language features, while the latter are designed to prompt some particular language features. Furthermore, he concluded that tasks that provide split information and require convergent outcome will enhance negotiation of meaning.

Other task classifications are: one-way or two-way, convergent or divergent, collaborative or competitive, single or multiple outcomes, concrete or abstract language, simple or complex processing, simple or complex language, and reality-based or not reality-based tasks (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

2.1.4.2 Grammar in tasks

Loschky and Bley-Vroman (2011) illustrated the association of grammar and

tasks, which are task-naturalness, task-utility, and task-essentialness. Grammar in task-naturalness occurs naturally when students do the task even though the task can be done without it. Grammar in task-utility makes the task completion easier, but the task can still be done without it. However, grammar in task-essentialness is the necessary one for task completion; it cannot be omitted. Loschky and Bley-Vroman (2011) suggest that the essentialness of grammar cause students to notice gaps in their language, and noticing leads to restructuring or "clicks of comprehension" to occur (p. 124). They further concluded that essentialness of grammar and feedback were two criteria for structure-based communicative tasks.

2.1.4.2.1 Production tasks

Within structure-based communicative tasks, Loschky and Bley-Vroman (2011) talked about production tasks and comprehension tasks. They said that designing grammar to be essential for production tasks is more difficult than for comprehension tasks because it is harder to control what students will say in terms of words and structures. This is because students and their interlocutors can use production and comprehension strategies that go differently from the task plan, but still can effectively communicate without the targeted structures. Thus, production tasks are less likely to provide chances for students to notice gaps in their language. Grammar is restricted to be for task-utility or task-naturalness. Besides, Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) noted that designers cannot expect students to produce

structures that they have not internalized, thus the role of production tasks should be to automatize the existing language knowledge. Moreover, Willis and Skehan (1998) mentioned that tasks cannot aim for specific features but can be designed to affect complexity, accuracy, or complexity of students' language. Bygate (2001) mentioned some studies that proved tasks could aim for specific features, but its consistency is still questionable, thus more studies are needed. Ellis (2003) pointed out that the chosen target structures in tasks should be those that students can do but still have not mastered them. Still, Lightbown (1985) said that students are varied in proficiency, and figuring their stages of development takes so much time.

2.1.4.2.2 Comprehension tasks

Comprehension tasks may be better at directing students' attention to the targeted structures than production tasks because task designers have more control over the tasks in terms of input, context, goal, and activities. Thus grammar can be made more essential, which should lead to their hypothesis testing or restructuring (Loschky & Bley-Vroman, 2011). Eillis (2003) said that because students have to process the input in comprehension tasks, they will notice the forms. The forms in the focused comprehension tasks can be made noticeable in two ways: input enrichment and input processing. The forms in input enrichment must be frequent and salient such as by boldfacing or having follow-up activities on such forms. The

input processing instruction aims for deeper processing of form-meaning in the input, and Ellis (2003) referred it to interpretation tasks.

2.1.4.2.3 Consciousness-raising tasks

Consciousness-raising tasks (CR tasks) aim to study the language itself. Students learn explicitly with the data of the targeted feature and conclude the rule underlying it at the end. Therefore, they need to have "sufficient proficiency to talk metalingually about the target feature" (Ellis, 2003, p. 165). However, the acquisition resulting from CR tasks was rather delayed because they facilitated but could not control restructuring to occur (R. Ellis, 2002). Willis and Willis (1996) said that CR tasks made students less likely to use the discovered language right away but tend to notice it in later input.

2.1.4.3 Grading tasks

Ellis (2003) set criteria for grading tasks as shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2

Criteria for grading tasks by Ellis (2003, p. 228)

Criterion	Easy	Difficult
A. Input		
1. Medium	pictorial → written	→ oral
2. Code complexity	high frequency vocabulary; short and simple sentences	low frequency vocabulary; complex sentence structure
3. Cognitive complexity		
a. information type	static → dynamic	→abstract
b. amount of information	few elements/relationships	many elements/relationships
c. degree of structure	well-defined structure	little structure
d. context dependency	here-and-now orientation	there-and-then
4. Familiarity of Information	Familiar	Unfamiliar
B. Conditions		
1. Interactant relationship (negotiation	two-way	one-way

Table 2.2

Criteria for grading tasks by Ellis (2003) (Continued)

Criterion	Easy	Difficult
of meaning)		
2. Task demands	single task	dual task
3. Discourse mode required to perform task	Dialogic	Monologic
C Processes		
1. Cognitive operations:		
a type	exchanging information →reasoning	→ exchanging opinions
b reasoning need	few steps involved	many steps involved
D Outcomes		
1 Medium	pictorial	→ written → oral
2 Scope	closed?	open?
3 Discourse mode of task outcome	lists, descriptions, narratives, classifications	→ instructions, arguments

Duran and Ramaut (2006) mentioned that task designers should design task complexity to match with the targeted language proficiency. They proposed a

complexity scale for designing tasks for beginners, basically for listening and reading tasks. The three parameters to analyze task complexity are: "the world represented in the task", "processing demands required for the task performance", and "linguistic input features" (p. 51). The details are illustrated in the Table 2.3.

Table 2.3

Complexity scale for grading tasks by Duran and Ramaut (2006, p. 52-53)

Parameters	Simple ⟶		Complex
(a) World			
1. Levels of abstraction: concrete or abstract approach to the topic?	Concrete descriptions (here-and-now)	In other time/space (there-and-then)	Abstract perspective
2. Degree of visual support: to what extent is visual support provided, and does it support task performance?	Much visual support	Limited visual support	No visual support
3. Linguistic context: to what extent is linguistic context available, and does it support task performance?	High level of redundancy; low information density	Limited level of redundancy	High density of information; low level of redundancy

Table 2.3

Complexity scale for grading tasks by Duran and Ramaut (Continued)

Parameters	Simple ———————————————→ Complex		
(b) Task (communicative and cognitive processing demands)			
4. Level of processing: what should students do with information in the text? At what level must the information be processed?	Descriptive (understanding information as presented)	Restructuring (reorganizing information)	Evaluative (comparing different information sources)
5. Modality: how should students provide their answers or produce the outcome?	Non-verbal reaction (purely receptive)	Limited verbal reaction (writing/talking at copying level)	Verbal reaction (talking or writing at descriptive level)
(c) Text			
6. Vocabulary: is the vocabulary used highly frequent or not?	High frequent words	Less frequent words	Infrequent words

Table 2.3

Complexity scale for grading tasks by Duran and Ramaut (Continued)

Parameters	Simple ——————————————→ Complex		
7. Syntax: are the sentences simple or complex?	Short, simple sentence	Reasonably long sentences with juxtaposition	Long, embedded sentences
8. Text structure: is the text clearly/explicitly structured?	Structure is explicit and clear	Structure only partly explicit	Structure is left implicit
9. Text length: is the text short or long?	Short	Reasonably long	Long

From the above two sets of criteria for grading tasks proposed by Ellis (2003) and Duran and Ramaut (2006), it can be seen that there are similarity between them in terms of input, processes and outcome. Some other distinctive aspects are also provided such as linguistic context, text length, conditions, and etc. Both Duran and Ramaut (2006), and Ellis (2003) agreed that even though some criteria have been proved in research, grading tasks still rely on speculation, tuition, and the designer's experience of how students react to tasks. To sum up, Duran and Ramaut (2006, p. 73) concluded that the students themselves can tell the difficulty of the tasks. Their

motivation, personal knowledge, interlanguage, and rapport with the teacher will often strike what the task designer has planned.

The next literature review is related to noticing the gap.

2.2 Noticing the gap

Noticing the gap is a term in second language acquisition. It was one of the independent variables in this study. To understand it, this section presents: the background of noticing the gap; the usefulness of noticing the gap; the nature of noticing; how to measure noticing; transcribing as means to notice spoken language; criticism on the noticing hypothesis; and terms related to noticing the gap.

2.2.1 Background of noticing the gap

The term noticing the gap comes from Schmidt and Frota (1986) when he himself studied Portuguese for five months in Brazil. He wrote journals, recorded his interaction with native speakers, and reflected on what he was learning. The findings were that he never produced some forms that appeared in the input as he did not notice them; forms that were not present in the input did not occur in his output; he consciously noticed a form that was not taught but appeared in the input; frequent forms in the input appeared in his output more than infrequent forms; and corrective feedback that was unnoticed did not promote his learning (Schmidt, 2011; Schmidt & Frota, 1986).

Schmidt and Frota (1986) were mostly concerned with the comparison between Schmidt's output and the input he received from his Portuguese class and from interaction with native speakers. Thus, it can be said that noticing the gap involves comparisons, which lead to noticing the differences between output and input as Thornbury (2005) explained it as "learners can get important message about their current state of proficiency by attending to their own output, and by making comparisons between their output and that of others" (p. 58).

There are other researchers explaining the term noticing the gap similarly. For example, Ellis (1997) explained it as "the process by which learners pay conscious attention to the differences between linguistic features in the input and their own output" (p. 141). Moreover, Bailey (2005) related it to speaking as "the learner realizing that the way he is saying something in the target language differs from the way native or proficient speakers say it" (p. 126). Swain (2000) explained it as "learners may not only notice the target language form, but notice that it is different from their own interlanguage" (p. 100). Swain (2005) explained it as "learners may notice that the target language form is different from their own usage" (p. 474).

On the other hand, the term noticing the gap means noticing differences of the learners' language alone. For example, Ellis (2003) said that it can refer to students' awareness that they cannot produce something in second language or produced them improperly. Bailey (2005) said it means student's awareness of the

lack of words or structures when he or she is trying to say, or the difference between the intended message they want to convey and what they can really say.

Regarding how and when noticing the gap can occur, Thornbury (2005) stated that students themselves are best to know the state of readiness to notice things as below:

There is some evidence to suggest that learner will only notice certain features of the L2 when they have reached the developmental stage in which they are ready to notice them. So, probably the most effective gap noticing is that which is initiated by the learners themselves. (Thornbury, 2005, p. 58)

However, Thornbury (2005) said the teacher can guide students to notice the gaps as well. Schmidt and Frota (1986) agreed on the role of teacher to provide corrective feedback to guide students to see the differences between the current language knowledge and the target language. They said that there are many times that non-native speakers could not identify the similarity of differences between their output and the input. In addition, Swain and Lapkin (1995) noted that the teacher should give feedback on students' analysis and modification of their output because sometimes students misunderstand things, which makes them form wrong hypotheses or generalizations.

2.2.2 The usefulness of noticing the gap

Schmidt and Frota (1986) agreed with the importance and the usefulness of the noticing the gap principle proposed by Krashen (1983). Krashen (1983) said that learners can learn new forms in two ways including comprehensible input and their output process. The acquisition will occur if learners noticed a different between their current knowledge or i, and the new form i+1. If they see a gap, then the new form is a starter for acquisition. Nevertheless, learners need to see the new form in input with decent frequency. If they don't see it, it will be dismissed.

Thus, it can be said that what students notice as a gap will be the starting point for students to acquire the language. However, Schmidt and Frota (1986) disagreed on the point Krashen (1983) proposed that noticing occurs in a subconscious level. They took a standpoint that noticing the gap must occur at a conscious level instead. They further state that correction and instruction can play a role in conscious noticing the gap, which is considered one of its advantages. It should be noted that controversial issues between conscious and unconscious language learning are out of the scope of this study as Iwanaka (2011) said that it is possible that both conscious and unconscious learning can help with second language acquisition.

Schmidt and Frota (1986) said that noticing is to be applied to all linguistic aspects including vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and pragmatics and to be

integrated to a number of theories in second language acquisition. Peters (as cited in Schmidt, 2001, p. 6) supported consciousness and noticing that learners must notice any variation in all linguistic aspects that creates changes in the meaning.

In addition, Schmidt (2011) proposed the noticing hypothesis claiming that "intake is that part of the input that the learner notices" and concluded that noticing is necessary for second language learning (p. 18). The intake Schmidt refers to is preliminary intake, which Slobin (1985) distinguishes it as the stored data that can be used for the language construction, which is different from those that were organized into linguistic system or what is called final intake.

2.2.3 The nature of noticing

To understand the nature of noticing and related ideas to it, the relevant information is presented.

2.2.3.1 A level of consciousness as awareness.

The root of noticing comes from the knowledge of psychology that Schmidt first brought to explain second language acquisition (SLA) (Iwanaka, 2011). Schmidt (2011) placed noticing as a level in all three levels of his definitions of consciousness as awareness. The three levels are below:

Level 1 Perception: Schmidt said perception does not have to involve consciousness and people can perceive things without being aware of it. He called it subliminal perception. Iwanaka (2011) compared the term "perception" by Schmidt

with the term "detection." Tomlin and Villa (1994) said that detection was outside the focal attention, and Cowan (1988) considered it in information processing theories as small attention in automatic processing, which was low level.

Level 2 Noticing: Iwanaka (2011) gave a brief definition that it is a private experience that learners gain when they choose to pay attention to something. In language learning, that thing is a particular linguistic form. Bowers (1984) explained the difference between perception and noticing. Bowers illustrated it by using people reading in a room, that is they normally notice or are aware of the content rather than the structure or writing style, sounds and noises from the other rooms or outside, but at the same time they perceive them. Besides, they may choose to pay attention to them if they want to. When noticing is compared to detection, Schmidt (1995) defined noticing included detection equipped with controlled stimulation to the focal attention, and Cowan (1988) considered it in information processing theories as focal attention in controlled processing, which was high level.

To sum up, the distinction between perception and noticing is quite obvious. Furthermore, N. Ellis (2005) said that language use engages that both kinds of attention: low-automatic and high-controlled.

Another point that Schmidt (2001) said about noticing is that it is subjective. Iwanaka (2011) explained further that "stimuli are subjectively experienced" (p. 56). Cowan (1988) made clear that the quality of attention in noticing is thought to equip

with individual experiences. For example, while people are strolling, they see a tree and feel blissful or know that they are in fall season.

Level 3 Understanding: This third level of consciousness includes thinking, analyzing, comprehending what people notice or are aware of. Problem solving and metacognitions are in this level.

2.2.3.2 Noticing in relation to attention

From what mentioned above, it can be seen that noticing is related to attention. Iwanaka (2011) stated that attention is essential for second language learning. It is "the ability a person has to concentrate on some things while ignoring others" (p. 54). There are four fundamental premises of attention:

1. It is limited. Wicken (1989) explained it with the limited resource for each of the visual, auditory, vocal and manual modalities. It will be more effective if different modalities are utilized at the same time in activities than just one modality.

2. It is selective. Because attention is limited, it must be paid to the most Important thing. VanPatten (1990) said that the meaning is the most essential in language learning. As lexical items convey meaning, attention is paid to them before other aspects.

3. It is partly up to voluntary control. It can be directed to different linguistic aspects such as syntax, pronunciation, lexical items etc. It is said that internal will can

direct voluntary attention, but external source such as loud noise can draw involuntary attention as well.

4. It controls access to conscious awareness. Attention chooses strong stimuli to enter awareness for processing and leave out other weak ones.

5. It is important for learning. Gass (1988) said that the attended stimuli are processed and became intake.

2.2.3.3 Factors that promote noticing

Schmidt (2011) explained factors that promote availability of noticing as below:

1. Expectations: Kahneman and Treisman (1984) said that it promotes perception and noticing. In contrast, James (1890) said that unexpected events also draw attention. Instruction may increase noticing by setting expectations.

2. Frequency: It raises the chance of noticing linguistic aspects in the input.

3. Perceptual salience: What is outstanding is easily noticed. Schmidt and Frota (1986) found that sound-reduced forms were noticed late. Slobin (1985) reported similarly in research in first language (L1) that reduced or unstressed morphemes created difficulty for children.

4. Skill level: Kihlstrom (1984) said that learners who can attend both grammatical form and meaning have advantage in noticing.

5.   Task demands: Anderson (1985) said that how tasks force students to notice materials matters more than students' intention to learn.

2.2.4 How to measure noticing

There are several ways that have been employed to measure noticing which are classified into two categories: online and offline. The former measures noticing at the time students perform a language task, while the latter measures it after the performance (Uggen, 2012). Gass and Mackey (2007) stated the advantage of online measurement that is it reduces the effect of students' memory decay. Examples of online measurement are note taking in Hanaoka and Izumi (2012), Izumi (2002), Leeser (2008), and think-aloud protocols in Swain and Lapkin (1995).

Izumi (2002) gave benefits of using note taking that it did not interrupt the reading task while his participants were doing; it is precise in that it excludes the unattended items; on the other hand, it may not yield completeness since it does not include all attended items. Yet, the results in his study showed that the amount of note taking did not guarantee the learning. Craik and Lockhart (1972) said the note taking can measure quantitative aspects of noticing but not the depth. Moreover, Ortega (2009) mentioned that whether using note taking and uptake as a measure of awareness is still in question. Furthermore, Hanaoka and Izumi (2012) showed that note-taking did not capture the learner's thoughts well enough, and triangulating data with other measures was recommended. Another online measurement is

underlining. Izumi and Bigelow (2000) used it in their study and claimed that it is a naturally-occurring process students do in a reading task; in addition, students have to be conscious of the words or phrases they underline. However, the flaw of underlining measure is that the non-underlining items may not represent unnoticed items (Uggen, 2012).

Think aloud protocols are generally used for online measurement; students have to monitor themselves and say what they are thinking out loud. (Uggen, 2012). Swain and Lapkin (1995) used this method in their research. They explained that the students had to do a written task by writing in L2 (French), but were allowed to use either L1 (English) or L2 to think aloud. If there was a long silent period because students stopped talking, the researcher would tell them to think aloud. The students had to speak every time they made any changes to their writing. All the processes were recorded and transcribed for the researchers to study the Language Related Episodes (LREs), which are any parts of the students' utterances where they talk, question, self- or other-correct the language. Think-aloud protocols were adopted in Leow (2001), Rosa and Leow (2004), and Rosa and O'Neill (1999).

For the offline measurement, which the data of students' mental processes are gathered after the performance, stimulated recall (SR) has been a widely accepted method. It is conducted by the researcher presenting a stimulus, which is the students' written output or video-recorded performance during the task to the

students, and asking them what they were thinking while performing the task (Uggen, 2012). This intuitive experience of recalling and reporting does not call for the knowledge of it. SR has to be conducted as soon as possible after the event (Henderson, Henderson, Grant, & Huang, 2010). Open-ended, non-directive prompts can be exposed to the students before SR began (Henderson et al., 2010; (Nguyen, McFadden, Tangen, & Beutel, 2013). When the students are reporting their thoughts during SR, the researcher must not intervene because improper probing while the participants doing SR could lead to unrelated reflection. Besides, it can reduce SR validity as the prompts might alter the thinking process in the past events (Demsey, 2010; Lyle, 2003). Yet, the researcher may interview them after the SR to clarify something, but must beware and discard the present thoughts data as they occur during the interviews and involve explanatory, interpretation, and evaluation (Henderson et al., 2010). SR is also known as retrospective stimulated recall or retrospective think aloud (Henderson et al., 2010).

Gass and Mackey (2007) pointed that the students' memory decay can happen when using offline measurement, and cause risk in the data. Furthermore, Iwanaka (2011) mentioned that although verbal report is the best way of measuring noticing, it still cannot entirely obtain the data due to the natural quickness of awareness. Schmidt (2001) mentioned that factors such as individual differences or linguistic forms can affect students' oral self-report. For example, students' ability to

verbalize is not equal, and not all forms are easy to verbalize. Calderhead (1981) data triangulation can make data more reliable because stimulated recall cannot give all information of the participants' thoughts and it should not be used alone. An example of data triangulation was in Uggen (2012), which triangulated the data from the students' notes, stimulated recalls, and essays.

Last but not least, researchers who support interaction have utilized uptake to measure noticing (Ortega, 2009). Egi (2010) concluded the definition of uptake in two ways. One is students' response to the teacher's feedback. The other is students' modified output, which is done after students receive feedback about their initial problematic output.

The measurement of noticing is not absolute yet. Izumi (2002) stated that no noticing measure is perfect. Ortega (2009) stated that there is no possible method to measure the existing of awareness at the moment of learning, because neither introspective nor retrospective self-reporting is flawless. Uggen (2012) said that even though students do not show evidence of noticing in either online or offline measurement, it does not mean the lack of it. Thus, limitations of the measurement do exist. Furthermore, the hardship in gathering and interpreting data on noticing and variables beyond control such as motivation raise arguments against the role of noticing. Lightbown and Spada (2006) concluded that a number of research designs can identify noticing only on the things students mention, but not the things they do

not. However, those designs reveal what students are aware of, which can be compared with students' performance to measure students' proficiency. In conclusion, Munsell and Carr (1981) summarized the idea of getting data on noticing as below:

> We hypothesize that if we looked at the right time and asked the right questions, we would get from the acquirer…responses that would in fact be quite specific and would in some general sense show a passing yet crucial "consciousness" of what was being acquired. (pp. 497-498)

2.2.5 Transcribing as means to notice spoken language

Several research studies that studied spoken language and noticing use students' self-transcribing to facilitate noticing (Cooke, 2013; T. Lynch, 2001, 2007; Stillwell et al., 2009). Lynch (2001, 2007) said that transcribing contributes to noticing because students are put in a position to think of correctness and clear meaning of their output. Since transcribing makes spoken language visible, it provides opportunities for students to notice and make changes in their subsequent output. Moreover, transcribing helps students review and improve their output in a less anxious situation because it is done after the task is completed. In his studies, each pair of students transcribed and edited the language together, which he said it promoted cooperative work, the language correction, and renegotiation of meaning.

Stillwell et al. (2009) proposed the usefulness of using transcription, correction, and task repetition together, and said that students recognized their language improvements through transcription. Furthermore, Thornbury (2005) stated that even though transcribing is a lengthy process, it helps increase awareness-raising, which he explained as "learners are able to identify many of their own errors themselves and show gains in the accuracy and complexity of their language when they come to repeat the task" (p. 60). The students in Lynch (2001) and Cooke (2013) felt positive towards transcribing as it was useful to help them see and improve their weaknesses.

2.2.6 Criticism on the noticing hypothesis

Regarding Schmidt's own results of his studying Portuguese, he admitted that the results were not enough to claim that noticing was sufficient or necessary for learning; however, he stated that "the primary evidence for the claim that noticing is a necessary condition for storage comes from studies in which the focus of attention is experimentally controlled" (Schmidt, 2011, p. 20). Krashen (1983) rejected the role of consciousness, which derives from SLA models considering cognitive processes and information processing theory. He considered it unnecessary for SLA and possibly harmful to learner's progress. Although Krashen (1983) emphasized the importance of noticing the gap, he said that the noticing occurred at a subconscious level. Tomlinson and Villa (1994) asserted that it was not noticing but detection that was essential and enough to cause learning.

Tarone and Bigelow (2005) cast doubt of the noticing hypothesis on the ground of literacy. They said much research on SLA assume that second language (L2) students notice linguistic aspects. However, if illiterate students do not notice linguistic aspects in L2 oral input, the noticing hypothesis would assume that they do not acquire anything; but in fact, they acquire the L2. They questioned that the noticing hypothesis might be wrong; students can acquire the L2 language without noticing its structures. They further questioned that perhaps only literate students can notice linguistic aspects, and the illiterate ones unconsciously acquire them as they do with their first language (L1); when the illiterate become iterate, they have to consciously notice. The last point referring to Ravid and Tolchinsky (2002) mentioned that the noticing hypothesis is used only with complex structures commonly represent written language. Thus, it applies to literacy rather than to oral language that has simpler structures, which can be acquired unconsciously.

Moreover, Tomlin and Villa (1994) disagreed with Schmidt by saying that noticing facilitates learning but not necessary Yet, Robinson (1995) agreed with the noticing hypothesis but it must be with rehearsal. N. Ellis (2002) said noticing works with new elements that cannot be learned with low attention; it does not work with all language features; and it may work only with the first processing of difficult elements into long-term memory.

Due to the possibility that zero noticing might be hard to investigate in research, Schmidt (2001) later changed his claim from saying that noticing is necessary and sufficient for L2 learning to be a weak version that noticing facilitates leaning. Ortega (2009) pointed that noticing hypothesis does not talk about the need to hold what students noticed at until any later time. Besides, understanding the nature of noticed items does not have to be in students' noticing, nor do the processes of the underlining rules. Truscott (1998) and Carroll (1999) also stated that the noticing hypothesis does not tell how the noticed knowledge is processed to acquisition. However, Schmidt (2001) argued that the hypothesis is not set up to answer that point in the beginning; what is noticed are the linguistic forms rather than the abstract rules underlying them, but the noticed forms tend to be processed to develop students' interlanguage. Leow (2001), Rosa and Leow (2004), and Rosa and O'Neil (1999) have proved that noticing with understanding facilitates L2 learning.

In conclusion, whether noticing is necessary or facilitative, it has "mostly been found to be positively associated with L2 learning" (Uggen, 2012, p. 510). Thus, it is worth investigating.

2.2.7 Terms related to noticing the gap

Bailey (2005) explained how noticing the gap is apart from the Monitoring Hypothesis proposed by Krashen. In order to monitor one's output in either reading or writing, students have to know language rules beforehand. Monitoring can bring about noticing the gap. Yet, noticing the gap can occur without students knowing the rules.

Swain (2000) classified noticing to three levels which are noticing, noticing the hole, and noticing the gap. Since noticing the gap has been previously explained, the first two levels including noticing, and noticing the hole are explained here.

Regarding noticing, Swain said that students notice linguistic aspects in the target language because they are either salient or frequent. In other words, it is related to input. In the same way, Ellis (1997) explained noticing as "the process by which learners pay conscious attention to linguistic features in the input" (p. 141). This level of noticing was studied as a part of Izumi's (2002) research. It was to see the noticing and learning of object-of-preposition and relative clauses between the students who received visually enhanced input and those who produced output. The forms in the visually enhanced input were done by underlining, bolding, shadowing, and changing font sizes. The evidence of noticing was measured by the students' notes. It showed that the students who received visually enhanced input noticed more but learned less than the output group.

Regarding noticing the hole, Swain (2000) referred to her output hypothesis in which noticing function is one of the functions the output hypothesis claims. Swain (2005) said that while students are trying to produce the target language, they may notice the own linguistic problems. This awareness may provoke students to solve their linguistic problems by attending to relevant input. It also arouses cognitive processes, which are responsible for learning new knowledge or strengthening the existing knowledge. Swain (2000) clarified that it happens "at the very moment of attempting to produce it" (p. 100). An example of research on output and noticing the hole is Swain and Lapkin (1995). They wanted to know whether output causes the students to notice their linguistic problems, and if so, how students analyzed and modified their output. They recorded grade eight immersion students' utterances as they were doing both a writing task and think-aloud protocol at the same time. The results showed that students noticed linguistic problems including spelling, morphology, syntax, vocabulary, discourse, register, and genre. The categories of cognitive process engaged were explained.

Last but not least, several research studies have mentioned noticing or noticing hypothesis; but they used the term noticing in general (Hanaoka & Izumi, 2012; Izumi, 2002; Leeser, 2008; Lynch, 2001, 2005; Stillwell et al., 2009; Swain & Lapkin, 1995; Uggen, 2012). Schmidt (2011) gathered other terms which have been

used for noticing such as focal awareness, episodic awareness, and apperceived input.

The next literature review is related to English speaking ability.

2.3 English speaking ability

English speaking ability was the dependent variable in this study. To understand this it, this section includes: definitions and characteristics of speaking; knowledge and skills for speaking; second language speaking processes; corrective feedback for speaking; teaching English speaking for beginners; and assessing speaking.

2.3.1 Definitions and characteristics of speaking

Speaking has been defined in many ways. Lado (1961) viewed speaking via two approaches: situation ability and the elements of language. The former refers to "the ability to express oneself in life situations, or the ability to report acts or situations in precise words, or the ability to converse, or express a sequence of idea fluently". The latter refers to "the ability to use in essentially normal communication situations the signaling system of pronunciation, stress, intonation, grammatical structure and vocabulary of the foreign language at a normal rate of delivery for native speakers of the language." Harris (1969) mentioned the main concern of speaking skill for second language students as "his ability to

communicate informally on everyday subjects with sufficient ease and fluency to hold the attention of his listener" (p. 82). Florez (1999) defined speaking as "an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing, receiving, and processing information." Bailey (2005) defined speaking as "producing systematic verbal utterances to convey meaning" (p. 2).

Speaking and oral communication are closely related. Murphy (1991) said that speaking skill is a subset of oral communication skills. In general, oral communication skills involve listening, speaking, verbal and non-verbal language, and social awareness (Chuanchaisit, 2009; Nuktong, 2010; Sanguanngarm, 2010; Vega, 2010). However, it seems that some theorists describe the elements of speaking and oral communication similarly. For example, Florez (1999) mentioned listening or receiving information as a part of the definition of speaking mentioned above. Bygate (1987) mentioned social awareness as a part of speaking because speaking includes interaction skill which is to maintain good relationship with the interlocutors. Thornbury (2005) included sociocultural knowledge as part of knowledge speakers need to know. It seems that only non-verbal language or gesture is not included in the definition of speaking.

For the characteristics of speaking, Chafe (1994) explained that speaking is temporary. It lasts only a short time and gradually disappears from memory. It is fast, irrevocable, and full of prosody such as pitches, stress, pauses, changes in tempo,

and voice quality. It is situation-bound; speakers share the same space and time in face-to-face conversation. Lastly, it is natural as people can learn it naturally, which contrasts to the way they learn written language.

2.3.2 Knowledge and skills for speaking

Harris (1969) said that speaking elements compose of pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension.

Bygate (1987) proposed understanding of speaking as a skill. He first introduced the contrast between knowledge and skill. Language knowledge primarily includes grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary, and how these elements are used. On the other hand, language skill is the ability to use them. Students can understand and memorize knowledge and skill, but it is only skill that they can imitate and practice. Furthermore, he said that oral skills can be seen in two ways: motor-perceptive skills and interaction skills. Motor-perceptive skills includes knowing and being able to use sounds and structures correctly, which he said it is quite unnatural and context ignorant. Interaction skills mean the skills to help succeed in communication. They include knowledge, motor-perceptive skills, and decision-making skill to adjust oneself while communicating to keep friendly relationship with others.

Hughes (2002) identified three elements of speaking, which are discourse, grammar and phonology. She said that teachers need to help second language

students combine them to form proper communication from beginner to advanced level. In addition, she illustrated the relationship between these three areas with other areas of studies in theoretical and applied linguistics as shown in the figure 2.1.
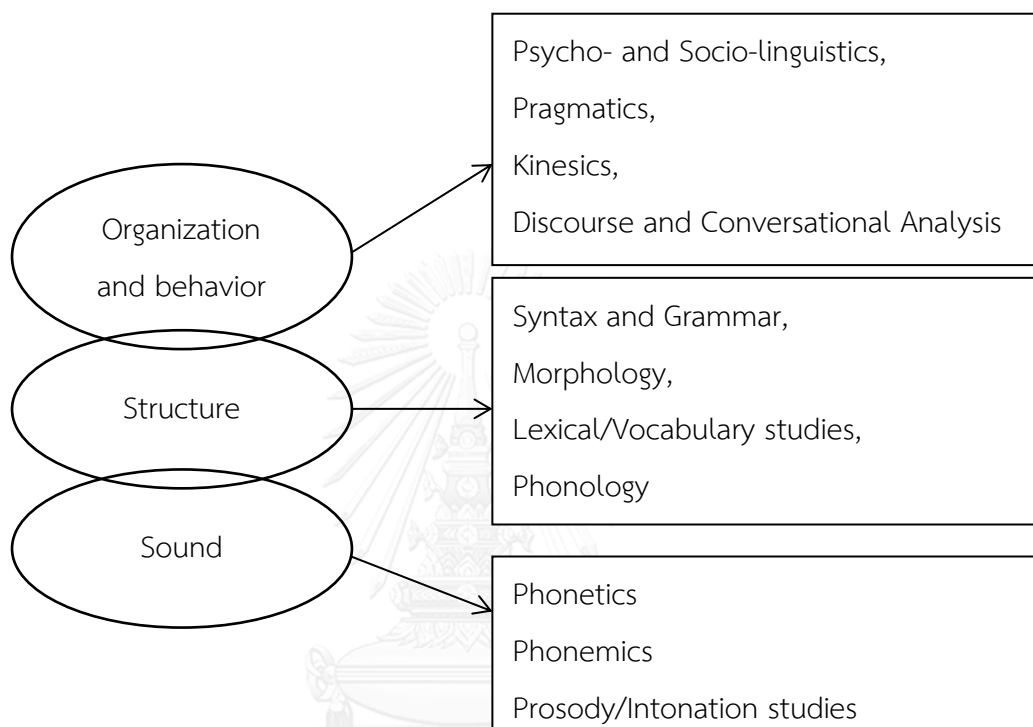
Figure 2.1. Levels and fields of research into speech and conversation by Hughes (2002, p.7).

Thornbury (2005) categorized linguistics knowledge that second language speakers need to know, which are:

1. Sociocultural knowledge: Since English is considered as an international language, students should develop intercultural competence to adjust to cross-

cultural situations regardless of the language they are using, and be aware of vagueness in all communication.

2. Genre knowledge: It is knowledge of organization of speech for particular events such as presenting a business plan or giving lectures. In other words, it is knowledge of specific interactional moves or discourse moves. Speech acts help students understand it.

3. Speech acts: It is knowledge of language functions such as giving advice.

4. Register: It is knowledge of adapting speech to suit different context and the status of the interlocutors.

5. Discourse: It is knowledge of management of speaking turns, discourse markers to signal the moves, the use of grammar and vocabulary to connect turns and indicate intentions.

6. Grammar: It is knowledge of spoken syntax including heads and tails, and ellipsis. Knowledge of main grammar for informal speaking includes present and past simple, continuous and perfect aspect forms, common modal and semi-modal, yes/no- and wh- questions, basic conjunctions, and general quoting expressions.

7. Vocabulary: This kind of knowledge depends on purposes of speaking such as formal, informal, academic, or business conversation. The common words that will greatly help with conversation include wh-question words, modal verbs, pronouns, possessive forms, demonstrative pronouns, deictic devices, common preposition,

discourse markers, backchannel expressions, sequencing and linking words, all-purpose words, words for adding emphasis and hedging.

8. Phonology: It is the knowledge of stress, rhythm, and intonation. Considering English as an International Language (EIL), Jenkins (2000) listed pronunciation aspects that most influence intelligibility. They are some core consonant sounds, contrast between long and short vowels, consonant clusters, and sentence stress.

Harmer (2007) pointed out that fluent speaking requires the following components: the correct pronunciation of phonemes, the proper use of stress and intonation, the ability to produce strings of speech rather than individual words, the ability to speak in a variety of genres, the use of repair strategies, and the adaptation for conversational and functional goals.

In conclusion, students need a range of knowledge and skills in order to speak a second language well. The fundamental knowledge for speaking includes grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and discourse.

2.3.3 Second language speaking processes

Second language (L2) and first language (L1) speaking involve similar mental processing (Thornbury, 2005). Levelt (1989) created the model of speech processing components to explain such process from planning to say something to verbalizing it. The components are:

1. Conceptualizing: It perceives intention to speak, selects and orders information, and recalls previous utterance. Tavakoli and Foster (2011) said that it works before people think of language. Thornbury (2005) said that a speaker conceptualizes something by considering the discourse type, topic, and purpose.

2. Formulating: It transforms conceptualized ideas into linguistic forms, which are grammar and phonology. Thornbury (2005, pp. 3-4) said that "this involves making strategic choices at the level of discourse, syntax, and vocabulary...the words need to be assigned their pronunciation."

3. Articulating: Speech organs are utilized to produce sounds. Thornbury (2005, p. 5) said that the processes also deal with "loudness, pitch direction, tempo, and pausing".

4. Monitoring: Speakers monitor their speech; they listen to themselves. Thornbury (2005) explained that it happens simultaneously in all the three stages mentioned above. If it happens at the conceptualizing stage, it can cause a speaker to re-think or leave the message. If it happens at the formulating stage, it can make a speaker pause, slow, backtrack, or re-phrase his or her speech. If it happens at the articulating stage, a speaker may correct or repair their speech.

Tavakoli and Foster (2011) explained the differences of how these components are processed by native speakers and second language speakers. Native speakers have linguistic knowledge that is automatized for grammar and phonology

use, and an enormous repertoire of language chunks. Thus, native speakers can think and speak at the same time. In contrast, L2 speakers normally do not have automatized knowledge or stored ready-made language (chunks). The have "limited attentional resources" (p. 41). As a result, when these three components compete for limited attentional resources, it makes speech slow or silent. VanPattern (1990) said that conceptualizer will win in such competition.

Studied several research, Thornbury (2005) found that planning time and task repetition can help fulfill conceptualizing stage, thus the processing capacity will be left more for formulation and articulation. In the end, it should facilitate speaker's greater attention to L2 forms. Bygate (2001) and Harmer (2007) said that task repetition has been found to have positive effects on students' performance. Carter and Nunan (2001) said that it helps students relieve their attention on conceptualization and add more on formulation in terms of fluency, accuracy, and complexity as they work on the familiar concept. Harmer (2007) said that task repetition helps students memorize words or phrases each time they use them.

In addition, there are other factors affecting the speaking process. Bygate (1987) pointed out time factor and reciprocity factors. The fact that spoken language is produced in real time puts time pressure on conceptualization, formulation, and articulation. People simultaneously decide and produce words when they speak, and that affects how they plan and control the language. The listener also affects the

speaking process. He or she understands the message when it is being produced; therefore, problems in understanding will make the speaker adjust the way he or she is speaking.

2.3.4 Corrective feedback for speaking

Corrective feedback is one kind of input that can point out the wrong production of second language (Long, Inagaki, & Ortega, 1998).   To give corrective feedback, Rivers and Temperley (1978) first pointed out the expectation that the teacher should have on students' speech. They said that people do not normally speak with well-completed sentences in informal speaking in their native language. Therefore, the teacher cannot expect students to speak flawlessly in a second language, but he or she can expect hesitation, repetitions, immediate changes, and incomplete sentences which will matter when they interfere intelligibility. Stevick (1976) said that the teacher should not suddenly but frequently correct them while they engage in communication, because it will discourage speaking and encourage self-protection, which will make them focus on grammar and literal meaning but not the communication itself.

Instead, several educators recommend giving feedback after communication activities have finished so that it will not interrupt the fluency (Baker & Westrup, 2003; Harmer, 2007; T. Lynch, 2007; Rivers & Temperley, 1978). Some proposed that while the students engage in communication, the teacher should monitor constant

errors not slips, and note them quietly in order to give feedback later in person. If some errors are evident among many students, the teacher can write them down on the board and discuss with the whole class without mentioning who produced them, or they can set up a special review lesson (Baker & Westrup, 2003; Rivers & Temperley, 1978). Yet, Harmer (2007) offered exceptions for inserting corrections while students are speaking. It is when the right moment comes, or students' communication is failing.

However, if the activity focuses on accuracy, the teacher can stop the students to correct the mistakes (Harmer, 2007). This agrees with Rivers and Temperley's (1978) suggestion for feedback during intensive exercises or drills. Harmer (2007) further explained that the teacher should point the slips first; if the students do not understand and unable to fix it, the teacher can explain it. Nevertheless, the teacher can ask students' preference on getting feedback, and the rapport between them can determine how feedback should be given.

For the types of corrective feedback, Long et al. (1998) separated it into two kinds: explicit and implicit feedback. Long and Robinson (1998) gave examples of explicit feedback; for instance, the teacher can write or underline forms on the board, demonstrate correct pronunciation, and students repeat after it. El Tatawy (2002) gave an example of explicit feedback to be grammar explanation, and implicit

feedback to be "confirmation checks, repetitions, recasts, clarification requests, silence, and even facial expressions" (p. 2).

To sum up, Rivers and Temperley (1978) said that the teacher should let students to think and correct themselves first. He or she should help students be able to be aware of foreseeable errors, monitor their speech, and improve it in communication. Nevertheless, whether students will consistently improve themselves after they learn from feedback or not depends on one's aspiration to refine their skills to succeed in communication. Thus, personal interest and motivation play crucial roles.

2.3.5 Teaching English speaking for beginners

The participants in this study were considered as beginners according to their English background knowledge. Thus, the related information to teaching English to beginner level is discussed in the following:

2.3.5.1 Beginner characteristics

First of all, the characteristics of beginning level speakers should be mentioned. ACTFL (2012) gives the characteristics details as: single words and learned phrases exist in predictable utterances; vocabulary is limited to dealing with basic needs; long pauses and repetition of the interlocutor's words usually occur; and speakers may not be able to produce even the most basic utterances.

Moreover, beginning levels are considered to be the most challenging and the most rewarding level for teachers, because teachers have to handle students who have little or no background knowledge but their increased proficiency after learning can be obviously seen (Brown, 2001). Brown reminded teachers about beginning level students that they have limited ability to learn ideas, words and structures; therefore, teachers should not overwhelm them.

In addition, students' processing is focal and controlled. Focal attention refers to students giving notice to things specifically such as an intended message, a language form, emotional state or physical appearance of someone. It is opposite to peripheral attention, which incidental notice is used. However, in language learning teachers can gently guide them into peripheral attention by having them to focus on real meaningful purposes such as asking their classmate's information; in this way students will focus on purpose rather than forms. Controlled processing refers to students gaining a little information at once; it is opposite to automatic processing, which manages a lot of information at the same time (Brown, 2001).

2.3.5.2 Principles for teaching speaking to beginners

Regarding the activities, pair or group work for students' interaction is recommended to help reduce anxiety, generate feedback and creativity among students (Bailey, 2005; Brown, 2001). Interesting topic or student-initiated topic should be the point for discussion (Brown, 2001). Other ideas are that contextual

support such as visual support (pictures, videos), objects, gestures, demonstrations should be given and the context awareness should be raised; that listening should be integrated into speaking activities so students can consolidate their learning of vocabulary and structure, and familiarize with sound, rhythm, and intonation of the language; that vocabulary, chunks or formulaic expressions to complete the task is to be build; and that "learning to learn strategies" such as organizing materials, using a dictionary should be introduced (Burn & Joyces, 1977, pp. 118-119).

Regarding the setting in the classroom, the desks and chairs should be arranged in a new way to promote speaking activities as the power of the speakers will be distributed from the traditional teacher-fronted classroom (Bailey, 2005). Regarding the teacher, they should always use repetition, use simple vocab and structures when speak to students and speak with naturally slow and clearly articulated speech, and balance correction to the focused grammar and pronunciation but not to every mistake (Burns & Joyce, 1997). They can allow students to speak in their native language for some advantage, but only for a short time (Brown, 2001).

2.3.5.3 Speaking exercises for beginners

Exercise types for teaching speaking to beginners include guided conversation, interview, information gap and jigsaw activities, role play, picture-based activities, logic puzzles, and physical actions (Bailey, 2005). Using some mechanical techniques

such as choral repetition, drilling; teacher-initiated and students-initiated questions; clearly structured pair and group work with precise goals; and meaningful and authentic communication tasks are recommended (Brown, 2001). Semi-scripted texts should be used at the early stage than unscripted texts. Controlled exercises can be used at the early stage, but when students are more skillful they can do extension activities such as role plays, games, problem-solving tasks (Burns & Joyce, 1997).

2.3.6 Assessing speaking

Concerning types of speaking test, there are three kinds: direct test, semi-direct test, and indirect test. In the direct test, the test taker will speak directly with the test administrator; for example, in an oral interview, a conversation, and an unscripted role-play. In the semi-direct test, the test taker will see and/or hear prompts and speak to a tape-recorder. In the indirect test, the test taker do not speak but provide answers on paper test such as in conversational cloze test and phoneme identifying task (Bailey, 2005).

For the types of speaking tasks, Underhill (1987) listed twenty tasks based on the test designer's control on the tasks from the least to the most. They are discussion/conversation, oral report, decision making, role-play, interview, description and re-creation, form-filling, making responses, question and answer, reading blank dialogue, picture story, giving instruction, re-tell story from aural stimulus, re-tell story from written stimulus, reading aloud, translating/interpreting, sentence

completion, sentence correction, sentence transformation, and sentence repetition. The suitability of the task depends on each particular test.

Brown (2004) set basic types of speaking assessment tasks which are:

1. Imitative: It tests phonetic level with no relation to the speaker's understanding.

2. Intensive: It tests the ability to produce short utterances showing a little knowledge of grammar, vocabulary or phonology. Reading aloud, completing dialogue, directed responses tasks, picture-cued tasks elicit controlled utterances fall into this category.

3. Responsive: It tests interaction of very short conversations. The limited length of utterances sets it apart from the interactive type. Open-ended questions, learner-generated questions, giving instructions and directions are in this type.

4. Interactive: It tests lengthy and complex interaction either transactional or interpersonal. Games, role play, interview, discussions and conversations are in this type.

5. Extensive (monologue): It includes speeches, oral presentations, and story-telling. Interaction from listener is limited. Language style is more deliberative and formal. Planning is involved, but not in the case of casually delivered speech.

There are recommendations on choosing the test task. Underhill (1987) said that most speaking tests include two or more test tasks with a combination of more

controlled and less controlled tasks. Baker and Westrup (2003) said that test tasks should resemble situations and language in real life. Thus, they should elicit informing and interacting speaking. The informing speaking includes describing, comparing, giving instructions, and telling a story. The interacting speaking has to be done in pairs or groups such as interviewing each other. They can also test social skills of communication such as taking turns or using formal or informal language. A. Hughes (2003) suggests the essence of test tasks that they should represent the oral tasks that test takers can perform; elicit test takers' behavior showing true speaking ability; and have validity and reliability in assessing such behavior.

Regarding the scoring method, Bailey (1998) distinguished it to be objective scoring, holistic scoring, and analytic scoring. Objective scoring usually has one correct answer, which can be checked by any person a computer; there is no judgment. Holistic scoring judges overall speaking ability by giving a single score on a scale, or assigning a level such as novice, intermediate, and advanced. Analytic scoring judges sub-skills of speaking ability by using rating systems to analyze. The tested sub-skills depend on particular assessment. Harris (1969) proposed the main focus for foreign students to be pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary. Brown (2001) proposed grammar, vocabulary, comprehension, fluency, pronunciation, and task. Baker and Westrup (2003) proposed areas such as pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, proper use of function as well as other skills including intelligibility,

fluency, and content. Thus, there is a variety of the language and skills to be tested, which is due to the theory identifying speaking that the test designer believes.

Baker and Westrup (2003) proposed that test designers can create a simple marking scheme or rating scales to give scores for students. Louma (2004) talked about the levels of rating scales that the ones with more levels can discriminate performance in fine details, but the ones with fewer levels help raters give scores consistently. Five to six levels are recommended.

2.4 Previous studies

This section includes previous research studies on task-bask instruction, noticing the gap, and English speaking ability respectively.

2.4.1 Research studies on task-based instruction

Sanguanngarm (2010) developed an English Tourist Guides course with task-based approach to enhance English oral communication ability of Chaingmai Rajaphat University undergraduates. This course aimed to teach the students to conduct a tour and create a tour package. Useful language, communication skills, listening and speaking skills were the language content. The results showed that the students' English oral communication ability improved significantly and the students were actively engaged in learning through tasks.

Another research is from Vega (2010) who used team teaching of Thai and foreign teacher of English in task-based instruction to improve English oral communication ability of tenth grade students at Nawamintharachinuthit Horwang Nonthaburi School. It was found that the students' English oral communication was improved.

2.4.2 Research studies on noticing the gap

Hanaoka and Izumi (2012) studied noticing and uptake to see whether how effective model text and reformulation input help learners with their overt and covert problems. The researchers adopted an output-input-output sequence with one written production task. First, the participants wrote their narrative and took notes of problems they noticed while writing. Next, they received the native-speaker model of writing and a reformulated version of their own writing to compare them with their original text. They took notes of everything they noticed. Last, they wrote their narrative one more time. The results involving noticing showed that as long as solutions were available, learners noticed and incorporated them in their revised text regardless of the types of input texts. Output experience prompted learners to notice the solutions and incorporated them in their revision.

Another research is by Uggen (2012) with the emphasis on the noticing function of output proposed by Swain (2005). An output-input-output sequence was adopted in a single written task in this study. The researcher wanted to know

whether output activities promote noticing of linguistic forms; and whether they result in improved production of them, which are the past and the present hypothetical conditional. Triangulating the results from underlining, stimulated-recall data, and essays were used to measure noticing. Pre-post-test and essays were used to measure language learning. The results were that the experimental group who produced past conditional (EG past) noticed the target form in the input and improved in producing it better than the control group (CG) and the group who produced present conditional (EG pre); that all participants focused on meaning before forms; and that complexity (past conditional) had a positive effect on noticing than less complexity (present conditional) because processing it provokes more cognitive demand. It contrasts with cognitive theory, which says difficult structures may result in cognitive overload from the limited capacity assumption.

There have been research studies on noticing by using speaking tasks (Lynch, 2001, 2007; Mackey, 2006; Stillwell et al., 2009). Lynch (2007) studied to what extent the students benefitted from noticing based on transcripts, which was conducted only two weeks without any teaching part. There were two classes of postgraduate students in the study. One class had the students transcribe and correct the language themselves first, then the teacher later reformulated their transcripts (student-initiated correction, SI). The other class did not have them transcribe because the teacher did it for them (teacher-initiated correction, TI). The results

showed that SI class benefited long-term progress (accuracy) in spoken English more than the TI class, which the research stated that it came from the greater depth of processing involved in transcribing. The researcher analyzed the data by seeing the right and wrong of the re-use of the corrected forms. The researcher assumes that students notice only slips (mistakes) but not errors, because errors can only be pointed out by someone else.

Mackey (2006) showed that interactional feedback helped improve second language acquisition via noticing process of L2 form. Two types of feedback in this study were negotiation and recast. Twenty-eight ESL university students participated. Data on noticing were collected by using learning journals, stimulated recall interview, focused (L1) question, and final (L2) questionnaires. The forms studied were questions, plurals, and past tense. The results showed that interactional feedback promoted noticing of L2 form for question formation but not for plurals and past tense. The data were analyzed by counting the number of the students who showed their noticing, and who produced the targeted forms in the post-test. It was suggested that further study should consider individual differences and pointed some sensitive areas of noticing. For example, researchers do not have direct access to learners' internal processing; noticing may be viewed along a continuum rather than a fixed occurrence; no evidence of noticing is not to proof that noticing is

absent; and awareness of noticing but not understanding does not show that understanding is absent.

2.4.3 Research studies on English speaking ability

There are studies employing various instructions to improve English speaking. Hong (2009) used media-based instruction to improve speaking ability of 20 grade eleven students in Cambodia to prepare them to be junior tour guides in their country. The speaking test tasks were based from TOEIC and assessment principle by Bailey (2005). The tasks included answering six guided questions, reading a text aloud, presenting/describing a picture of a tourist attraction in their country, and role-playing of giving direction of a tourist area from a map. Each task has different criteria for scoring. The tested sub-skills were content, fluency, comprehension, pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar. This study showed that media-based instruction could improve the students' speaking ability.

In addition, Janudom (2009) developed an English instruction model using drama and questioning techniques to enhance speaking ability and critical thinking skill. The participants were 15 non-English majored undergraduate students. The test tasks were answering questions from a picture and role-playing. The scoring criteria included fluency, comprehensibility, amount of communication, quality of communication (grammatical correctness). This study showed that the model enhanced the students' English speaking ability.

Pinweha (2010), moreover, used differentiated speaking instruction employing computer-mediated instruction and project work to improve English speaking ability and communication strategies. The participants were nine undergraduate students majoring in English. The test tasks were from TOEIC speaking test, and the scoring criteria were adapted from TOEIC scoring guide. This study showed that the students gained higher scores in English speaking ability after the instruction.

2.5 Summary

From the literature review, task-based instruction is one approach that can be used to teach a foreign language skill including speaking. It promotes communication by primarily focusing on meaning, and students communicate to achieve the task outcome (Ellis, 2003; Nunan, 2004; Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Willis, 1996). Tasks should represent, to some degree, the real world task that students may encounter (Baker & Westrup, 2003; Ellis, 2003; Skehan, 1998) There is an argument about the trade-off between focusing on meaning rather than language forms (Skehan, 1996). However, the design of the pre- and post-task can help students improve their linguistic knowledge (Ellis, 2003).

Noticing the gap helps students know that their language use is different from the target language used by proficient speakers, and the noticed items will be the starting point for them to improve their language (Schmidt & Frota, 1986). Even

though students themselves could best be the ones who initiate noticing the gap, the teacher can guide students to notice the gaps as well (Thornbury, 2005). They can also provide corrective feedback to guide students to see the differences between the current language knowledge and the target language because non-native speakers could not identify the similarity of differences between them (Schmidt & Frota, 1986). In addition, the teacher should give feedback on what students notice to prevent misunderstanding misunderstand things, which makes them form wrong hypotheses or generalizations (Swain & Lapkin, 1995).

Regarding English speaking ability, the fundamental knowledge and skills include vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, and fluency (Bygate, 1987; Harris, 1969; Hughes, 2002; Thornbury, 2005). Planning time improves quality of speaking (Skehan, 1996; Willis, 1996). Task repetition helps ease the process of speaking second language learners (Carter & Nunan, 2001; Thornbury, 2005). Feedback should be given after the speaking is finished (Baker & Westrup, 2003; Harmer, 2007; Lynch, 2007; Rivers & Temperley, 1978). Beginner speakers need a lot of support such as group work, simplified vocabulary and structure (Burn & Joyces, 1977). For the assessment, the speaking tasks should represent the oral tasks that test takers can perform; elicit test takers' behavior showing true speaking ability; and have validity and reliability in assessing such behavior (Hughes, 2003).

In this study, the researcher combined task-based instruction and noticing the gap to improve students' English speaking ability. Students practiced speaking through real-world related tasks, and noticed the gap in their language so they could fix it to improve their speaking.

Next, Chapter 3 will present the methods of this study.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

This chapter describes how the research was conducted. It includes research design, context of the study, population and participants, instruments, data collection procedures, and data analysis.

3.1 Research design

This research aimed to investigate the effects of using task-based instruction and noticing the gap on English speaking ability of Thai undergraduate students, and explored the students' opinions toward the instruction. It employed a single group pre-test/post-test quasi-experimental design. The independent variables were task-based instruction and noticing the gap, and the dependent variable was students' English speaking ability. This research used mixed methods as described below.

1. The quantitative method was used to investigate the effects of task-based instruction and noticing the gap on English speaking ability.

2. The qualitative method was used to:

- provide additional investigation of noticing the gap on English speaking ability;

- explore the students' opinions toward the use of task-based instruction and noticing the gap on English speaking ability.

3.2 Context of the study

This research was conducted at Bangkok Institute of Theology, Christian University of Thailand. It teaches Christian Theology in undergraduate and graduate levels. Almost all of the undergraduate students are from upcountry around Thailand, but the majority is from the North and some are from hill tribes. The students' socio-economic background is lower-middle to middle class. Their purpose to study at this institute is to graduate to be Christian pastors in Protestant churches or to work for Christian missions around Thailand. Most students have weak English background knowledge.

3.3 Population and participants

3.3.1 The population

The population in this study was undergraduate students in Thai universities.

3.3.2 The participants for the quantitative method

The participants for the quantitative method were eighteen first-year students at Bangkok Institute of Theology, Christian University of Thailand in the first semester of the academic year 2014. They studied an English intensive course in the summer semester before the first semester. Their age was between 18-34 years old. Some of the Thai students could speak their tribes' languages including Karen, Mong, and Arka. The details of the participants are in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

Summary of the participants in the quantitative method

Gender	Nationality						Total
	Thai	Thai (Karen)	Thai (Mong)	Thai (Arka)	Lao	Korea	
Male	4	1	1	-	1	-	7
Female	4	3	-	1	2	1	11

3.3.3 The participants for the qualitative method

The researcher purposively selected six out of the eighteen students to represent students from different pre-test score groups. It was to see how they improved their English speaking ability, noticed the gap, and thought about the instruction. The selecting criteria were below.

1. Based on the English speaking ability pre-test scores, the six students consisted of two from the high-score group, two from the average-score group, and two from the low-score group. However, they did not have to pair with each other when they studied in class.

2. Based on the study habits during the English intensive course, these six students were responsible and willing to communicate. For example, they came to

class on time, and participated actively in class. The details of the participants are in

Table 3.2.

Table 3.2

Summary of the participants in the qualitative method

Pseudonym	Pair	Pre-test score (60) / Group	Gender	Nationality
Student #5	Pair 1	27 / Average-score group	Female	Thai (Karen)
Student #6		31 / High-score group	Female	Thai
Student #7	Pair 2	26 / Low-score group	Female	Thai
Student #8		24 / Low-score group	Female	Thai (Karen)
Student #13	Pair 3	28 / Average-score group	Male	Thai (Karen)
Student #14		31 / High-score group	Male	Lao

It should be noted that even though they were separated in different score

groups, their scores were not remarkably different because the range from the low to

high was seven ranging between 24 to 31.

3.4 Research instruments

This section includes two major parts: the instructional design, and data

collection instruments. The instructional design includes the research conceptual

framework, lesson plans, and class schedule. The data collection instruments

included two parallel forms of English speaking ability pre- and post-tests,

transcriptions, stimulated recall, and interview questions.

3.4.1 Instructional design

It included the research conceptual framework, lesson plans, and the class

schedule.

3.4.1.1 Research conceptual framework
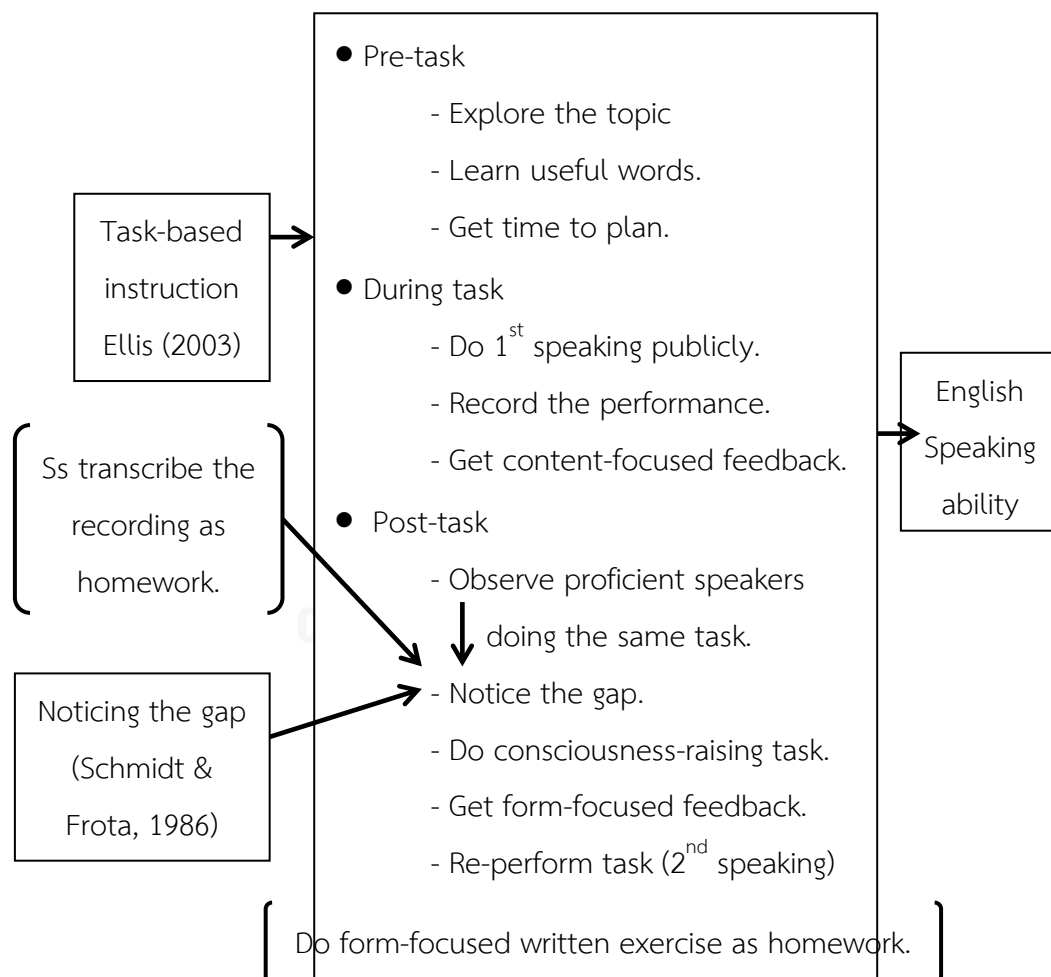
Figure 3.1. Research conceptual framework of task-based instruction and noticing the
gap on English speaking ability.

The design for the research conceptual framework was adapted from Ellis's task-based instruction framework (2003), and Thornbury's (2005) recommended sequence of perform-observe-re-perform in task-based instruction. In this study, one task covered two weeks. The teaching steps following the conceptual framework are provided in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3

Teaching steps following the research conceptual framework

Teacher's actions	Students' gain
Pre-task/ week one	**Pre-task/ week one**
• T introduced the topic by using video clips, reading/speaking/group activities.	• Ss activated schematic knowledge.
• T prepared students with useful language for the task by using games, activity sheets, reading/listening activities and teaching how to use English/online dictionary. Next, T assigned a pair-work speaking task.	• Ss learned useful words, phrases, and pronunciation relevant to the task. • Ss knew the task demand and the expected task outcome.

Table 3.3

Teaching steps following the research conceptual framework (Continued)

Teacher's actions	Students' gain
• T led students to prepare their speaking by:	
- T asked students in each pair to sit on the opposite side of the classroom away from their partners, so they did not negotiate on the outcome before they spoke in front of class.	- Ss were assigned to make real negotiation at the actual speaking, which helped prepare them for real life communication when the outcome derived from real-time negotiation.
- T allowed five to seven minutes preparation time to prepare to speak in front of class.	- Ss had time to prepare ideas and language, which helped them to speak better.
During task/ week one	**During task/ week one**
• T asked each pair to speak in front of class for the 1st speaking in a time limit for 3 minutes, and each student in the pair took turns reporting the outcome for 30 seconds.	• Ss practiced speaking to complete the task. They spoke in time limit to practice fluency. Each student of the pair practiced summarizing and reporting the outcome.

Table 3.3

Teaching steps following the research conceptual framework (Continued)

Teacher's actions	Students' gain
● T recorded the speech of each pair, and had the whole class listen and answer questions about the content of each pair's speech after the pair finished.	● Each pair would get their recordings to transcribe as homework at the end of the class. The other students practiced listening to catch ideas, and speaking to answer the questions.
● T gave content-focused feedback to the pair.	● Ss knew whether the content was relevant and appropriate to the task.

Out of class time: Students sent homework of the self-transcriptions of their 1st speaking to the teacher to check the matching between their voice and transcriptions. The teacher helped the students' noticing of pronunciation by writing their wrong pronunciation in Thai next to the English words that they mispronounced in their self-transcriptions. The teacher also helped correct misspelling for words that they pronounced correctly but mistyped, in order to ease their attention when they compared transcriptions in the noticing activity in week two.

Table 3.3

Teaching steps following the research conceptual framework (Continued)

Teacher's actions	Students' gain
Post-task/ week two	**Post-task/ week two**
● T had students do noticing activity by:	
- T gave them the transcriptions of the model dialogs of proficient speakers doing the same task. The focused grammar words of the lesson in the transcriptions were boldfaced to be noticed. T asked students to listen to the audio files of the dialogs twice while reading along the model dialogs at the same time.	- Ss practiced listening to dialogs as they read along. Their focus was geared to notice the focused grammar, but they were also allowed to notice fluency, vocabulary, and pronunciation freely.
- T translated the dialogs into Thai.	- Ss understood the meaning of the dialogs, which should help notice the gap better.

Table 3.3

Teaching steps following the research conceptual framework (Continued)

Teacher's actions	Students' gain
Post-task/ week two (Continued)	**Post-task/ week two (Continued)**
- T gave students' self-transcriptions from week one back, and assigned them to notice the differences between the model language and their own language on their self-transcriptions and took notes or made changes on their transcriptions from things that they noticed.	- Ss noticed the gap individually. The notes they made were supposed to help them see what they could improve in their language.
- T asked students to make four groups. Each group shared things they noticed and wrote them on the flip chart posted on the wall.	- Group work helped summarize things that each student noticed, and students would learn from peers.

Table 3.3

Teaching steps following the research conceptual framework (Continued)

Teacher's actions	Students' gain
Post-task/ week two (Continued)	Post-task/ week two (Continued)
● T had the whole class do consciousness-raising (CR) task together with the teacher.	● Ss studied the focused grammar of the lesson together. They also studied pronunciation, stress, and intonation from the CR task.
	● The skills to notice and compare language in CR task were quite similar to noticing the gap, which should support students to notice better.
● T gave form-focused feedback to things students noticed by:	
- T asked each group to go back to their flip charts and present them to whole class. Then, T gave form-focused feedback right after each group presented to check its correctness and	- The whole class would learn what their classmates noticed. Ss who presented could use knowledge from CR task to present it. At the end they knew whether their noticed items were right or

Table 3.3

Teaching steps following the research conceptual framework (Continued)

Teacher's actions	Students' gain
ensure students' correct understanding.	wrong from T's feedback.
● T had students speak for the task again (2nd speaking). T recorded students' voice of 2nd speaking.	- Ss used knowledge from CR task and noticing the gap to improve their language in 2nd speaking.
Out of class time: Students do form-focused written exercise as homework. The teacher checked the homework, checked 2nd speaking and gave scores, and prepared the feedback of 2nd speaking to give at the beginning of the next lesson.	

3.4.1.2 The lesson plans

The lesson plans of task-based instruction and noticing the gap was constructed based on the research conceptual framework. They were implemented in the English speaking class in the first semester of the academic year 2014 at Bangkok Institute of Theology, Christian University of Thailand. There were three kinds of tasks: jigsaw tasks, problem-solving tasks, and opinion exchange tasks. The task difficulty and speaking demand gradually increased (See Appendix A for a sample of the lesson plans).

For the gaps to notice, the grammar for informal speaking was the focus. It was because the English background knowledge in grammar of the students was rather weak, and the English department of the university sets grammar as a fundamental goal in all English courses. However, if the students noticed other linguistic features such as vocabulary, expressions, pronunciation and the data were reported as well. The samples of grammar features were Present Simple Tense; Present Continuous Tense; Past Simple Tense; common modal verbs; yes/no- and wh- questions; and basic conjunctions (Thornbury, 2005). Other spoken grammatical structures suggested by other researchers; such as, those from Azar (2002), Collins (2012), Cullen and Kuo (2007), Leech (2000), McCarthy and Carter (2006), and Mumford (2009). The grammar structures to be noticed in each task relied on speculation that the task would generate its use in order to complete the task. Still, it should be noted that designing grammar structures to be essential for production tasks is more difficult because it is harder to control what students will say in terms of words and structures (Loschky & Bley-Vroman, 2011). The details of grammar in each task are in the scope and sequence (See Appendix B for the scope and sequence).

The tasks in this class were created to generate various answers from the students. This was because the students spoke in front of class pair by pair. The researcher wanted them to use their own ideas to create a variety in class, and not

copy the ideas from the previous pairs. The different task types were based on those proposed by Pica et al. (1993). They resembled real world speaking tasks as much as possible, and encouraged the students to think creatively and critically. They were arranged from the most to the least controlled input for the students produced longer utterances as the lessons continued.

The proficient speakers included both native and non-native English speakers. They were American, British, Thai, Cambodian, Chinese, and Nepali; therefore, the students were exposed to different accents. However, the researcher created dialogs for them to speak due to a few reasons. First, the researcher could control the grammar used in each task for the students to notice. Second, the researcher could control the length of the dialogs. Thus, it helped control the time for each recording to be around two minutes, which should be within the students' listening attention span. Third, it was more convenient for the proficient speakers to read from the dialogs than do the task on their own since they had little available time. All in all, an American native speaker checked all the dialogs before they were recorded.

3.4.1.2.1 Validation of the lesson plan

The content validity of the lesson plan was checked by three experts who are in the field of English language instruction (See Appendix C for the list of experts). The researcher created ten items in the evaluation form containing the Item Objective Congruence Index (IOC) for the experts to check (See Appendix D for the

results of the lesson plan evaluation form). The experts gave scores of -1 (not appropriate), 0 (not sure), and 1 (appropriate) to evaluate the appropriateness of the lesson plan. The experts also gave comments explaining their evaluation. Their comments along with the researcher's reactions and reasons to reserve or revise the lesson plan are presented Table 3.4.

Table 3.4

Summary of the experts' comments and the researcher's reactions for the lesson plan

Experts' comments	Researcher's reactions
Item 1.3 - The objective of gap noticing is missing.	- Added the objective following the comment.
Item 2.1 - Some vocabulary in the activity sheet is too easy.	- Revised the vocabulary to be more challenging.
Item 3.1 - The matching of the activities and objectives should be made clearer.	- Wrote down objective number in the purpose column next to the activities.
Item 3.2 - Given time 100 minutes, students seem not to do anything significant.	- Reserved not to change the teaching procedures because every student spoke English in every class. When their classmate spoke, they had to listen and answer questions. They did individual

Table 3.4

Summary of the experts' comments and the researcher's reactions for the lesson plan (Continued)

Experts' comments	Researcher's reactions
	and group activities that required listening and reading, and learned grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation.
Item 4.1 - The reasons of using the materials should be clearer.	- Revised to explain the reasons for using materials following the comment.
Item 5.2 - When to use the rubric is still unclear whether it is 1st or 2nd speaking.	- Stated in evaluation criteria that the rubric was used for the 2nd speaking.
Addition - The teaching periods for the terminal objective should be made clear.	- Stated next to the terminal objective that it took 4 periods and was reached in period 3-4.
- Where to meet the terminal objective should be made clear in the lesson plan.	- Wrote down terminal objective in the purpose column next to the last activity in the lesson plan.

3.4.1.2.2 Piloting the lesson plan

After the lesson plan was revised following the experts' comments. The researcher piloted the lesson plan with a group of students who had similar characteristics to the participants in this study. They were twenty-seven students who had finished the first year but had not yet started the second year at Bangkok Institute of Theology, Christian University of Thailand. The pilot lesson plan also helped the researcher better prepare for the instruction. It prompted the researcher to adjust several things.

First, the researcher gave oral content feedback instead of written feedback when each pair of students came to speak in front of class for 1st speaking. It was because during that time the researcher had to monitor the time being used for each pair and note down information from them to ask the other students, who were to listen to them, to answer questions. Thus, written feedback would not be as convenient as oral feedback. Second, the researcher had to use timer to control time allowed for individual and group noticing otherwise the students would overuse time in these processes. Third, the researcher had the students prepare for 2nd speaking outside the classroom. It was because students quite worried about their speaking once they knew that 2nd speaking was a test. They talked to each other quite loud and did not listen to the pair speaking in front of class. Besides, if they prepared inside classroom, some later pairs might take advantage from coping the

previous pairs' speech. Having them prepare outside helped the pair who was speaking in class to concentrate on their performance.

Forth, part two of the lesson plan took longer than two hours because the students took a long time to complete the consciousness-raising task (CR-task) to conclude the grammar rules. The researcher could not rush them to finish this part as it would negatively affect their comprehension. Luckily, the class was the last class of the day, so the time could be extended. However, because the class time was beyond the regular class hour, the researcher allowed the students who finished 2nd speaking to leave the class after they finished. Fifth, when each task ended after the students finished 2nd speaking, the researcher had little time to give feedback to each pair because the researcher was afraid of using too much extra class time. When the researcher later checked their 2nd speaking to give scores, she gathered general feedback, used the first ten minutes at the beginning of the next lesson (new task) to give the feedback.

3.4.1.3 The class schedule

There were six lessons. Each lesson covered two weeks. The class of each week lasted around two and a half hours. The following Table 3.5 presents the class schedule.

Table 3.5

Class schedule of the English speaking class in the first semester of the academic year 2014

Week	Task	Task Outcome (Oral report)
1	Introduction to the class	
2	Pre-test	
3-4	Choosing a roommate (Jigsaw task)	Decision on choosing a roommate.
5-6	Arranging a one-day Trip for Jim (Jigsaw task)	An agreed schedule of the trip.
7-8	Finding Christmas gifts for the orphans (Problem- solving task)	The gifts to be given and ways to find them with supporting reasons.
9	Mid-term exam required by the university	
10-11	Helping Amanda (problem- solving task)	Ways to help Amada's depression case.

Table 3.5

Class schedule of the English speaking class in the first semester of the academic year (Continued)

Week	Task	Task Outcome (Oral report)
12-13	Should students wear school uniforms or casual clothes? (Opinion exchange task)	Decision of each student on the topic, and their supporting reasons.
14-15	Should students go to tutoring schools? (Opinion exchange task)	Decision of each student on the topic, and their supporting reasons.
16	Post-test	

The next section will present data collection instruments.

3.4.2 Data collection instruments

They were divided according to the data to answer each research question.

3.4.2.1 The instruments to collect the data on the effects task-based instruction and noticing the gap on students' English speaking ability

They included the instruments to collect quantitative and qualitative data.

1 Two parallel forms of English speaking ability pre-and post-test

They were used to collect quantitative data. All eighteen students took the tests in pair. The researcher allowed them to freely choose the partner whom they liked to communicate with, because group cohesiveness supports willingness to communicate (Thong-lam, 2009). Thus, the students stayed with the same partner since pre-test, the instruction, and post-test. The pre-test was used before the course began, and the post-test was used after the course ended. The test tasks followed the three types of tasks in the instruction, which were a jigsaw task, a problem-solving task, and an opinion exchange task (See Appendix E and Appendix F for the English speaking ability pre-test and post-test).

The detail summary of the tests is that the jigsaw task in part one asked a student pair to play roles of two friends who wanted to see each other in the afternoon. Each one received a different made-up schedule from the teacher. However, their schedules were full, so they had to negotiate to cancel some of their

plans to make an appointment with each other. Next, the problem-solving task in part two asked a student pair to play roles of two friends who helped solve a problem of another friend's sibling. The two students received a scenario of the problem from the teacher. They had to think of three solutions together. Last, the opinion exchange in part three asked a student pair to exchange opinions on a given topic. They used their own ideas and did not have to agree with each other. The pre-test asked their preference between day school and boarding schools. The post-test asked their preference between downtown and countryside.

In sum, the tasks were created to have different task types, stimulate students to think, and resemble real world speaking as much as possible. The tasks were arranged from the most to the least controlled input so that the students produced longer utterances as the tests continued. The preparation time varied according to the information the students had to handle.

The summary of each task is presented in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6

Summary of the English speaking ability pre- and post-test

Part	Task type	Task detail	Outcome	Prep Time	Speaking Time	Evaluation Criteria
1	Jigsaw	Ss negotiated to make an appointment.	Convergent	3 mins	4 mins	Apply to all tasks - Fluency & coherence
2	Problem-solving	Ss discussed to find three solutions to the problem.	Convergent	2 mins	4 mins	- Grammatical range & accuracy
3	Opinion exchange	Ss discussed to exchange ideas on a given topic.	Divergent	1 mins	4 mins	- Lexical resource - Pronunciation

At the same time that the tests were developed, the scoring rubric was created. After the tests and the scoring rubric were finished, they were validated by experts and piloted to find test reliability, difficulty index, and discrimination power. The details of each process are provided.

1.1 The Scoring Rubric

This study adapted a scoring rubric from IELTS speaking band descriptors as it covers all main parts of speaking skills including fluency and coherence, grammatical range and accuracy, lexical resource, and pronunciation, which are considered common elements of speaking proposed by Bygate (1987), Harris (1969), Hughes (2002), and Thornbury (2005). The score levels were reduced from nine to six to yield more consistent rating. Three experts evaluated the scoring rubric at the same time with the English speak ability tests, and agreed on its use with no revision (See Appendix C for the list of experts and Appendix G for the scoring rubric).

1.2 Validation of the English speaking ability tests

The content validity of the tests was checked by three experts who are in the field of English language instruction (See Appendix C for the list of experts). The researcher created nine items in the evaluation form containing the Item Objective Congruence index (IOC Index) for the experts to check (See Appendix H for the results of the English speaking ability tests evaluation form). The experts gave scores of -1 (not appropriate), 0 (not sure), +1 (appropriate) to evaluate the appropriateness of the tests and scoring rubric. The experts' comments along with the researcher's reactions and reasons to reserve or revise the tests are presented in Table 3.7.

Table 3.7

Summary of the experts' comments and the researcher's actions for the English

speaking ability pre- and post-test

Experts' comments	Researcher's reactions
Item 1.1-1.3 - Each test, which had only three tasks, may not assess all language knowledge specified in the scope and sequence of the instruction.	- Reserved not the change the tests because the main language focus in each lesson was to notice grammar. The task types and details should be able to could elicit the grammar taught in class.
Item 5 – Divide the directions into items.	- Revised the directions following the comment.
	- Revised the preparation time and language in one question, and provided paper following the comments.

1.3 Piloting the test, Test Reliability, Difficulty Index,

and Discrimination Power

After the tests were revised following the experts' comments. The researcher

piloted the pre-test with a group of students who had similar characteristics to the

participants in this study. They were 27 students who had finished the first year but

had not yet started the second year at Bangkok Institute of Theology, Christian

University of Thailand. The scores from the pilot test were calculated for test

reliability using Cronbach's Alpha. The test reliability was 0.92 indicating high

reliability. The difficulty index (p) and discrimination power (r) of the whole test and

each part were calculated following Thorndike and Hagen (1969). The criteria for

difficulty index and discrimination power are from Ebel (1965), which is presented in

Table 3.8.

Table 3.8

Criteria for difficulty index and discrimination power by Ebel (1965)

Difficulty Index (p)	Evaluation
0.91 and up	Very easy
0.76 to 0.90	Easy
0.26 to 0.75	Optimal difficult
0.11 to 0.25	Difficult
0.10 and below	Very difficult

Table 3.8

Criteria for difficulty index and discrimination power by Ebel (1965) (Continued)

Discrimination Power (r)	Evaluation
.40 and up	Very good
.30 to .39	Reasonably good but subject to improvement
.20 to .29	Marginal. Need improvement
Below or equal to .19	Poor. Need rejection or improvement

The results of difficulty index and discrimination power from the pilot test are presented in Table 3.9.

Table 3.9

Difficulty index and discrimination power of the test from the pilot test

Aspect	Part 1	Part 2	Part 3	Overall
Difficulty index (p)	0.47 (Optimal)	0.41 (Optimal)	0.51 (Optimal)	0.46 (Optimal)
Discrimination power (r)	0.52 (Very good)	0.51 (Very good)	0.39 (Reasonably	0.46 (Very good)

Overall, the test had acceptable quality as its reliability was high, its difficult index was optimal, and its discrimination power was good. The pilot test also helped the researcher better prepare for the pre-test. This was because the students' performance in the pilot test prompted the researcher to adjust two things. First, the preparation time in part one was increased to three minutes. Second, the researcher had to explain the questions and vocabulary in Thai during the preparation time so that every student understood the questions. This was because the students' English background was rather weak. The researcher's explaining helped eliminate the obstacles they encountered in reading English and understanding the vocabulary in the questions.

3.4.2.1.2. Additional triangulated research instruments for noticing the gap

The additional triangulated instruments were used to collect qualitative data to support the research results on English speaking ability. The instruments included the students' notes in their self-transcriptions (1st speaking), stimulated recall, and the transcriptions of the students' 2nd speaking (transcribed by the researcher). The details of each instrument are provided as follows.

1 The students' notes in their self-transcriptions (1st speaking)

The students' notes in their self-transcriptions showed things that they

noticed when they compared their language with the model language. Only the self-transcriptions from the selected six students, who were came from the high-, average-, and low pre-test score groups, were collected and used as the stimuli in the stimulated recall (SR) after each lesson.

2 Stimulated recall

In this study, one-on-one stimulated recall was conducted at the end of each lesson to ask the selected six students about their individual noticing the gap when they noted down on their self-transcriptions. The stimuli were their notes on their self-transcriptions. The researcher, who is considered novice, had consulted with an expert in SR on how to conduct it properly, and studied several research studies employing SR as examples before using it (See List of experts in Appendix C).

Because the researcher and the six students were new to stimulated recall (SR) process, the SR of lesson one was treated as a pilot SR and was excluded from data analysis. The pilot SR helped the researcher knew that there was a great amount of data, and there should be a guideline to recall their thoughts. Thus, the students were exposed to two prompts before they did SR of every lesson, which were: 1) What did you note down on your transcription?, and 2) What did you think of your language compared to things that you noted down? During SR, the researcher recorded the students' voice. After the SR finished, the researcher sometimes asked them to clarify their SR answers. If the after-SR answers contrast with the during-SR

answers, the researcher discarded the after-SR answers because the students might have used their present thoughts instead of the past thoughts.

3 Transcriptions of the students' 2nd speaking (transcribed by the researcher)

The transcriptions of the selected six students' 2nd speaking were used to collect data on noticing although there were not shown in the students' notes in their self-transcriptions or reported in the stimulated recall

3.4.2.2 The instrument to collect the data on the students' opinions toward the use of task-based instruction and noticing the gap on English speaking ability

It was the instrument to collect qualitative data.

1 Interview questions

There were seven questions in total (See Appendix I for the interview questions). The aspects of each question are presented in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10

Summary of the aspects of the interview questions

Item	Aspect
Item 1	The overall view of the instruction.
Item 2	The overall view of the tasks in the instruction.
Item 3	The overall view of the language taught in the tasks.
Item 4	The lesson part that students liked the most.
Item 5	The lesson part that students liked the least.
Item 6	The usefulness of the instruction.
Item 7	Comments to improve the instruction.

A semi-structure group interview was done within one week after the post-test. It was done in Thai to ensure that it best supported the students to express their opinions. The interviewer was another English teacher at the institute with whom the students were familiar. It was to avoid the effect from the researcher's presence, which could be the threat preventing the students from giving their opinions honestly. The interviewees were the selected six students in the qualitative method. Their commitment as the selected students made them participate actively in every class. It was certain that they gave data based from their experience in all aspects of the instruction. Besides, they were familiar with speaking their minds to

give the data because they participated in the stimulated recall (SR) before. The interview lasted two hours. The interview answers were recorded, transcribed, coded, and translated into English.

According to the validation of the interview questions, three experts checked the content validity of the interview questions (See Appendix C for the list of experts, and Appendix J for the results of the interview questions evaluation form). The researcher revised the interview questions following the experts' comments. One additional comment from an expert was that the interview should be done in group instead of in person to save time on the interview. The researcher agreed to do group interview following the comment.

3.5 Data collection procedures

The data collection was conducted during September to December 2014 in the first semester of the academic year 2014 at Bangkok Institute of Theology, Christian University of Thailand. It was conducted in three periods: priori period, during the instruction period, and posteriori period. The details are presented below:

3.5.1 Priori period

All eighteen students took the pre-test to measure their English speaking ability. It was the quantitative method of this study. Next, the researcher purposively selected six students by choosing two from the high-, two from the average-, and

two from the low-score group to participate in the qualitative method of this study. The researcher gave class orientation to the students before the instruction.

3.5.2 During the instruction period

During the twelve weeks of the instruction, all eighteen students studied in the English speaking class for twelve weeks of instruction in this study. Regarding the selected six students, the researcher took their self-transcriptions, with their notes containing their individual noticing evidence, back before they studied CR tasks. Yet, the researcher gave them the spares ones so they could work further in class the same as the other students did. After each lesson ended, the researcher did one-on-one stimulated recall with them. Later, the researcher transcribed the recordings from SR to triangulate the data with the students' notes in their self- transcriptions of 1st speaking, and the transcriptions of 2nd speaking (transcribed by the researcher).

3.5.3 Posteriori period

All eighteen students took the post-test to measure their English speaking ability. The researcher compared the post-test scores with the pre-test scores in order to find the effects of the task-based instruction and noticing the gap on English speaking ability. After that, the researcher interviewed the purposively selected six students about their opinions toward the use of task-based instruction and noticing the gap to improve English speaking ability.

The summary of the data collection procedures is presented in Figure 3.2.
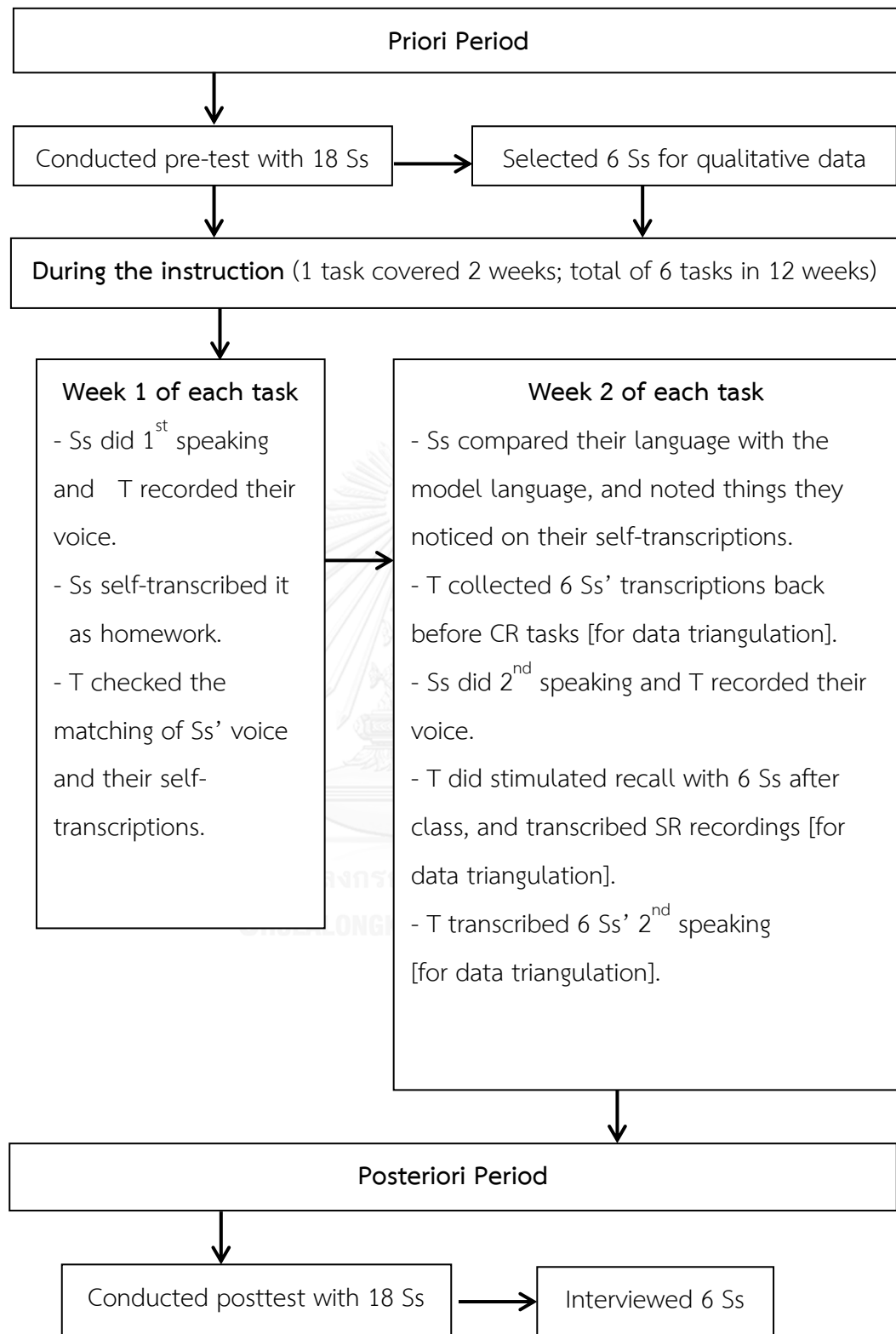
Figure 3.2. Summary of the data collection procedures in the study.

3.6 Data analysis

Wilcoxon signed ranks test (non-parametric test) was used to analyze quantitative data of the pre and post-test English speaking ability scores. The second rater rated 100 % of the quantitative data for inter-rater reliability. The effect size was determined to see the effectiveness of the treatment to the students. Content analysis was used to analyze additional qualitative triangulated data of noticing the gap on English speaking ability. Content analysis was also used to analyze the students' opinions toward the instruction from the interview questions.

3.7 Summary of data analysis

The summary of data analysis is presented in Table 3.11. It presents the research questions, participants, data collection instruments, and data analysis to study effects of task-based instruction and noticing the gap on English speaking ability of undergraduate students.

Table 3.11

Summary of data analysis

Research Questions	Participants	Instruments	Data Analysis
1. To what extent do task-based instruction and noticing the gap enhance student's English speaking ability?	18 students	- Pre-test - Post-test	- Wilcoxon signed ranks test.
	6 students	- Students' notes in their self-transcriptions (1st speaking) - Stimulated recall - Transcriptions of students' 2nd speaking (transcribed by the researcher).	- Content analysis

Table 3.11

Summary of data analysis (Continued)

Research Questions	Participants	Instruments	Data Analysis
2. What are students' opinions toward the use of task-based instruction and noticing the gap on English speaking ability?	6 students	- Interview questions	- Content analysis

Next, Chapter 4 will present the results of the study.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter reports the results of the study by presenting them following the research questions in Chapter I. The results were divided into two parts as follow:

1. The effects of task-based instruction and noticing the gap on students' English speaking ability

2. The students' opinions toward the use of task-based instruction and noticing the gap on English speaking ability.

4.1 The effects of task-based instruction and noticing the gap on students' English speaking ability

This section presents the quantitative and qualitative results respectively.

4.1.1 Results from the English speaking ability tests

The scores from the pre-test and post-test scores of all eighteen students presented the quantitative results of this study. As each test had three tasks and the total score of each task was 20, the total score of each pre- and post-test was 60. The inter-rater reliability was conducted to make rating reliable.

4.1.1.1 Inter-rater reliability

A second rater rated 100% of both pre-test and post-test, and the researcher

calculated the inter-rater reliability from the scores rated by the second rater and by

the researcher. The second rater was a graduate student in teaching English as a

foreign language major. Both raters discussed and adjusted scores that had major

inconsistency until the inter-rater reliability was acceptably high. The statistical tool

used to find correlation between the scores from the two raters was Spearman's rho.

It is correlation coefficient of non-parametric tests, and is a counterpart of Pearson

Correlation in parametric tests. The researcher decided to use non-parametric tests

because the extreme maximum scores existed in the data, which Dancey and Reidy

(2011), and Larson-Hall (2010) said they do not meet the assumptions of parametric

tests, as they misrepresent the mean and other parametric tests that use the mean

in calculation. The results of inter-rater reliability were presented in Table 4.1. The

correlations were over .90. It met inter-rater reliability preference level proposed by

Salkind (2013).

Table 4.1

Results of inter-rater reliability of the pre-test and post-test

Test	Part 1	Part 2	Part 3	Overall test	Sig
Pre-test	0.95	0.91	0.93	**0.97**	.00
Post-test	0.90	0.95	0.91	**0.97**	.00

Note. Correlation was significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

4.1.1.2 Descriptive statistics of the pre-test and post-test scores

After reaching high inter-rater reliability, the researcher used only the scores checked by the researcher for statistical calculation of the English speaking ability pre-test and post-test . The results regarding descriptive statistics are in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2

Descriptive statistics of the pre-test and post-test scores

Speaking Test	Min	Max	Mean	S.D.	Median
Pre-test	0	60	28.83	11.07	28.50
Post-test	19	60	39.72	7.90	40.50

Note. N=18. Total score = 60.

It can be seen that the students' post-test mean score 39.72 was higher that the pre-test mean score 28.83. The improvement in scores showed that the students' English speaking ability improved after the instruction. However, as mentioned before, the data in this study had extreme scores, which can be seen from the minimum score of 0 and the maximum score of 60 in the pre-test, and the minimum score of 19 and the maximum score of 60 in the pre-test. As Dancey and Reidy (2011) said that the mean is sensitive to extreme scores, and other measure of central tendency should be considered, the researcher presented the median alongside the mean. The median of the pre-test and post-test were 28.50 and 40.50 respectively, and the median of post-test was 12 scores higher than that of pre-test.

Moreover, the median and the mean were very close to each other, which meant that the data had symmetric distributions (Larson-Hall, 2010).

4.1.1.3 Statistical difference between the pre-test and post-test scores

To find if the pre-test and post-test scores were different statistically, Wilcoxon signed ranks test in non-parametric tests was a statistical tool used to calculate the result. It is a counterpart of *t*-test in parametric tests (Larson-Hall, 2010). The result is shown in Table 4.3. Out of eighteen students, there were seventeen students scoring in the post-test higher than pre-test, and there was one student who had tied scores. The pre-test and post-test scores were significantly different at .00 level (p<0.05). The effect size was calculated following Wilcoxon signed ranks test equation for a percentage variance measure of r, r = Z / √N (Larson-Hall, 2010). The effect size was 0.86, which was large due to the guidelines of Cohen (1988). It showed that task-based instruction had large effect on the results as can be seen from the great difference between the pre- and post-test scores. In other words, task-based instruction greatly improved the students' English speaking ability.

Table 4.3

Statistical difference between the pre-test and post-test scores using Wilcoxon

signed ranks test

Ranks		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
post-test - pre-test	Negative Ranks	0[a]	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	17[b]	9.00	153.00
	Ties	1[c]		
	Total	18		

Note. a. post-test < pre-test.

b. post-test > pre-test

c. post-test = pre-test.

Test Statistics[b]	post-test – pre-test
Z	-3.628[a]
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

Note. a. Based on negative ranks.

b. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test.

4.1.1.4 Comparing the pre-test and post-test scores of each student

The pre- / post-test scores and score differences are presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4

Pre-test and post-test scores of each student

Student	Pre-test (total=60)	Post-test (total=60)	Score Difference
1	60	60	0
2	35	36	1
3	35	41	6
4	30	42	12
5	27	40	13
6	31	41	10
7	26	42	16
8	24	33	9
9	27	35	8
10	28	40	12
11	34	49	15
12	30	42	12
13	28	38	10

Table 4.4

Pre-test and post-test scores of each student (Continued)

Student	Pre-test (total=60)	Post-test (total=60)	Score Difference
14	31	39	8
15	29	41	12
16	0	19	19
17	18	35	17
18	26	42	16

It can be seen that almost all the students' posttest scores improved, and most of them were above the mean 39.72. There were only small cases that the post-test scores were slightly lower than the mean; however, they showed decent improvement. The researcher considered the score of student #17 as the most improved and satisfactorily acceptable scores because although she earned less improved scores than student #16, her post-test score (35) was closer to the mean (39.72) (See Appendix K for the pre-test and post-test excerpts of the student who gained the most improved scores). Additionally, it should be noted that student #1 did not have any improved score because she scored sixty in both of the pre- and

post-test. Her English was excellent because she had studied in international schools since she was young.

4.1.1.5 Comparing the pre-test and post-test scores by the test parts

The differences between the pre-test and post-test scores of each part were calculated by using Wilcoxon signed ranks test of non-parametric tests. The results showed that the scores were significantly different at .00 level (p<0.05) in all parts including part one (a jigsaw task), part two (problem-solving task), and part three (opinion exchange task). Moreover, the median and the mean of each part were very close to each other, which meant that the data had symmetric distributions (Larson-Hall, 2010). The data were presented in Table 4.5 and 4.6.

Table 4.5

Pre-test and post-test scores comparison by the test parts

Test part	Pre-test		Post-test		Mean	Pre-test	Post-test
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D	Difference	Median	Median
Part 1	9.56	4.10	13.72	3.01	4.16	9.5	14
Part 2	9.72	3.68	13.50	2.66	3.78	10	14
Part 3	9.56	3.94	12.50	2.81	2.94	10	12.5

Note. N=18. Total score of each part = 20.

Table 4.6

Statistical differences between each part of the pre- and post-test using Wilcoxon

signed ranks test

Test part	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Part 1 Jigsaw task	-3.53 [a]	.00
Part 2 Problem solving task	-3.53 [a]	.00
Part 3 Opinion exchange task	-3.19 [a]	.00

Note. a. Based on negative ranks.

The results in Table 4.5 showed that the students scored higher in all three parts from the most improvement in part one to the least in part three respectively. Furthermore, the pre- and post-test scores of each part were compared by the mean of each aspect of English speaking ability. The aspects included fluency and coherence, grammatical range and accuracy, lexical resource, and pronunciation according to the rubric criteria. The results showed that the students scored higher in all aspects with slightly higher scores in fluency than grammar in the part two (problem-solving task) and part three (opinion-exchange task) as displayed in Figure 4.1 to Figure 4.3.
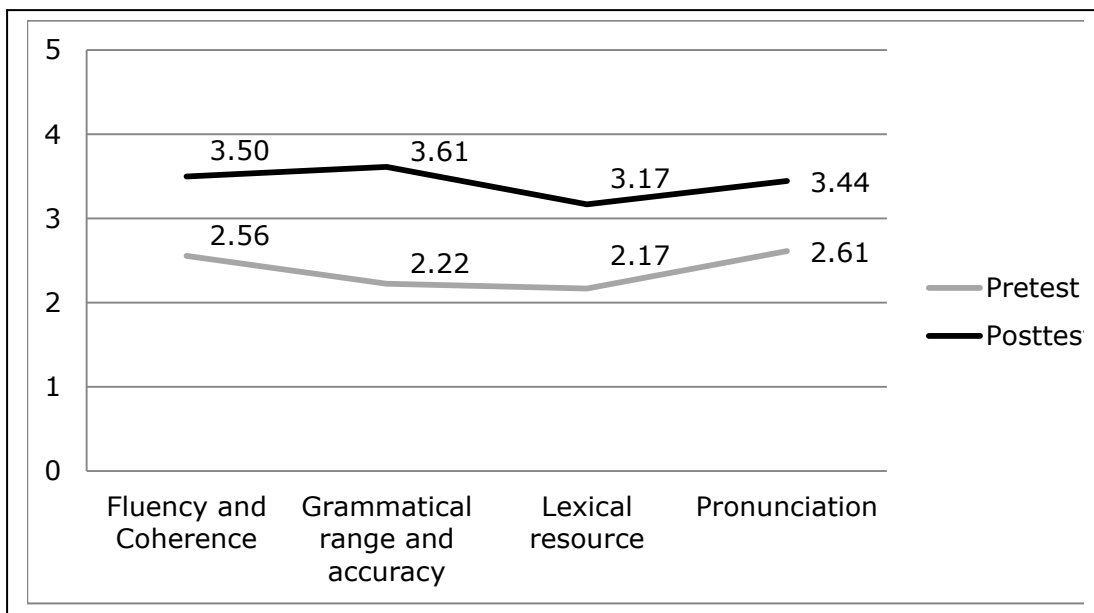
Figure 4.1. Comparing average scores of part one (jigsaw task) of the pre-test and post-test based from the rubric criteria. Scores ranged from 0-5.
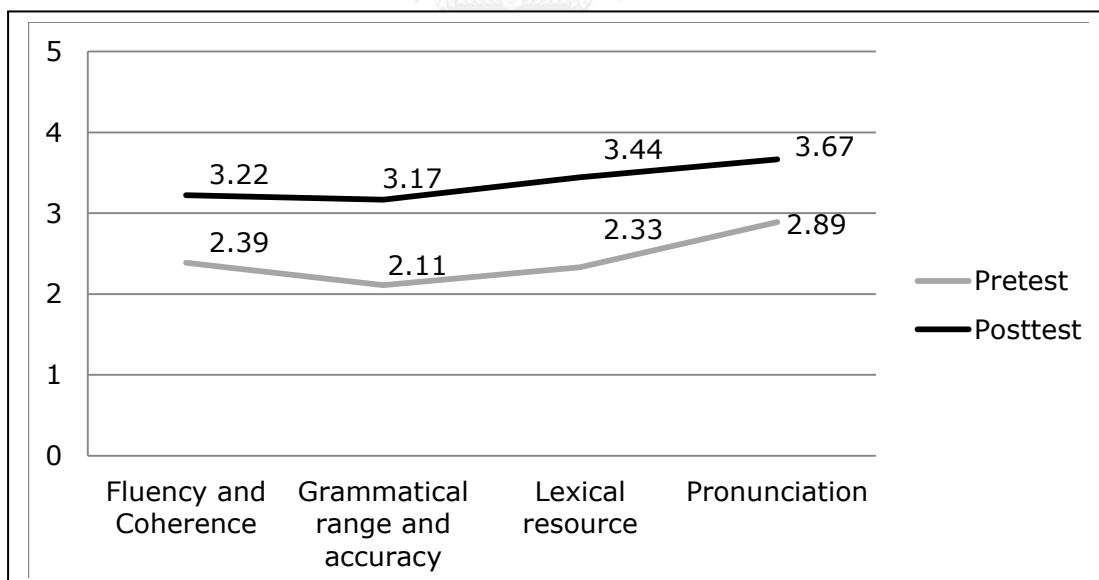
Figure 4.2. Comparing average scores of part two (problem-solving task) of the pre-test and post-test based from the rubric criteria. Scores ranged from 0-5.
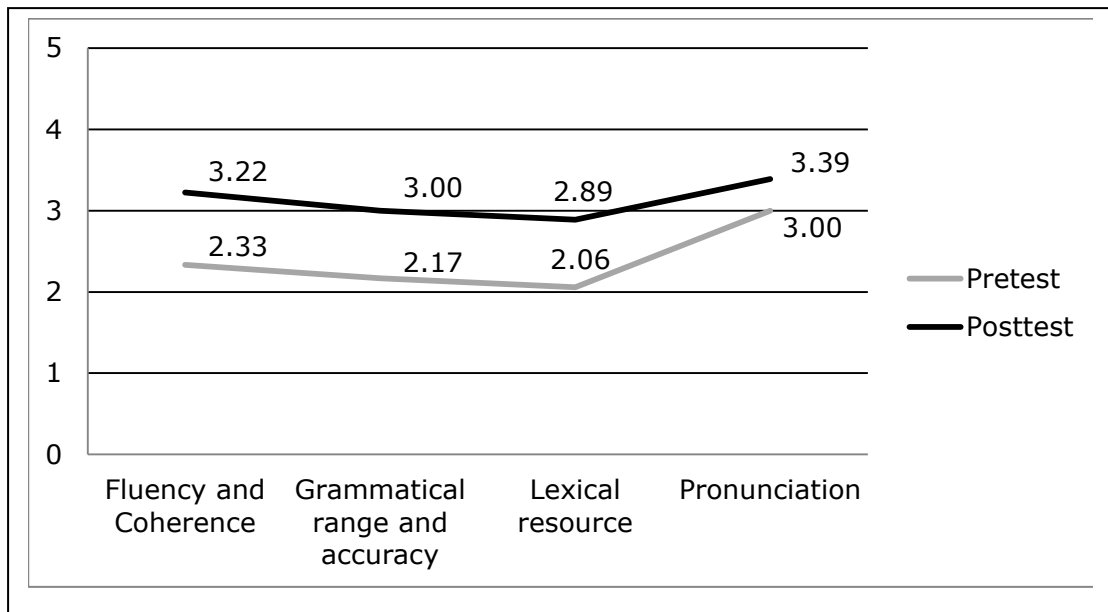
Figure 4.3. Comparing average scores of part three (opinion exchange task) of the pre-test and post-test based from the rubric criteria. Scores ranged from 0-5.

In conclusion, the quantitative results from the English speaking ability pre-test and post-test showed that task-based instruction enhanced students' English speaking ability. The students scored higher in the post-test and the difference in pre-test and post-test scores were significant at 0.00 level ($p<0.05$).

4.1.2 Additional results from triangulated data on noticing the gap

The triangulated data on noticing the gap of the selected six students studying five lessons (lesson two to six) presented the qualitative results of this study. There were 217 noticed items including fluency and coherence, grammatical range and accuracy, lexical resource, and pronunciation due to the aspects of English speaking ability. The 217 items came from two sources of data counting: the

combination of the students' notes in the self-transcriptions and the stimulated recall 154 items (70.79%); and the transcriptions of the 2nd speaking 63 items (29.03%), which presented evidence of noticing that were not shown in the self-transcriptions or reported in the stimulated recall. Following the definition of noticing the gap in this study, the 217 items came from two sources: the differences between their language and the model language 163 items (75.12%); and the differences between their production and the correct intended language 54 items (24.88%). Table 4.7 presents the aspects of English speaking ability that the students noticed from the most to the least.

Table 4.7

The noticed items divided into aspects of English speaking ability

Aspects	Number of the noticed items	Percentage
- Grammatical range and Accuracy	89	41.01 %
- Fluency and coherence	51	23.50 %
- Pronunciation	42	19.35 %
- Lexical resource	35	16.13 %
Total	217	100%

According to the data in Table 4.7, the students noticed grammatical range and accuracy the most (41.01%), then fluency and coherence (23.50%), pronunciation (19.35%), and lexical resource (16.13%) respectively. The examples of the noticed items used to improve English speaking ability were presented following each aspect. They included the students' noticing the differences between their language (1st speaking) and the model language, and the differences between their production (1st speaking) and the correct intended language which they could not speak it. The students' speaking improvement can be seen in their 2nd speaking.

4.1.2.1 Grammatical range and accuracy

Noticing the gap improved the students' grammatical range and accuracy as can be seen in the examples 1, 2, 3, and 4.

Example 1 The noticing of modal "could" for making possible suggestions.

The model language: "We could give toothpaste because every kid needs it."

S #7's 1st speaking: "Umm...play music. Umm...give gifts"

S #7's 2nd speaking: "We could play music."

Example 2 The noticing of the missing of the subject "it" and the inflectional morpheme "s".

The model language: "I think children should go to tutoring schools because it helps
students learn better."

S #14's 1st speaking: "I think student should go to tutoring school because this

is standard <u>help</u> again knowledge."

S #14's 2nd speaking: I think student should go to tutoring school because <u>it helps</u>

student understand lesson from their day school."

Example 3 The noticing of the wrong use of "how" instead of "what."

S #6's 1st speaking: "Because students so they improve themselves. And <u>how</u> do

you think?"

S #6's 2nd speaking: "Because they have new friends or new teacher. <u>What </u>do you

think?"

Example 4 The noticing of the students' confusing chunk and the reformulation

S #5's 1st speaking: "<u>You should wearing school uniform are casual clothes</u>."

S #5's 2nd speaking: "<u>I think student choose casual clothes</u>."

4.1.2.2 Fluency and coherence

Noticing the gap improved the students' fluency and coherence in three

ways. First, the students noticed prefabricated chunks in the model language and

used them in their 2nd speaking, which Thornbury (2005) said they made speech

sound fluent. Second, they noticed that they used too many pause fillers and used

them less their in 2nd speaking. Third, they noticed connectives in the model

language to make language coherent and use them in their 2nd speaking. The

examples 5, 6, 7, and 8 presented the data below.

Example 5 The noticing of a prefabricated chunk "what about your plan?"

The model language: "I'm visiting the Grand Palace and the Temple of the Emerald

Buddha from 9 to 11. <u>What about your plan?</u>"

S #6's 1st speaking: "I go Sillpa Bhirasi Memorial Museum <u>and you</u>?"

S #6's 2nd speaking: "I'm visiting in the Thammasart University from one to four

p.m. <u>What about your plan?</u>"

Example 6 The noticing of pause fillers and an expression to replace them

S #8's 1st speaking: "<u>I think...umm...I....</u>"

S #8's 2nd speaking: "<u>I agree</u>."

Example 7 The noticing of "first, second, third" to sequence ideas.

The model language: "<u>First</u>, we could set up a donation box at the church... <u>Second,</u>

we could make postcards and sell them... <u>Third,</u> we could ask

our friends to donate..."

S #5's 1st speaking: "The <u>first</u> I think I go to cleaning. I have to cleaned home

teacher yes. <u>And you?</u>"

S#5's 2nd speaking: <u>First</u>, we choose a donation box in the hospital. <u>Second,</u> I

could play guitar. And<u> third</u>, we could make time...make part-

time

Example 8 The noticing of a connective "besides"

The model language: "I think children should go to tutoring schools because it helps

students learn better. <u>Besides</u>, if they don't understand

lessons from their day schools, tutoring schools will help."

S #14's 1st speaking: "I think student should go to tutoring school because

this is standard help again knowledge. Everybody is in

competition for take admission test."

S #14's 2nd speaking: "I think student should go to tutoring school because it helps

student understand lesson from their day school. <u>Besides</u>,

tutoring school can take admission test to good school or

university."

4.1.2.3 Pronunciation

Noticing the gap improved the students' pronunciation, stress, and intonation

in English speaking. However, it should be noted that this noticing was guided by the

researcher's writing their wrong pronunciation in Thai beside the mispronounced

words. The examples 9, 10, 11, and 12 presented the noticing on pronunciation.

Example 9 The noticing of the wrong pronunciation of the word "parents."

The model language: Her <u>parents</u> are always fighting too.

S #8's 1st speaking: First, she should talk /*pərsən/ to problem.

S #8's 2nd speaking: To begin with, she should talk <u>parent</u> to problem.

Example 10 The noticing of the wrong pronunciation of the word "advice."

S #13's 1st speaking: Second, ask you /*draɪv/ a doctor.

S #13's 2nd speaking: First, we will ask for advice from doctor.

Example 11 The noticing of the wrong pronunciation of the word "poorer."

S #14's 1st speaking: "For one thing cost of extra tutoring is quite expensive as 3,000 baht for a course for student is /*pulən/."

S #14's 2nd speaking: "For one thing the cost of extra..extra tutoring is very expensive for a cost..for ah..for student is poor..poorer."

Example 12 The noticing of the wrong stress and intonation of the word "career."

S #8's 1st speaking: Successful career (with stress on both syllables "ca" and "reer", and high intonation on "ca.")

S #8's 2nd speaking: Successful career (with stress only on syllable "reer", and wihout high intonation on "ca.")

However, there were pronunciation problems that seem to stem from grammar problems, which were the mixed up sounds of "should, choose, could". For example, some students said "I should uniform...wear uniform", "I think student should..choose wear uniform school", "we could watch" (but meant "we choose watches"). Some students did not know that they intended to speak "should", "choose", or "could" in their 1st speaking, so they did not know whether it was wrong or not when they noticed the gap; still, the meaning was understandable.

4.1.2.4 Lexical resource

Noticing the gap improved the students' lexical resource as can be seen in the examples 13, 14, 15, and 16.

Example 13 The noticing of the word "visit."

The model language: "I'm <u>visiting</u> the Grand Palace and the Temple of the

Emerald Buddha from 9 to 11."

S #7's 1st speaking: "I <u>go</u> to the Grand Palace."

S #7's 2nd speaking: "I'm <u>visiting</u> the Grand Palace nine a.m. to eleven a.m."

Example 14 The noticing of the word "still."

The model language: "I <u>still</u> think they should go to tutoring schools."

S #14's 1st speaking: "I think student should go to tutoring school."

S #14's 2nd speaking: "I <u>still</u> think student should go to tutoring school."

Example 15 The noticing of the student's wrong word "smooth" instead of "smart"

S #6's 1st speaking: "I think student wearing uniform because student <u>smooth</u>."

S #6's 2nd speaking: "I think student should..choose wear uniform school because

they are tidy and looking <u>smart</u>.. and look smart... and look

they are smart."

Example 16 The noticing of the student's unclear words resulting from his failed word guess and the avoidance (the teacher gave feedback that they did not convey clear meaning.)

S #13's 1st speaking: "Good most casual clothes because it is <u>realistic</u> and school to

do <u>express</u>", and "I think choose student uniform because

<u>majority</u> express to do /*trɑnsɪk/ (non-existence word)."

S #13's 2nd speaking: "I should uniform…wear uniform because we make uniform

show smart and express to tidy such as uniform student

university, student school, and some office."

In sum, the qualitative data were consistent with the quantitative data

showing that task-based instruction and noting the gap improved the students'

English speaking ability.

4.2 The students' opinions toward the use of task-based instruction and

noticing the gap on English speaking ability

This section presents qualitative results from the group interview. The

interviewees were the selected six students. The results were presented following

seven interview question respectively and one question was added to explain the

absence of the use of the focused grammar in the post-test.

4.2.1 Question one: What do you think about the instruction in general?

The results are in Table 4.8 showed the most to the least common aspects.

Table 4.8

The students' opinions toward the instruction in general

Derived Aspect	Students' Opinion
▪Likeness	- Liked this class; felt positive. (N=6)
▪New way of	- Class provided activities to practice in groups. (N=4)
learning	- Class was exciting; ss were enthusiastic. (N=3)
	- Ss spoke in front of class; became confident in public speaking. (N=2)
▪Materials	- Class used VDO clips to practice listening; used technology. (N=4)
▪Language	- Ss practiced to think of vocabulary fast. (N=2)
	- Ss learned the correct pronunciation. (N=1)
	- Grammar seemed easy; but needed practicing. (N=1)
	- Speaking with short preparation time as ss did not know the topic before. T should have let ss find vocabulary before class began. (N=1)

Note. N = 6. (N)=the number of students who gave the opinions of each aspect.

Overall, the students felt positive toward the instruction, but some showed concern to improve the learning. An example of the opinions is shown in Excerpt 1.

Excerpt 1

Student #8: "I <u>liked</u> it more than the summer class. The learning was <u>new</u>. It made us take part in <u>activities</u> accompanying the instruction. The teacher didn't make us only study but she made us <u>practice</u>. We were <u>enthusiastic and involved</u> in studying. The class used <u>technology</u>. We became <u>more confident</u> in public speaking because we <u>spoke in front of the classroom.</u> I used to be shy when I presented my work but now I am not. We did right and wrong but <u>it was worth a try.</u> I thanked the teacher for understanding us. When we used the wrong vocabulary or pronunciation, she would explain and correct it. I <u>improved my vocabulary and pronunciation.</u>"

4.2.2 Question two: What do you think about the speaking tasks in the instruction?

The results are presented in Table 4.9 showed the most common to the least common aspects derived.

Table 4.9

The students' opinions toward the speaking tasks in the instruction

Derived Aspect	Students' Opinion
▪Thinking skill	- Ss practiced thinking to find ideas to complete the task. (N=5)
	- Ss felt good to use their own ideas. (N=3)
▪Applicable knowledge	- The knowledge from the tasks could be applied in real life. (N=4)
▪Avoidance strategy	- Ss avoided using their ideas as they lacked vocabulary resources, pronunciation skill, and ability to remember new vocabulary. (N=3)
	- Ss avoided disagreeing with their partners in order to reach convergent outcome because they did not know vocabulary. (N=1)
▪Linguistic deficiency	- Ss tried compose English sentences by translating from Thai words but they became ill-sentences. (N=1)
▪Divergent outcome preference	- Ss did not have to agree with each other. It was hard to do convergent outcome if the partner spoke unclear. (N=1)

Note. N = 6. (N)=the number of students who gave the opinions of each aspect

Overall, the students liked that they practice thinking for the tasks. The tasks were useful for real life usage. Yet, they identified obstacles that make them use

avoidance strategy instead of express their ideas. An example of the opinions is shown in Excerpt 2.

Excerpt 2

Student #14: "I think it is <u>suitable to our field</u>. We can <u>apply it in Christian mission if one day we work with foreigners</u>. If we have small budget, we <u>choose things that match with the money</u> we can find. I remember the word donation box."

4.2.3 Question three: What do you think about the language focus?

In the students' answers, the word vocabulary was used for the focused grammar. Thus, some results were from one linguistic item coded as both vocabulary and grammar. The results are presented in Table 4.10 showing the most common to the least common aspects derived.

Table 4.10

The students' opinions toward the language focus of the tasks

Derived Aspect	Students' Opinion
▪New vocabulary	- Ss learned a lot of new vocabulary and new expressions. (N=6)
▪New grammar	- Ss learned new grammar from this class. (N=6)
▪Difficult pronunciation of new vocabulary	- Ss made mistake and did not understand the pronunciation of new vocabulary. (N=4)
▪Known grammar	- Ss knew some grammar before taking this class, which was wh- questions and Present Continuous. (N=3)
	- Ss still could not use the known grammar correctly. (N=1)
▪Perceived difficulty	- Ss thought that language in lesson 4-6 was difficult.(N=2)

Note. N = 6. (N)=the number of students who gave the opinions of each aspect

Overall, the students pointed that they learn new vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation. An example of the opinions is shown in the Excerpt 3.

Excerpt 3

Student #8: "<u>The vocabulary from lesson two to six such as 'may', 'might', 'could' was new for me</u> as I rarely use English. I learned 'I agree', 'I don't agree' to say yes and no."

4.2.4 Question four: Which part of the lesson do you like the most? Why?

The results are presented in Table 4.11. The lesson parts included:

- Pre task i.e. playing games, watching video clips, doing activity sheets etc.

- During task i.e. speaking for the tasks (1st speaking).

- Post task i.e. noticing the gap, sharing to the groups, learning the language focus,

listening to the teacher feedback, and re-speaking for the tasks (2nd speaking).

Table 4.11

The students' opinions toward the lesson part they liked the most

Derived Aspect	Students' Opinion
▪During task (N=3)	- No pressure of scores. Ss could speak whatever they want.
	- No determined linguistic items to use. Ss used their own language. It was unlike post-task that ss should speak correctly.
	- Peers gave feedback. Ss got peer attention.
▪Post-task (N=3)	- Ss compared their language with the model and knew the mistakes.
	- Ss could fix their language and spoke again more correctly.
▪Pre-task (N=1)	- Fun and challenging from games and group activities. Good atmosphere. No obligation of task to do.

Note. N = 6. (N)=the number of students who gave the opinions of each aspect

Overall, the students liked the during task and post-task the most. One student liked both during task and post-task. An example of the opinions is shown in Excerpt 4.

Excerpt 4

Student #5: "I liked post-task. I could compare my language and the model and know what I did wrong, so I could change it and speak again. Even though it's hard and I was excited, I liked to do it. At least, I could ensure that the speaking was more correct. In the pre-task, I spoke wrong so I didn't like it."

4.2.5 Question five: Which part of the lesson do you like the least (refer to the parts in question 4)? Why?

The results are presented in Table 4.12. The lesson parts included pre-, during-, and post-task.

Table 4.12

The students' opinions toward the lesson part they liked the least

Derived Aspect	Students' Opinion
▪Post-task (N=3)	- Ss did not know how to fix their language when they had to notice their language and the model alone.
	- Ss encountered new words, but could not remember or pronounce them.
	- Ss were stressed because they had to speak better for scores.

Table 4.12

The students' opinions toward the lesson part they liked the least (Continued)

Derived Aspect	Students' Opinion
	- As one task covered two weeks, ss could not remember what they learned in the first week.
▪Pre-task (N=2)	- The people in the videos spoke fast. Ss could not catch the main ideas.
▪During task (N=1)	- When listened to classmates speak in front of class, ss didn't like to catch the ideas because they did not understand the speaking. They had to concentrate a lot. Classmates had unclear pronunciation.
	- Sometimes ss understood the classmates' ideas but could not speak it right when answered the teacher's questions.

Note. N = 6. (N)=the number of students who gave the opinions of each aspect

Overall, they liked post-task the least. An example of the opinions is shown in Excerpt 5.

Excerpt 5

Student #8: "I liked post-task the least because I had to notice the language alone. I didn't know whether the grammar was correct or not. I knew the model was correct but I felt that all of mine was wrong because it was unlike the model at all. I

didn't know what's right or wrong. I had to have helpers and ask friends. I didn't

know vocabulary meaning. Sometimes I felt mine was right, but when I ask the

teacher it was wrong. Sometimes I felt mine was wrong but when I asked the teacher

it was right. I didn't want to work alone. I wanted friends to help."

4.2.6 Question six: How do you think about usefulness of the instruction?

The results are presented in Table 4.13 below.

Table 4.13

The students' opinions toward the usefulness of the instruction

Derived Aspect	Students' Opinion
▪Speaking practice	- Ss became confident in English speaking. (N=4)
	- S had chances in speaking English. (N=3)
	- S carried on speaking English outside class. (N=1)
▪Vocabulary learning	- Ss learned new vocabulary. (N=4)
	- Ss knew websites to find vocabulary meaning. (N=1)
▪Grammar learning	- Ss learned useful grammar.(N=3)
▪Pronunciation learning	- Ss practiced pronouncing English words.(N= 2)
	- S knew her weakness in pronunciation. (N=1)
▪Listening practice	- Ss listened to foreigners' accents from video/audio clips. (N=2)

Table 4.13

The students' opinions toward the usefulness of the instruction (Continued)

Derived Aspect	Students' Opinion
▪Others	- Ss learn moral viewpoints from video clips. (N=2)
	- Ss did activities with classmates. (N=1)
	- Ss did a new activity of self-transcribing. (N=1)
	- Ss developed punctuation in submitting homework. (N=1)

Note. N = 6. (N)=the number of students who gave the opinions of each aspect

Overall the students emphasized the usefulness of speaking practice. They also liked vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and listening practice. Other aspects came from the class materials, activities, and disciplinary. An example of the opinions is shown in Excerpts 6 below.

Excerpt 6

Student #14: "The she recorded our speaking and had us listen to it to practice if we understood our own words. We practiced listening to different English accents from the model dialogs. I know that there isn't only one country that speaks English. There are many accents; for example, mine is Lao accent. I had lots of listening and speaking practice."

4.2.7 Question seven: Are there any comments to improve the instruction? Please specify.

Most of the students' opinions did not tell the ways to improve but showed the problems they faced, so the aspect column shows things to be improved. They formed the overall instruction, and related to each other. However, the researcher separated them for easy comprehension. The results are presented in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14

The students' comments to improve the instruction

Derived Aspect	Students' Opinion
▪Individual and group noticing	- Ss did not understand the purpose of group noticing, and the explanation of the noticing summary of the other groups. (N=1) - Ss did not know what to write down in group noticing because their language was far different from the model. They did not know how to fix their language. (N=1) - Ss wanted T's correction of their transcriptions right away before the noticing activity. (N=1)
▪Teacher	- Ss wanted T to translate English to Thai slower because they could not note the word meaning in time. (N=1) - T's voice was cute. Ss feel sleepy. Ss want arousing voice. (N=1)

Table 4.14

The students' comments to improve the instruction (Continued)

Derived Aspect	Students' Opinion
▪Teacher and students	- Ss did not understand T's correction in their individual writing homework. They didn't come to ask T. (N=1)
	- Ss wanted to use the scores of each speaking task as pressure to push them to do better. (N=1)
▪Class time and activities	- Class was in the afternoon in which time ss felt sleepy. (N=1)
	- Ss wanted more exciting activities such as competition so they would not feel sleepy. (N=1)

Note. N = 6. (N)=the number of students who gave the opinions of each aspect

Overall the students expressed opinions on several points. Some aspect such as noticing activity is useful for the teacher to reconsider the instruction. Some requires change from the teacher such as her fast translation while some requires the students' inner motivation to ask the teacher. The aspect such as class time involves decision from the institute's management board. An example of the opinions is shown Excerpt 7.

Excerpt 7

Student #13: "As for the group noticing that we had to tell what our language

problems were such as wrong pronunciation, <u>when I entered the group, I didn't</u> <u>know what to write down because mine was so not the same as the model at all.</u> It was better to write only vocabulary because I couldn't write some sentences in it. <u>I</u> <u>used words that I didn't know how to translate or write it correctly.</u>"

In addition to the prepared seven interview questions, the researcher added one more question based from the post-test results to ask why the student did not use the focused grammar from the lessons in the post-test.

4.2.8 Results of the additional question: Why did not you use the focused grammar from the lessons in your post-test?

Three students answered and their opinions are shown in Excerpt 8, 9 and 10.

Excerpt 8

Student #6: "Actually, <u>it wasn't that I didn't want to use. I had to think of</u> <u>vocabulary first. Grammar had to be in the sentence right away and I couldn't</u> <u>process in time.</u> I couldn't arrange the sentence in time <u>plus my forgetful habit</u>, so I couldn't process it. Anyway, I and my conversation partner understood each other. <u>The study of one lesson over two weeks made me forget.</u>"

Excerpt 9

Student #7: "<u>It's because of me. I didn't review what the teacher taught.</u> There's something new every two weeks. If we don't review, we'll forget. The

vocabulary is new words that we don't normally use. <u>Because we didn't review regularly, when we came back to read, we didn't understand it anymore.</u> That's why I avoided using words that I didn't really understand. I used only words I understood, so I didn't use what the teacher taught."

Excerpt 10

Student #14: "<u>I rarely used it. I was excited in the exam room. I almost couldn't think of Thai words (don't bother English).</u> I read before the exam, but during the exam I couldn't prepare it. I just spoke what I knew."

Overall, the students blamed themselves for not being able to use the focused grammar. One said studying one lesson over two weeks made them forget.

To sum up, this chapter presents the results following the research questions. The results showed that task-based instruction and noticing the gap improved the students' English speaking ability, and the students felt positive toward the instruction. Next, Chapter 5 will present the summary of the study, discussion, pedagogical implications, limitations, and recommendations for future studies.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, DISSCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter summarizes the study into five parts. Part one contains brief summary of the study including research objectives, methods, and results. Part two contains discussion of the results. Part three suggests pedagogical implications drawn from the results. Part four talks about limitations of the study. Part five contains recommendations for future studies.

5.1 Summary of the study

This research studied "effects of task-based instruction and noticing the gap on English speaking ability of undergraduate students." The details are below.

5.1.1 Research objectives

The study aimed to investigate the effects of task-based instruction and noticing the gap on students' English speaking ability, and explore students' opinions toward the use of task-based instruction and noticing the gap on English speaking ability.

5.1.2 Research methods

5.1.2.1 Research design

This study used a single group pre-test/post-test quasi-experimental design. The independent variables were task-based instruction and noticing the gap. The

dependent variable was students' English speaking ability.

5.1.2.2 Population and participants

The population in this study was undergraduate students in Thai universities. The participants for the quantitative method were eighteen first-year students in the first semester of the academic year 2014 at Bangkok Institute of Theology, Christian University of Thailand. The participants for the qualitative method were six out of the eighteen students.

5.1.2.3 Research instruments

They were divided into: the instructional design, data collection instruments.

The instructional design included:

1. The research conceptual framework (see Figure 3.1)

2. The lesson plans: There were six lesson plans including two jigsaw

   tasks, two problem-solving tasks, and two opinion exchange tasks.

3. The class schedule: There were twelve weeks of instructions in the first

   semester of the academic year 2014 (see Table 3.4).

The data collection instruments included:

1. The instruments to collect the data on the effects task-based instruction

   and noticing the gap on students' English speaking ability

   1.1 Two parallel forms of English speaking ability pre- and post-test.

They were used before and after the instruction with the participants for the quantitative method.

1.2 Additional triangulated research instruments for noticing the gap.

1.2.1 The students' notes in their self-transcriptions (1st speaking)

1.2.2 Stimulated recall

1.2.3 Transcriptions of the students' 2nd speaking (transcribed by the researcher)

They were used during the instruction with the participants for the qualitative method.

2. The instrument to collect the data on the students' opinions toward the use of task-based instruction and noticing the gap on English speaking ability

2.1 Interview questions

They were used after the instruction with the participants for the qualitative method.

5.1.3 Data collection procedures and data analysis

Data collection procedures were divided into priori period, during instruction period and posteriori period (see Figure 3.2). As for the data analysis, Wilcoxon signed

ranks test was used to analyze English speaking ability test scores, and content analysis to analyze additional triangulated data on noticing the gap, and data from the group interview.

5.1.4 Results

The results were summarized following the research questions in this study.

5.1.4.1 The effects of task-based instruction and noticing the gap on students' English speaking ability

The results of the first research question showed that both task-based instruction and noticing the gap helped improve the students' English speaking ability. The results from Wilcoxon singed ranks test showed that the students' post-test scores were significantly higher than the pre-test scores. Moreover, the students scored higher in all three parts of the tests ranging the most to the least from jigsaw task, problem-solving task, and opinion exchange task respectively. The scores of all aspects of English speaking ability including fluency and coherence, grammatical range and accuracy, lexical resource, and pronunciation increased. In addition, fluency scores were slightly higher scores in fluency than grammar scores in part two (problem-solving task) and part three (opinion exchange task).

Additional results from triangulated data on noticing the gap showed that the students noticed the gap in grammatical range and accuracy the most, then fluency and coherence, pronunciation, and lexical resource respectively. The examples of

noticing the gap showed that it helped improve the students' English speaking ability in all the aspects.

5.1.4.2 The students' opinions toward the use of task-based instruction and noticing the gap on English speaking ability

The interview data showed that the students liked the class because it provided new way of learning, and used activities and technology. They learned new grammar, vocabulary, expressions, and pronunciation, and practiced English speaking and listening. They became confident in speaking English. The tasks helped them practice thinking skill to use their own ideas, and they could apply knowledge from tasks to real life. The challenges were that they had to speak with short preparation time; they lacked vocabulary and skill to form correct sentences, which made them avoid disagreeing with their partners in order not to speak further; and the pronunciation of new vocabulary and the language in later lessons were difficult.

When asked about the lesson parts they liked the most and the least. The students' answers separated into the pre-, during-, and post-task. Interestingly, the post-task was both ranked the most-liked and the least liked part. On the one hand it helped them notice and fixe their language; on the other hand, weak students felt incapable of noticing the gap alone. Besides, some students did not know how to correct their language because it was very different from the model language. The students also gave comments to improve the instruction such as the request for

making noticing the gap to better benefit them. Last, they gave the reasons why they could not use the focused grammar in the post-test; for example, they could not process it in time, they did not review after each lesson, they had test anxiety, and studying part one and two of each lesson in the separated weeks made them forget.

5.2 Discussion

The discussion is presented following the results of each research question.

5.2.1 Discussion of the effects of task-based instruction and noticing the gap on students' English speaking ability

It included the discussion of the results from the English speaking ability tests and of the additional results from triangulated data on noticing the gap.

5.2.1.1 Discussion of the results from the English speaking ability tests

According to the results from the pre-test and post-test scores, Wilcoxon signed ranks test showed that the students' scores improved at a significant level 0.00 ($p<0.05$) and the effect size was large. Besides, the students' scores increased in all aspects of English speaking ability in this study including fluency, grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. It showed that task-based instruction significantly improved the students' English speaking ability. The results are in substantial agreement with those of Vega (2010) that the students' English oral communication ability improved after receiving team teaching of Thai and foreign teachers in task-

based instruction; and with those of Sanguanngarm (2010) that the students' oral English communication ability improved after studying in the English Tourist Guides course using task-based instruction. Besides, the finding that noticing the gap helped improve the students' English ability agrees with those of Lynch (2007) and Stillwell (2009) where the students noticed mistakes and mostly reused them correctly in their re-speaking. It also partly agrees with those of Mackey (2006) where noticing and learning were related for question formation because the students who noticed it developed in the posttest.

Considering the scores of each part of the test, it can be seen that the post-test scores of all parts increased significantly with the most improvement in part one (jigsaw task), the second most in part two (problem-solving task), and the least in part three (opinion exchange task). These results can be explained by the length of utterances required in each task and the English background knowledge of the students. The length of utterances increased from part one to part three; thus, it was more challenging to control one's utterances in part three as the students had limited vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation to speak long correct utterances. One student talked about the struggle he faced as "I searched words to compose a sentence but it turned ill. I tried to translate Thai words to English words. The teacher explained that they must be two clauses combined in one sentence." The

fewer scores in part three reflected the characteristics of beginners mentioned by ACTFL (2012) and Brown (2001).

Interestingly, although the scores in all aspects of English speaking ability increased, the fluency scores were slightly higher than grammar scores in part two (problem-solving task) and part three (opinion exchange task) where longer utterances were required. It was clear that the students could not highly control the correctness of their long utterances. The slightly higher scores in fluency agree with those of Vega (2010). It was possible that task-based instruction drives the students to rely on strategies, vocabulary, and fluency instead of forms to achieve the task outcome (Skehan, 1996). Besides, the students had a great deal of speaking practice in time limit, which is believed to help fluency (Ellis, 2003). One student said that "At first, I spoke over the time limit. Several weeks later, I saw my improvement. I could speak in time limit. Sometimes I finished speaking before the time was up. I knew what I had to do when my turn to speak came." The speaking tests also had time limit, which pushed the students to improve fluency.

5.2.1.2 Discussion of the additional results from triangulated data on noticing the gap

The additional results showing that grammatical range and accuracy was noticed the most could have partially resulted from the lesson design. As the focused grammar was boldfaced to be noticed in each lesson, the students might

have perceived that grammar had priority. The high noticing of grammar is in substantial agreement with those of Lynch (2001) and Stillwell et al. (2009). Interestingly, this study was conduct in the context where English is a foreign language (EFL) the same as that of Stillwell et al. (2009), and the students in Lynch (2001) also came from the EFL context. It was possible that EFL students paid much attention on grammar when speaking. This can be congruent with SavaŞÇı (2013), which showed that Turkish students fear of making grammar mistakes because Turkish speakers judge each other on grammar.

Moreover, the finding of the current study showed that the aspect of fluency and coherence was noticed the second in student's speaking as they noticed chunks and connectives i.e. conjunctions and pronouns to increase fluency. The finding is partly similar to those of Lynch (2001) and Stillwell et al. (2009). These studies talked about types of changes the students made and the finding showed that noticing on fluency was similarly ranked the second.

As for the third rank that the students noticed in their speaking, which was pronunciation, it was counted from the number of mispronounced words that the teacher guided the students to notice. Apparently, the pronunciation of unfamiliar words caused the major problems. This appears the same to Gass, Behney, and Plonsky (2013) who claimed that learning new words and their pronunciation takes time and it gradually develops. Furthermore, some pronunciation problems such as

"should, choose, could" could be resolved when grammar problems were resolved. However, the restructuring process to incorporate new items into the current linguistic system to cause comprehension takes time (Gass et al., 2013). Besides, it will happen only if the learner's developmental stage is ready (R. Ellis, 2002).

Finally, the last aspect that the students noticed that was shown in the results of the current study was lexical resource. It may be that some relevant vocabulary for the tasks was taught in pre-task activities; therefore, the students were certain of using it and noticed it less. Besides, as the tasks opened for various answers, the students may have preferred using their own vocabulary showing their ideas than the vocabulary in the model language, which showed different ideas. The students seemed to believe that their words convey their intended meaning unless the teacher gave feedback that their words were wrong. This less noticing of vocabulary also agrees with Lynch (2001) and Stillwell et al. (2009).

5.2.1.3 The possible reasons for the improvement in English speaking ability resulted from task-based instruction and noticing the gap

The possible reasons were synthesized as the following:

1. The risk-taker role to achieve the task outcome

In this study, task-based instruction placed responsibilities on the students to achieve the task outcome by speaking to each other from the English background knowledge and although it was not correct, and they would transcribe their speech

to use it in the post-task. To reach the outcome, the students had to adopt a risk taker role, which supports them to learn to speak (Richards & Rodger, 2001; Thornbury, 2005). This could be seen in a student's opinion as "actually, I don't speak much. I'm afraid of speaking English. I'm afraid that I would speak wrong or mispronounce something…I had to speak even though it's not correct. But the good thing was the teacher allowed us to speak whatever we had prepared, and fix our language and speak again more correctly in the end." Another student expressed his positive opinion as "I think it most benefitted me in conversation. I used to work in a hotel but I had never spoken English as much as in this class….I had five minutes preparation time before speaking in front of class. It was a good challenge." Thus, the students improved their speaking by adopting a risk-taker role to achieve the outcome in task-based instruction.

2. The students' engagement in expressing their ideas

The tasks in this study related to the students' lives; for example, all of them live in the institute's dorm and they did the task of choosing a roommate. Moreover, they did tasks related to their Christian missions to help people such as finding gifts for the orphans and helping a depressed friend. Therefore, the tasks engaged them to express their ideas and think freely without the fear of making wrong answers because the tasks were open to various answers. This made them active to speak as can be seen in their opinions as "we used our own ideas. It did not have to be like

the others", "it was good that I practiced making a schedule with my friend. I planned a real trip and I practiced thinking", and "I liked the opinion exchange tasks. I could keep my ideas because my outcome could be different from that of my conversation partner." Furthermore, the tasks engaged them to find vocabulary to express their ideas as one student said "we had to choose what to give and think of ways to find money, which made us think of vocabulary to speak." The result that task-based instruction created students' engagement agrees with those of Vega (2010), and that real world topics enhanced the students' speaking ability agrees with Boonkit (2010).

3. The activities embedded in task-based instruction

Task-based instruction allows the teacher to design pre- and post-task phases to increase language development (Ellis, 2003). In this study, the students learned language through various activities in each task phase. For example, in the pre-task phase, the students' lexical resource and language skills increased from learning useful vocabulary and activities related to the tasks. This agrees with the findings of Boonkit (2010). Furthermore, when each group did activities such as reading a small section of a passage and shared to class to unite the whole passage, they learned vocabulary and practiced reading, listening, and speaking, or when they listened to video clips to catch meaning, they listened to accents and pronunciation as well. One student said "before doing tasks, the teachers played videos...it made us be

more familiar with foreigners' accents", and another said "when I watched videos, I learned vocabulary and pronunciation."

In the during-task phase, the students learned vocabulary from their classmates' speaking as one student said "when I listened to classmates speaking in front of class, I learned new vocabulary and their reasons for each task." In the post-task phase, they noticed the gap and studied the focused grammar as one student said "I know the grammar for fixed plans; for example, a plan to visit a place at a specific time. It is not for regular habits." They also presented what they noticed to class, got feedback from the teacher, and then spoke again. According to Brown (2007) saying that students vary in visual, auditory, and kinesthetic learning styles, task-based instruction is beneficial because it allowed various activities to suit them. The result from Boonkit (2010) also suggested that a variety of activities will improve EFL students' speaking skill.

4. The improvement from the individual current knowledge

In this study, noticing the gap activity put the students in position to consciously consider their language to fix their gaps so they can speak better. When each student noticed and fixed their own gaps, they improved themselves from their true current language ability. Because noticing is subjective and up to voluntary control (Iwanaka, 2011; Schmidt, 2001), each student chose to pay attention to language features that interested them. Some students noticed prefabricated chunks

to improve their fluency; for example, "what about your plan?" This may be due to their field dependent learning style of focusing on the whole field not the separate parts (Brown, 2007). Some students noticed single words and sounds to improve their grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation; for example, using the modal "could" for making possible suggestions, using the verb "visit" for places, and using the right pronunciation of the words they had mispronounced. This may be due to their field independent learning style focusing on separate parts not the whole field (Brown, 2007). One student said that "I learn connectives to show examples... such as 'for one thing', 'for another thing'. At first, my language had only the words 'and', 'but', 'because'." It showed that he improved from his current knowledge of connectives.

5. The starting point for students to study further

When the students noticed the gap, it prompted them to examine their language and searched for ways to improve it such as seeking feedback from the teacher to clarify what is right or wrong and why. Thus, it created a starting point for the students to study further. It also stimulated the students to continue to correct themselves. One student said "we had chances to check our language to see if it was wrong or not, and we could change it to make 2nd speaking better." Another student said "I mispronounced "should" because I added s ending sound. The teacher said I added a lot of s ending sound although some words did not need it. It made me know I still had mistakes to correct." In sum, the students continued to

improve themselves from the gap noticed. This agrees with Krashen (1983) saying that when acquirers notice the gap, the new form is a candidate for acquisition, and with Schmidt (2001) saying that noticing is the significant starting point for learning.

5.2.2 Discussion of the students' opinions toward the use of task-based instruction and noticing the gap on English speaking ability

Based on the results from the group interview, the students felt positive toward the use task-based instruction and noticing the gap. The possible reasons for the students' positive opinions were synthesized as the following:

1. The interesting activities and media

The students said they liked activities in class as they made them feel enthusiastic in learning, and helped them practice reading, listening, speaking at the same time. One student said "the activities before studying were fun", and another said "first I was sleepy because the class was in the afternoon but the teacher tried to review and find videos and activities for us to share ideas in group." The students also liked technology incorporated in the activities since they were exposed to online authentic multimedia such as YouTube videos, English TV advertisements, and feature articles from Bangkok Posts and other websites. They also learned how to use online dictionary and learned morality from the video clips as one said "some video clips in class not only teach language but also moral viewpoints." The fact that

the students liked multimedia in class agrees with the findings from Vega (2010).

Moreover, they perceived transcribing of their 1st speaking as a new and useful activity because it helped them practice whether they understood their own speaking or not. Some students said "I had never transcribed my own speaking as homework before; it was the new thing that benefited me", and "we listened to our speaking records to practice if we understood it." The students' feeling positive toward transcribing agrees with the findings from Lynch (2001), Cooke (2013), and Stillwell et al. (2009).

2. The increase in students' confidence and motivation in English speaking

In this study, the students took courage to speak right and wrong by themselves in 1st speaking, and then had a chance to speak better in task repetition in 2nd speaking. Besides, they were assigned to speak in front of class. With these steps, the students became confident in English speaking and less worried of making mistakes because they would learn from mistakes and fixed them. One student said "I have become more confident in English speaking. In the past I rarely spoke. This class helped me speak. I think if I try my best, I will succeed." Another student said "I have more confidence in speaking, but I was a bit shy when classmates teased me when I spoke." This agrees with the findings from Boonkit (2010) saying that confidence is an important factor promoting EFL students' speaking skill.

Furthermore, because the tasks were related to the students' lives and open

to various opinions, it motivated them to speak as some students said "we were encouraged to express our ideas...and we had more confidence in speaking English", and "I liked when I formed my ideas and could speak them out." The increase in motivation was shown as one student said "in the past, I didn't like English and I didn't like speaking, but this class taught us to speak more. We spoke every hour. When we finished this class, we still spoke English." This agrees with Rivers and Temperley (1978) saying that motivated students will consistently improve themselves; and with Boonkit (2010) saying that the students were motivated and confident to speak when they could speak for their interested topic.

3. The friendly, supportive, and cooperative environment

The class provided friendly environment for the students so that they would dare to be risk-takers in English speaking, which was the desired students' role in task-based instruction (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). The students experienced fun games and group activities in the pre-task phase as one student said "when we played games in group, everyone helped each other and we learned English at the same time. It created nice learning atmosphere, and challenges for everyone to take part." Furthermore, the students supported the classmates' speaking in the during task phase as one student said "while I was speaking, my classmates were listening. We took and gave comments and it made us pay attention to each other." In the post-task phase, they shared what they noticed to the classmates and it helped

them pay attention to each other again. Therefore, it can be said that the friendly, supportive, and cooperative environment made the students like this class. It is in congruence with the findings of Nuktong (2010).

However, problems arose based from the students' answers. They were synthesized as the following:

1. The students' weak English background knowledge and skills

Some students admitted that they had to abandon some of their ideas or to agree with their speaking partners although they disagreed, because they could not pronounce some words or did not know the vocabulary. For example, one student talked about the arranging a one-day trip task that "actually I had the place that I really wanted to go, but its name was long, so I changed to another place to speak it easily." Another student talked about an exchange task that "I liked it. It was like a debate, but when I spoke, I had to agree with my partner so we could finish fast. If I disagreed, I had to show examples, find vocabulary...but I did not know vocabulary, so I had to say I agreed with you instead." This partly agrees with the finding of He (2013) that Chinese students thought the lack of vocabulary was the major problems in English speaking.

Some students thought that the new vocabulary and pronunciation in later lessons were difficult "lessons four to six were hard for me. It was hard to apply the language to my own sentences." Another student said "we learned a lot of

vocabulary, but we made mistakes in pronunciation." One reason for the students'

difficulty in learning vocabulary and pronunciation could be that they might not have

had enough exposure to them. Gass et al. (2013) said that vocabulary learning does

not happen in one time. It requires lots of exposure of its use in context; thus, it is

an incremental learning. The exposure includes listening and even using dictionary.

Another possible explanation is that learners who learned sound at later ages may

have restrictions from neurology or motor skill in producing or perceiving correct

sound (Moyer, 1999). Gass et al. (2013) said that the drop in skill to learn sound

quickly seems to happen fast in older learners, particularly for suprasegmental

features such as stress, intonation, and rhythm.

Another problem that the students faced based from their weak background

knowledge was the processing problem. One student said that she could not use the

focused grammar in the post-test because she could not process it in time and had

to think of vocabulary first. These reasons comply with what Tavakoli and Foster

(2011) said that L2 speakers normally do not have automatized knowledge or stored

ready-made language (chunks); in other words, they have "limited attentional

resources" (p.41). Iwanaka (2011) said that the limited attentional resources must be

paid to the most important thing which is vocabulary because it conveys meaning,

and VanPatten (1990) said that meaning is the most essential in language learning.

2. The incompatibility of noticing the gap in some cases

Based from the results in Chapter IV, some students did not like noticing the gap activity; for example, a student from the low pre-test score group revealed in the group interview that she felt she was incapable of doing it and thought all her language was wrong, which seemed to show low self-efficacy. Another point of the incompatibility was that the students could not notice the because of the great mismatch between the model language and their language, and they lacked ability to fix their language. One student said "I didn't know what to write down because mine was so not the same as the model at all...I used words that I didn't know how to translate or write them correctly." This agrees with Gass (1991) and Ellis (1994) who said that if there is great mismatch between the target language and the student's language, it is unlikely that students will perceive and compare the language.

5.3 Pedagogical implications

Pedagogical implications were drawn from the research findings and discussion. They were summarized as the following.

1. Task-based instruction can be one of the effective instructions to teach English speaking. Tasks may be designed in series for students to reuse the previously learned language features in later tasks, because the repetition and re-exposure

should help them learn such features better especially the difficult ones. New vocabulary should be learned repetitively for its use and pronunciation.

2. The language focus of tasks, which was normally taught in post-task, should combine single words and chunks to match the students' field dependent and field independent learning styles.

3. Noticing the gap can be incorporated into the instruction design to teach speaking. Regarding students who have weak English background knowledge, it would be more suitable to control the length of the students' language and the model language to be short so that they can compare and notice language easily. Although EFL students seem to pay much attention on grammar, they should be encouraged to notice other aspects in order to speak well including fluency, vocabulary, pronunciation, discourse, genre, speech acts, register, and culture.

4. When the model language is provided for them to compare their language with, it is important to tell them that the model is just one example to say the intended message. The teacher can provide more examples and encourage the students to find other ways to convey the intended message as long as they are appropriate to the context.

5. As for the weak students, the teacher can help them to be more confident by inserting easy tasks for them to accomplish along with the challenging ones. They

can be assigned to work in pair with the stronger students to get assistance in completing tasks and noticing the gap.

5.4 Limitations of the study

The limitations of generalizability were related to the context of the study, the data collection instruments, data collection procedure, and data analysis.

1. The students in the quantitative method were quite small since they were eighteen students in a single group quasi-experimental design. Moreover, the six students in the qualitative method were not distinctively different in proficiency based from their pre-test scores. Thus, the results could not comprehensively tell how students of different proficiency noticed things differently.

2. Noticing the gap data may have been affected from the students' memory decay resulting from studying one lesson in two weeks. The time distance was for the students to transcribe their 1st speaking, and the teacher checked the matching between their transcriptions and voice recordings. It was quite long because the students studied and worked at the same time, so they have less time to do homework. However, the students might have difficulty recalling what they spoke in the first week when they received their self-transcriptions back from the teacher in the second week. Furthermore, this instructional design delayed the teacher giving form-focused feedback because the students spoke in the first week but noticed the

gap and received feedback in the second week. Thus, they may have been disengaged from the feedback.

3. This study could not give information on the students' noticing of sound by themselves since their self-transcriptions, as printed materials, could not represent sounds.

4. The students may have lost memory or distorted ideas when they did stimulated recall as it could only be done after the class ended, which was around two hours after they noticed the gap.

5. This study employed only intra-rater reliability for the data analysis of noticing the gap. Still, it may contain bias resulting from using only one rater.

5.5 Recommendations for future studies

The recommendations were related to the instructional design, data collection instruments, data collection procedure, and data analysis.

1. Future research should have more participants and a control group for more reliability in the data analysis. Furthermore, students with truly distinctive proficiency may be selected if the research aims to study how different proficiency affects students' noticing.

2. As for the instructional design, it will be better to complete all parts of the lessons in the same week so that the students will not forget and be more engaged

in the feedback. Besides, the model language for noticing should be presented while they are engaged in their studying (Hanaoka and Izumi, 2012). In addition, tasks may be designed for some language features to be used repetitively across tasks to see the improvement of the students' use of such features.

3. Regarding data collection instruments and data analysis, if future research deals with many students and the class time is short, the students may be asked to use their mobile phones to record their voice at the same time and send to the teacher at the end of the class so that they have their recordings to transcribe. A lab room may be used for the students to listen to their sounds and notice the gap in pronunciation. If stimulated recall is used, it should be done as soon as possible after the noticing activities (Handerson et al. 2010). Delayed post-test should be added to see the effects of the instruction over time. In term of analyzing qualitative data, it would be better if future research has a second rater to analyze some reasonable proportion to establish an inter-rater reliability.

In conclusion, this study presented the effects of task-based instruction and noticing the gap on English speaking ability. It showed the students' improvement in their English speaking ability as well as some related concerns. The pedagogical implications, limitations, and recommendations for future studies were also provided. Hopefully, this study will benefit English language teaching and learning, and future research studies related to this field.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Sample of the lesson plans

Lesson Plan 1 (Part 1)

Title: Choosing a roommate (Jigsaw task)   **Class:** 1st year-students

Period: 1-2   **Time:** 100 minutes

Terminal objective:

The students will be able to orally report their decision on whether to choose someone to be their roommate or not, and why. (reached in period 3-4)

Enabling objectives:

1. The students will be able to use the vocabulary of lifestyle in the lesson.

2. The students will be able to ask/answer questions about lifestyle with their partners.

3. The students will be able to notice the differences between their own speech and the proficient speakers' speech.

4. The students will be able to use grammar of wh- (what, when, how) and yes-no (do/does) questions in Present Simple Tense, modal verb 'would', and connective 'because' correctly.

5. The students will be able to pronounce contraction of modal verb 'would', the rising intonation of yes-no questions, and the falling intonation of wh-questions correctly.

Background knowledge: Present Simple Tense

Materials: Video/audio clips, transcripts, students' dictionaries, flip charts, markers, an adhesive tape, a computer, speakers, and a projection screen.

Evaluation:

1. At the end of the lesson, students will be able to orally report their decisions about choosing a roommate by using the information they got from each other and the language rules they learned from the lesson. (done in period 3-4)

2. Given vocabulary in the activity sheet, the students will apply them in context when they speak with 80% accuracy.

3. Given a time limit, the students will speak to each other, and orally report their

decisions based on the information they get during the task. It is the 1st speaking done in period 1 and 2 in the first week.

4. By comparing their own transcripts and the proficient speakers' transcript, the students will write down or make changes on their transcripts about things they notice.

5. By doing the CR-task, the students will derive the language rules underlying the objectives 4 and 5, and apply them to correct what they notice with 80% accuracy.

6. By repeating the task in a time limit, the students will speak to each other using the language they notice, and orally report their decisions based on the information they get during the task. It is the 2nd speaking done in period 3 and 4 in the second week. Their speech will be evaluated using the scoring rubric.

Procedures: 1. Pre-task (50 minutes)

Purpose	Teacher	Students
Greet students.	3 minutes (Teacher greets students) - Good afternoon students. How are you? How is your life at the university dorm? - Be patient and keep doing good work. It will pay you back well. I hope you have a good rest too.	- Good afternoon teacher. We are fine but tired as we study a lot. The dorm is ok.
Attract the students' attention and activates their background knowledge.	- Anyway, it's time for today's lesson. I have three video clips to show you. At the end of watching all of them, I'll let you guess about what we'll study today. - For the first round, you'll watch and listen without the transcript. For the second round, you can see the transcript.	
	15 minutes (Students are watching and trying to understand what's going on in the video clips) <u>The first clip</u> (the link is on page 15.) - Let's watch the first clip for the first round (1.20 mins). You won't see the transcript in this round.	[Students watch clip1, the 1st round.]

Purpose	Teacher	Students
Scaffold the students' understanding.	- So after watching, who are they?	- They are friends.
	- Where are they?	- in an apartment.
	- Do you think they live together?	- yes
	- Can you tell me the word to call people who share place to live together?	- roommates
	- What is the story in this clip about?	- Two men are telling the bad habits of their roommate. Alex is messy, but Roy cleans too much. - Alex can't catch the ball but I don't know what Roy calls it.
	- Right, do you think Alex is slow?	- yes, slow.
	- OK, let's watch it the second time with the transcript.(1.20 mins) [Teacher gives the transcript to the students.] (See Transcripts of the Video Clips.)	[Students watch clip1 – the 2nd round.]
	- So what does Roy say about Alex?	- He has the slowest reaction time ever.
	- To sum up, what topics does this clip mention?	- Cleaning habit and reaction time.

Purpose	Teacher	Students
Scaffold the students' understanding.	<u>The second clip</u> (the link is on page 16.) - Now let's watch the second clip (1 min). You won't see the transcript in this round.	[Students watch clip2 – 1st round.]
	- There are two topics in the men clip. Can you tell me what they are?	- One is about the dirty room. I'm not sure about the other.
	- Did you hear the word TV?	- yes
	- OK, I have two choices for you to guess: the man forgets to turn off the TV, or the man watches the TV after midnight while his roommate is sleeping.	- I think it's the second one.
	- What about the women clip?	- They talk about shoes, laptop something like that.
	-What are their feelings?	- They're angry.
	- So they may be having problems with those things, right?	- yes.
	- OK, let's watch it the second time with the transcript (1 min)	[Students watch clip2, 2nd round.]
	- Do you get the answer?	- One man watches TV when his roommate is sleeping,

Purpose	Teacher	Students
		and the women borrow things without asking.
	- To sum up, what topics does this clip mention?	- the dirty room, watching TV, and borrowing things.
Scaffold the students' understanding.	The third clip (the link is on page 16.) - Here's the last clip (0.30 mins). You won't see the transcript in this round.	[Students watch clip3, the 1st round.]
	- What's it about?	- One man turns on the music too loud. His roommate wants him to turn down the music but he doesn't care.
	- You got it right. The story is very clear because we heard loud music and saw the action.	- But they speak so fast that I couldn't catch them.
	-Let's watch it again with the transcript. (0.30 mins)	[Students watch clip3, the 2nd round.]
	- What information about his roommate do you get more?	- He has a test tomorrow.

Purpose	Teacher	Students
Inform the task steps and the expected outcome of the task so that students can do the task properly.	**2 minutes (Teacher summarizes today's task for students)** - From the clips you've seen, these are all about roommate problems. It relates to what we'll study today. Can you guess what it is? The clue is the word 'choosing'.	- Choosing solutions. - Choosing a roommate.
	- Right we'll study about choosing a roommate. As you see, if we choose the wrong one, it can cause many problems. Choosing the right one can prevent problems. All of you live in the dorm with a roommate right?	- yes
	- So this topic is close to your real life.	-yes
	- Today, you will take turn asking questions to your partner to get information about things that can cause problems when living together. Then you will decide whether your partner should be your roommate or not.	
	- Each pair will have to speak for the task in front of class and give oral report of your decision, which is the outcome of the task.	

Purpose	Teacher	Students
Engage students in non-task activities to learn vocabulary useful for doing the task. **(Objective 1)**	**20 minutes (Students do activities to be prepared for the task.)** - Before you do the task, let's prepare yourself with useful vocabulary and their pronunciation. Please look at your activity sheet. Activities 1 and 2, will teach you words that you can apply to your task. Activity 3 will teach you the concepts related to choosing a roommate and useful words in context, which you can apply to your task as well. (See Activity Sheet).	[Students do the activities 1,2,3 in the whole class.]
	- For the words you don't know, please use your dictionary that you bring to class. If it doesn't have the words, we can help each other find them in an online dictionary using the Internet.	
Allow time for students to plan for the language, which will help with the speaking performance.	**10 minutes (Students plan for the task.)** - Ok, it's time for your own task. Please pair up with your classmate. I'll give you the task sheet. Let's read the directions together. (See Task Sheet)	[Students and teacher read the directions together to understand the task.]
	- You have 5 minutes to prepare for the task. Then you'll speak in front of class. OK?	- OK

During task (50 minutes)

Purpose	Teacher	Students
Allow students to do (speak) for the task. (Objective 2)	40 minutes (Students speak in front of class pair by pair. There are 9 pairs. Each pair will spend 3 minutes speaking to each other, and 30 seconds for each student to report his/her decision, which makes 4 minutes in total.) (After each pair finishes, the teacher uses 1 minute to give oral feedback to the pair, and randomly asks the class about the pair – as means to have them listen when their classmates speak.) - Each pair can take a turn to come in front of class. Please speak loud enough for all your classmates to hear it. I will use the stopwatch program in my computer to time you, and you can see the countdown time on the class projector.	
Record students' speaking to be used for noticing the gap activity in the next class.	-I will audio record your 1st speaking and post the files on Google Drive for you to download and transcribe as homework.	[Each pair of students comes in front of class to do 1st speaking for the task and give oral report on the outcome.]

Purpose	Teacher	Students
Assures appropriateness of the content.	10 minutes (Teacher gives content-focused feedback on all students' 1st speaking. Students ask questions.) - Well done every pair. You did well today, but some of you should speak louder and be more confident. Remember, dare to speak and you will speak well.	- OK, I will.
	- Now I'm going to give summarize feedback to the whole class. [Teacher wraps up feedback on content to the whole class.]	[Students listen to feedback and ask questions if they have any.]
	- Are there any questions about the feedback I just gave?	[Students ask questions.]
End the class.	- Remember to submit your transcription to Google Drive within 3 days because I have to check to make sure your transcript match with your speaking, and I'll print them out for the next class's activity. Class dismissed. Thank you.	-Thank you teacher.

End of Lesson 1 (Part 1)

Students' homework: Transcribe their recordings as homework to be used for next class (part2).

Teacher's work: Check that all students submit their transcription. Check the matching between their transcripts and their speaking.

Lesson Plan 1 (Part 2)

Title: Choosing a roommate (Jigsaw task)   **Class:** 1st year-students

Period: 3-4   **Time:** 100 minutes

Procedures:

3. Post-task (100 minutes)

Purpose	Teacher	Students
Greet students and tune them to recall the content in the previous class.	3 minutes (Teacher greets, recalls the previous class' content and begins today's activities.) - Good afternoon class. This class will continue on what we studied last week. Can you tell me about it?	- We spoke for the task 'choosing a roommate'. We transcribed our 1st speaking as homework.
	- Right, and you'll use your transcription in this class. Anyway, I'd like you to watch and listen to proficient English speakers do the same task so that you can compare your language and their language later.	
Provide a good example of language use during task to prepare students	10 minutes (Students watch and listen to proficient speakers doing the same task, and work on the proficient speakers' transcript.) - Now, I'll give you the proficient English speakers' transcript with blanks in it. As you	[Students do the activity.]

Purpose	Teacher	Students
for noticing the gap.	watch and listen, please fill the missing words as much as you can. (See Transcript of the Proficient Speakers)	
	- Please tell me the words you got.	[Ss' answers vary.]
	- I see. Some of you have different words. Let's listen for the second time and we'll find the right words together. [Teacher and students check on the right words.]	
Engage individual to notice the gap to raise awareness on the focused forms. (Objective 3)	5 minutes(Students notice the gap individually.) - Next, you will work alone for 5 minutes. I'm going to give you your own transcript that you submitted it to me last week. Please compare it with the proficient speakers' transcript that you have. Notice the differences of language use between these two transcripts on the words that we just did in the last activity.	
	- If you notice the difference, you can note down or make changes on your own transcript. Please use a pen to make changes, don't use an eraser. - If you notice something else such as vocabulary, grammar, sounds. Please write them down too.	[Ss note down or make changes on what they notice on their transcript.]

Purpose	Teacher	Students
Use group work to facilitate studying. (Objective 3)	7 minutes (Students share what they notice to their group.) - Ok, to see what you got. I'd like you to make a group of four and share what you notice to the group. The total will be 4 groups. Each group will conclude the common noticing from the members, and write it on the flip chart posted on the classroom wall. You have 7 minutes for doing it. (See Form on the Flip Chart for Group Noticing).	[Students share the noticed items to their group. They conclude it on the given flip chart.]
	- There are four rows representing items of vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, and others. Please write down the differences of what proficient speakers do and what you do in the box. If you can explain the differences, please write your reasons in the remark boxes.	[All groups write the common noticing on the flipchart posted on the classroom wall.]
Have students do CR-task to understand and remember the linguistic rules. (Objective 4, 5)	20 minutes (Students do consciousness-raising task.) - I'm not going tell whether your group noticing is right or wrong yet, because we're going to do the consciousness-raising task to learn the language rules relevant to the task.	

Purpose	Teacher	Students
.	Then we'll use the understanding from it to check what you write on the flip charts.	
	- Let's do the consciousness-raising task together. We will discuss in the whole class to conclude the language rules. (See Consciousness-Raising Task)	[Students do CR task in a whole class.]
Check students' noticed items on the flip charts to for correct understanding. **(Objective 3)**	**15 minutes (Each student group tells the whole class what they notice. Teacher gives feedback on the group's report on noticing)** - After we know the language rules, let's come back to what you've written on the flip charts. We'll discuss whether your noticing is right or wrong, and find the right answers for it together.	[Teacher and students do whole class discussion on the noticed items written on the flip charts.]
Give students time to prepare their 2nd speaking.	**5 minutes (Ss prepare for 2nd speaking)** - Next, you'll do 2nd speaking for the task. I'd like you to use the language that you notice and learn in class to improve your speaking. You have 5 minutes to prepare for it. Please prepare it outside the classroom and come in to take the speaking test pair by pair so that you won't disturb one another. - Please concentrate as this will be the	[Students prepare for the 2nd speaking.]

Purpose	Teacher	Students
	speaking test of this lesson. Scores will be gathered. - After the class finishes, please do homework to review the lesson and submit to me by posting on Google Drive by Thursday midnight. [See Homework]	
Students do 2nd speaking for the task improve their speaking. (TERMINAL OBJECTIVE)	**35 minutes** **(Students speak in front of class pair by pair. There are 9 pairs. Each pair will spend 3 minutes speaking to each other, and 30 seconds for each student to report his/her decision, which makes 4 minutes in total.)** [The 2nd speaking of the selected 6 students is recorded and transcribed for data analysis by the teacher.] - End of the class -	[Students do 2nd speaking for the task in front of class.]

End of Lesson 1 (Part 2)

Students' homework: All students do an exercise as homework and submit it next week.

Teacher's work: - Give scores to the students' 2nd speaking using the scoring rubric.

- Check all students' written homework.

- Transcribe the selected six students' 2nd speaking for data triangulation.

- Do stimulated recall (SR) with the selected six students and transcribe the SR recordings for data triangulation.

Materials (Lesson 1 Part 1)

Transcriptions of 1st clip: **All Moved In! (Start at 0.02 to 1.22 min)**

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Ar6BvL_QL2g

Alex: A few weeks ago, Roy and I moved in together.

Roy: You'd think I'd be awesome moving in with your best friend.

Alex: I thought it'd be so fun moving in with my best friend But it's kind of been...

Roy: sort of been...

Alex and Roy: super annoying!! Let me explain.

Scene 1

Roy: He never cleans up after himself.

Roy: Such a slob.

Alex: Uh ah.

Roy: You've got something on your shirt.

Alex: I'm saving up for later.

Scene 2

Alex: He's always cleaning up. [There's a loud vacuum cleaner sound. Roy uses the
          vacuum cleaner to clean Alex's face. Alex is trying to eat a chicken thigh but
          Roy uses the vacuum cleaner to suck it away.]

Scene 3

Roy: He has the slowest reaction time ever.

Roy: Hey! Alex, think fast. [Roy throws a basketball to Alex's head. The ball hits
          Alex's head. After that, he turns into the wrong way to catch the ball.]

Alex: He's always said I had the slowest reaction time.

Alex: Hey! Roy, think fast. [Alex throws a basketball to Roy, but it bounces back to
          hit him.]

Transcription of 2nd clip: **Conflict Resolutions (start at 0.10 to 1.05 minute)**

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=WFjkKLdn2pA

Scene 1

Sam: Justin, your stuff is everywhere. Look at this mess! Your clothes are just all over the floor.

Justin: Well, Sam, I might be messy but at least I go to bed. I mean. Come on, you stay up after midnight and watch TV while I'm trying to sleep. That's ridiculous.

Sam: You're such a pig about everything.

Justin: Whoa, you're such a jerk.

<u>Scene 2</u>

Lora: Hey Danny, did you borrow my shoes last night?

Danny: Yeh, and you borrow my purse the other night so I figured I'd be ok if I borrowed your shoes.

Lora: But you didn't ask.

Danny: Neither did you when you borrowed my laptop to write a paper.

Lora: Danny, give me a break.

Danny: You give me a break.

Transcription of 3rd clip: Roommate Complaints (start at 0.23 to 0.44 minute)

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UtseHCbLOl8

A: Man, I don't try to be rude but why the TV is so damn loud?

B: It's my room. Yes he is ruling so it is up to Lufy.

A: Man, I have a big test tomorrow. I just try to study.

B: I understand man. Go to the library. You pay for it.

Activity Sheet

Activity 1 (vocabulary)

Directions: Please put the words below in their right columns.

midnight	rash	itch	snoring
nausea	chatting	surfing the internet	10:30 p.m.
11 p.m.	a deep sleeper	playing sports	after midnight
a light sleeper	playing music	talking in your sleep	vomit

Bedtime (4 words)	Sleeping habits (4 words)	Allergy (4 words)	Free-time activities (4 words)

Activity 2 (vocabulary)

Directions: Please think of other words in each column together and write them down.

Bedtime	Sleeping habits	Allergy	Free-time activities

Activity 3 (reading and vocabulary)

Directions: Look at each person with their opinion and decide which topic they are talking about. Choose the topic below and write A, B, or C in the blank in each box.

A) Cleaning habits **B)** Feelings about possessions **C)** Feeling about sharing costs

I'm Satomi from Japan. I don't like roommates who take my stuff without asking before. They should ask for permission first._____

I'm Hong Hanh from Vietnam. I like my room to be clean and tidy. I never have a pile of dirty dishes in the sink because I clean them right after I use them. _____

I'm Ahsan from India. My roommate and I always share food costs, electricity and water bill, and other things equally. It's fair for both of us because money is important.

I'm Patrick from America. I don't like my roommate. He messes the room. His stuff scatters all over because he never cleans up after himself, and he rarely takes the trash out. _____

I'm Dorita form Mexico. I just moved out from my roommate. I can't live with her because she used all my stuff such as shampoo, make ups, bags, and clothes. She never asks for permission or pays me back. _____
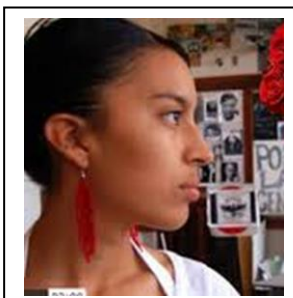
Task Sheet

Directions: (Students work in pair.)

1. Tear this sheet in half: the upper part is for you, the bottom is for your partner.

2. Ask and answer your partner about these topics.

3. Decide whether you would choose him/her to be your roommate or not, and why

Topic	Answer
Hometown	
Enjoy talking / Prefer staying quiet	
Like or hate loud music	
Have allergy	
Bedtime	
Sleeping habits	
Cleaning habits	
Free-time activities	
Feel about possessions	
Feel about sharing costs	

Your decision:

Would you choose your conversation partner to be your roommate? Why?

Topic	Answer
Hometown	
Enjoy talking / Prefer staying quiet	
Like or hate loud music	
Have allergy	
Bedtime	
Sleeping habits	
Cleaning habits	
Free-time activities	
Feel about possessions	
Feel about sharing costs	

Your decision:

Would you choose your conversation partner to be your roommate? Why?

Materials Lesson 1 (Part 2)

Transcript of the proficient speakers [△ stands for A, □ for B.]

<u>Directions</u>: **Fill in the blanks with the correct words.**

△: _____ _____ your hometown?

□: My hometown is Tak province, and what about yours?

△: My hometown is Kanjanaburi.

□: _____ _____ enjoy talking or prefer staying quiet? I enjoy talking.

△: I enjoy talking too. _____ _____ like loud music? I like it.

□: No I don't. I prefer the room to be quiet. _____ _____ _____ any allergies?

△: Yes, I do. I'm allergic to seafood. I get a rash if I eat it. And you?

□: I sneeze if I smell pollen from flowers.

△: _____ _____ _____ go to bed?

□: Around midnight. _____ _____ your bed time?

△: It's around 10:30-11:30 p.m. so it's a little earlier than you.

□: _____ _____ your sleeping habits? For example, _____ _____ snore?

△: Yes I do, but it's not loud, believe me. Besides, I sleep like a baby.

□: I am a deep sleeper too.

△: _____ _____ your cleaning habits?

□: I'm a tidy person. I clean up after myself. What about yours?

△: The same as you, but sometimes I forget where I put things.

□: That's ok. _____ _____ your free time activities?

△: I play badminton and volleyball.

□: I surf the internet and I also sleep a lot.

△: _____ _____ _____ feel about your possessions?

□: I take care of my stuff. I can lend them, but want them back on time and in good condition.

△: For me, I want people to ask for permission before they borrow things from me.

□: _____ _____ _____ feel about sharing costs such as electricity, water, food?

△: I expect my roommate to share costs with me equally.

□: So do I.

OUTCOME

<u>A's decision</u>: I _____ choose B to be my roommate because we mostly like the same things. I know she doesn't like loud music, so I will turn it on only when she is not in the room.

<u>B's decision</u>: I _____ choose A to be my roommate because we have similar lifestyles. I know she likes loud music, but I don't. I'll ask her to use earphones instead of speakers.

The Flip Chart for Group Noticing

Items/Speaker	Proficient	Student	Remarks
Vocabulary			
Pronunciation			
Grammar			
Other			

Consciousness-Raising Task of Lesson 1

Part A Directions: Look at the following questions and answers in a, b, c, and d. Decide which ones are yes/no questions or information questions (wh- questions) to answer questions 1,2, and 3.

Question   Answer

a) Do you hate loud music?   Yes I do. / No I don't.

b) Does she have allergy?   Yes she does. / No she doesn't.

c) When do you go to bed?   I go to bed at 11 p.m.

d) How does she feel about sharing costs?   She is fine with it.

1. The yes/no questions are _____. They start with the words _____.

2. The informative questions are _____. They start with the words _____.

3. What other words can start the informative questions? _____.

Part B Directions: Consider this question "Do you enjoy talking or prefer staying quiet?" and answer question 4.

4. Is it still a yes/no question? Why? _____.

Part C Directions: Consider these questions below and answer question 5 and 6.

Does he clean up after himself?   Does Pranee sleep late?

Does she snore?   Does the bus go to Bangkok?

Does the girl have allergy?   Does it make sound?

5. What words follow 'Does'? _____.

6. Circle the group that the words in number 5 refer to.

    a) 1 thing or person   b) more than 1 thing or person

Part D Directions: Circle the correct verb in each question, and answer question 7.

a)   When (do, does) Pranee go to bed?

b)   How (do, does) you feel about possessions?

c)   (Do, Does) Somsak sleep late?

d)   What (is, am, are) your hometown?

e)   What (is, am, are) your free-time activities?

f)   (Is, Am, Are) they roommates?

g)   (Is, Am, Are) the girls allergic to seafood?

7. Please consider the answers in Part D, and conclude the use of verb to do (do, does) and verb to be (is, am, are) in Present Simple Tense.

_____

_____

Part E

Directions: Consider the sentences below, and answer question 8, 9, and 10.

• Based on the information I have, I would choose Yanika to be my roommate.

• Since you ask me, I would say the blue one is the best.

• Your reasons make sense, I would have to agree with you.

8. What is the use of 'would' in these sentences? _____.

9. Do you know the contraction form of 'would', and how to pronounce it?

_____.

10. What is the use of ' because'? For example, I would choose A to be my roommate because she is tidy. _____.

Part F

Directions: Please see the ending intonation of a, b, c, d, and answer questions 11 and 12.

a) Do you hate loud music?   = end with rising intonation

b) Does she have allergy?   = end with rising intonation

c) When do you go to bed?   = end with falling intonation

d) How does she feel about sharing costs?   = end with falling intonation

11. What kind of questions ends with rising intonation? _____

12. What kind of questions ends with falling intonation? _____

Name_____

Homework of Lesson 1

Directions: Please form your own questions including yes/no question and information questions in <u>Present Simple Tense</u>

Yes/no question

1. _____ you _____?

2. _____ she _____?

3. _____ the students _____?

4. _____ Somsak _____?

5. _____ the children _____?

Information question

6. Why do you _____?

7. Where does he _____?

8. _____   _____ the young man _____?

9. _____   _____ the students _____?

10. Who is _____?

Analytic scoring rubric for the students' speaking tests (2nd speaking)
(Adapted from IELTS speaking band descriptors)

The total score of one task was 20 points calculated from the four aspects of English speaking ability as presented below.

Fluency and coherence	
5	• speaks fluently with only rare repetition or self- correction; hesitation is in content rather than to find words or grammar. • speaks coherently with appropriate connectives.
4	• speaks at length, but may demonstrate hesitation in language, or some repetition, and/or self-correction at times. • uses a range of connectives but not always appropriately.
3	• usually maintains flow of speech, but uses repetition, self-correction and/or slow speech to keep going. • produces simple speech fluently, but more complex speech causes fluency problems. • may over-use certain connectives.
2	• responds with noticeable pauses; speaks slowly with frequent repetition and self-correction. • links basic sentences with simple connectives, but has breakdowns in coherence.
1	• speaks with long pauses. • has limited ability to link simple sentences. • gives only simple responses, is frequently unable to convey basic message.
0	• no rateable language, no communication possible, does not attend.

Grammatical range and accuracy	
5	• uses a range of structures taught flexibly. • mostly produces error-free sentences with only rare inappropriacies or non-systematic errors.
4	• generally produces error-free sentences, though some grammatical mistakes or systematic errors persist. • may make mistakes with complex structures, though these rarely cause comprehension problems
3	• produces basic sentence forms with reasonable accuracy. • makes mistake with complex structures, but these cause some comprehension problems.

Grammatical range and accuracy (Continued)	
2	• produces only basic sentence forms, but may have some limited success. • makes frequent errors, which may lead to misunderstanding.
1	• cannot produce basic sentence forms, or relies on apparently memorized utterances. • makes numerous errors except in memorized expressions.
0	• no rateable language, no communication possible, • does not attend.

Lexical resource	
5	• uses a wide vocabulary resource readily and flexibly to convey precise meaning with appropriacy.
4	• uses vocabulary flexibly to convey precise meaning, but may contain some inappropriacies.
3	• manages to convey intended messages in all topics, but uses vocabulary with limited flexibility.
2	• is able to convey basic meaning with simple vocabulary. • makes frequent errors in word choice.
1	• only produces isolated words or memorized utterances.
0	• no rateable language, no communication possible, does not attend.

Pronunciation	
5	• uses pronunciation features with full precision and accuracy. • sustains flexible use of features throughout. • is effortless to understand.
4	• uses pronunciation features with general precision and accuracy. • sustains flexible use of features, with only occasional lapses • is easy to understand throughout; L1 accent has minimal effect on intelligibility
3	• uses pronunciation features with mixed control. • can generally be understood, but mispronunciation of individual words or sounds reduces clarity at times.
2	• uses pronunciation features with limit or frequent lapses. • frequently mispronounces some words and causes some difficulty for the listener.
1	• often makes unintelligible speech.
0	• no rateable language, no communication possible, does not attend.

Appendix B

Scope and sequence

Lesson/ Week	Speaking Task	Objectives	Outcome	Language Focus		
				Vocab	Pronuncia-Tion	Grammar
Lesson1/ Week 3-4	Choosing a roommate (jigsaw task).	- Ask and answer questions about lifestyle. - Decide whether to choose the roommate or not and support it with reasons.	- Oral report: Decision on choosing a roommate.	- Words based on lifestyle	- Contraction of 'would'. - Rising and falling intonation of questions.	- Using Wh-questions (when, what, how). - Using Yes/no questions (do/does). - Showing opinion using 'would'. - Giving reasons using 'because'.
Lesson2/ Week 5-6	Arranging a one-day Trip for Jim (jigsaw task).	- Ask and answer questions about personal arrangement. - Negotiate to each other to make a new arrangement.	- Oral report: An agreed schedule.	- Time expressions	- Contraction of is ('s), am ('m), are ('re).	- Using Present Continuous for fixed plans and personal arrangement. - Making suggestions: Shall, Let's, Why not, Why don't, How about. - Showing disagreement: I'm afraid that, I don't agree.

Lesson/ Week	Speaking Task	Objectives	Outcome	Language Focus		
				Vocab	Pronuncia-tion	Grammar
Lesson3/ Week 7-8	Finding Christmas gifts for the orphans (problem-solving task).	- Propose ideas what will be the gifts -Propose ideas to find gifts with reasons. - Comment on opinion of the other. - Negotiate to finalize ways to find gifts for the orphans.	- Oral report: The gifts to be given and ways to find them with supporting reasons.	- Words of donation items. -Words based on a passage about doing charity.	- Stress in sentences.	- Making possible suggestions: could, might. - Showing a weak degree of certainty: may, might, could. - Showing agreement: I agree, of course, that's a good idea, right. - Showing disagreement: I disagree. - Sequencing ideas: first, second, third.
Lesson4/ Week 10-11	Helping Amanda (problem-solving task).	- Judge how serious Amanda's case is. - Propose ways to help Amanda. - Negotiate to finalize ways to help Amanda's depression case.	- Oral report: Ways to help Amada's depression case.	- Words based on Amanda's problems.	- Ed ending sounds.	- Giving definite advice: should -Persuading: get someone to do sth. -Talking about the past using past verbs. -Expressing willingness: will - Sequencing ideas: to begin with, next, finally.

Lesson/ Week	Speaking Task	Objectives	Outcome	Language Focus		
				Vocab	Pronunciation	Grammar
Lesson5/ Week 12-13	Should students wear school uniforms or casual clothes? (opinion exchange task)	-Exchange opinion on whether students should wear uniforms or not. - Finalize the decision whether to agree or disagree with each other.	- Oral report: Decision of each student on the school uniform topic, and their supporting reasons.	- Words related to the topic e.g. rule, obey, iron, stain, cheap, smart, hard, treat, express, comfortable, freedom, safety and others.	- Rising or higher intonation on words showing more information is to come.	-Showing contrast: while, but, whereas, however, on the other hand. - Giving examples: for example, for instance, such as, for one thing, for another thing.
Lesson 6/ Week 14-15	Should students go to tutoring schools? (opinion exchange task)	-Exchange opinion on whether students should go to private tutoring schools or not. - Finalize the decision whether to agree or disagree with each other.	- Oral report: Decision of each student on whether students should to private tutoring schools, and their supporting reasons.	- Words related to the topic e.g. stressed, tired, expensive, competition, standard.	- Rising or higher intonation on words showing more information is to come.	-Showing addition: besides, what's more, actually. -Requesting: have someone do something. -Forcing: make someone do something. -Saying sth. to be true in the future: If clause + will.

Appendix C

List of experts

Experts validating the lesson plan

1. Assoc. Prof. Dr. Sumalee Chinokul

Faculty of Education, Chulalongkorn University

2. Asst. Prof Dr. Apasara Chinwonno

Faculty of Education, Chulalongkorn University

3. Dr. Ruedeerath Chusanachoti

Faculty of Education, Chulalongkorn University

Experts validating the English speaking ability tests and scoring rubric

1. Asst. Prof. Dr. Chansongklod Gajaseni

Faculty of Education, Chulalongkorn University

2. Asst. Prof. Dr. Jirada Wudthayagorn

Language Institute, Chulanlongkorn University

3. Dr. Vipada Poonsakvorasan

Bangkok Institute of Theology, Christian University of Thailand

Experts validating the interview questions

1. Dr. Pornpimol Sukhavatee

Faculty of Education, Chulalongkorn University

2. Dr. Maneerat Ekkayokkaya

Faculty of Education, Chulalongkorn University

3. Dr. Vipada Poonsakvorasan

 Bangkok Institute of Theology, Christian University of Thailand

Expert giving advice on conducting stimulated recall

1. Asst. Prof. Dr. Pavinee Thirakhupt - Language Institute, Chulanlongkorn University

Appendix D

Results of the lesson plan evaluation form

The criteria are: +1 = Appropriate   0 = Not sure   -1 = Not Appropriate

Item	Expert			Total	Comment
	A	B	C		
1. Objectives					
1.1 The objectives are clearly stated.	+1	+1	+1	1	
1.2 The objectives are clear and concise.	+1	+1	+1	1	
1.3 The objectives are relevant and consistent with the content of the lesson.	+1	+1	0	0.66	The objective of gap noticing is missing.
2. Content					
2.1 The content is appropriate.	+1	+1	-1	0.33	Some vocabulary in the activity sheet is too easy.
3. Procedures					
3.1 The teaching procedures are clearly stated.	+1	+1	0	0.66	The matching of the activities and objectives should be made clearer.
3.1 The teaching procedures follow the sequences in the conceptual framework.	+1	+1	+1	1	
3.2 The time given for each teaching procedure is appropriate.	+1	+1	-1	0.33	Given time 100 minutes, students seem not to do anything significant.

Results of the Lesson Plan Evaluation Form (Continued)

Item	Expert			Total	Comment
	A	B	C		
4. Materials					
4.1 The materials are appropriate for the lesson.	+1	+1	0	0.66	The reasons of using the materials should be clearer.
5. Evaluation					
5.1 The evaluation method is appropriate with the lesson plan.	0	+1	0	0.33	- One more evaluation for terminal objective should be added. - Precise verbs for each objective should be used.
5.2 The scoring rubric is clear and support practical measurement.	+1	+1	0	0.66	- When to use the rubric is still unclear whether it be 1st or 2nd speaking.

Additional Comments:

- The teaching periods for the terminal objective should be made clear.

- Where to meet the terminal objective should be made clear in the lesson plan.

Appendix E

The English speaking ability pre-test

<u>Part 1:</u> **Making an Appointment (Jigsaw Task) (For student A).**

<u>Directions:</u>

1. You will perform the task in pair. One takes A's role and the other takes B's role.

2. Each one gets the information of his/her role, but <u>does not</u> see the information of the other.

3. You have 3 minutes to read the scenario and information, and prepare.

4. You have and 4 minutes to complete the task (20 points).

The scenario:

A and B are friends but they rarely see each other because they study in different schools. A is an American exchange student; B is a Thai student. They live in the same neighborhood. A is calling B on Saturday morning to ask B out in the afternoon, because A is leaving Thailand tomorrow to go back to America. Both of them agree to meet. They must **negotiate to find <u>time</u> and a <u>place</u> for a 30-minute appointment.**

The information for A 's role

A's schedule.	
1:00 - 1:30	Do business at a bank.
1:30 - 3:00	Pack the luggage and clear the bedroom.
3:00 - 4:30	Shop for Thai souvenirs.
4:30 - 5:30	Have a haircut.
5:30	Have a farewell dinner with the host family.

Part 1: **Making an Appointment (Jigsaw Task) (For student B).**

Directions:

1. You will perform the task in pair. One takes A's role and the other takes B's role.

2. Each one gets the information of his/her role, but <u>does not </u>see the information of

   the other.

3. You have 3 minutes to read the scenario and information, and prepare.

4. You have 4 minutes to complete the task (20 points).

The scenario:

     A and B are friends but they rarely see each other because they study in different schools. A is an American exchange student; B is a Thai student. They live in the same neighborhood. A is calling B on Saturday morning to ask B out in the afternoon, because A is leaving Thailand tomorrow to go back to America. Both of them agree to meet. They must **negotiate to find <u>time</u> and a <u>place</u> for a 30-minute appointment.**

The information for B 's role

B's schedule

1:00 - 2:00	Lunch with friends.
2:00 - 3:30	Watch a movie with boyfriend/girlfriend.
3:30 - 4:30	Have a dentist appointment.
4:30 – 5:30	Shop for groceries.
5:30	Go home**.**
.	

Part 2: Solving Addiction (Problem-solving Task) (For both students).

Directions:

1. You will perform the task in pair.

2. You must read the problem below and negotiate to find the solutions together.

3. You have 2 minutes to read the problem and prepare.

4. You have 4 minutes to complete the task (20 points).

The problem: Too Much Time on Communication Devices

Your friend, Jo, worries about his little brother, Tee. He is asking both of you to help find ways to solve the problem. Tee uses communicative devices such as cell phone, computer, and ipad most of the time. He always talks on the phone, chats on facebook, and plays online games. He talks less with the family and does poorly in several classes at school. Jo knows that forbidding him from using all electronic devices is impossible, but he wants Tee not to use them too much, and focus more on studying.

Your task: Give 3 solutions to Jo so that he can solve Tee's problem.

Part 3: Exchanging Opinions About Places (Opinion Exchange Task) (For both students).

Directions:

1. You will perform the task in pair.

2. You must read the questions below and exchange opinion on them.

3. You have 1 minute to read the questions and prepare.

4. You have 4 minutes to complete the task (20 points).

The questions:

Which place is better to study, a boarding school or a day school? Why?

Appendix F

The English speaking ability post-test

<u>Part 1:</u> **Making an Appointment (Jigsaw Task) (For student A).**

<u>Directions:</u>

1. You will perform the task in pair. One takes A's role and the other takes B's role.

2. Each one gets the information of his/her role, but <u>does not </u>see the information of the other.

3. You have 3 minutes to read the scenario and information, and prepare.

4. You have and 4 minutes to complete the task (20 points).

The scenario:

A and B are international students in a Thai high school. A is from Cambodia and B is from Vietnam. They live in the same neighborhood. They are student buddies to help each other study well. The exams are in a few weeks. Both of them need to tutor each other for some difficult subjects. B is calling A on Sunday morning to ask A out in the afternoon. They must **negotiate to find** <u>**time**</u> **and** <u>**a subject**</u> **for a 1-hour tutoring session.**

The information for A 's role

A's schedule	
1:00 - 2:00	Do Math homework
2:00 - 3:00	Practice guitar
3:00 - 4:00	Wash school uniforms
4:00 - 4:30	Exercise
4:30 - 5:30	Do a group project of the English subject

Part 1: **Making an Appointment (Jigsaw Task) (For student B).**

Directions:

1. You will perform the task in pair. One takes A's role and the other takes B's role.

2. Each one gets the information of his/her role, but <u>does not</u> see the information of the other.

3. You have 3 minutes to read the scenario and information, and prepare.

4. You have 4 minutes to complete the task (20 points).

The scenario:

　　　　A and B are international students in a Thai high school. A is from Cambodia and B is from Vietnam. They live in the same neighborhood. They are student buddies to help each other study well. The exams are in a few weeks. Both of them need to tutor each other for some difficult subjects. B is calling A on Sunday morning to ask A out in the afternoon. They must **negotiate to find** **time** and **a subject** for a 1-hour tutoring session.

The information for B 's role

B's schedule	
1:00 - 2:00	Study Chinese alone
2:00 - 3:00	Do a group project of the Thai subject
3:00 – 3:30	Exercise
3:30 – 4:30	Practice piano
4:30 - 5:30	Iron school uniforms

Part 2: Solving Addiction (Problem-solving Task) (For both students).

Directions:

1. You will perform the task in pair.

2. You must read the problem below and negotiate to find the solutions together.

3. You have 2 minutes to read the problem and prepare.

4. You have 4 minutes to complete the task (20 points).

The problem: Too Much Time on Comic Books

Your friend, Aom, worries about his little sister, Meow. She is asking both of you to help find ways to solve the problems. Meow spends a lot of time reading comic books in the bedroom. She rarely comes out to talk or have dinner with the family. She does not have social life because she never hangs out with anyone. Aom knows that forbidding Meow from reading all comic books is impossible, but she wants Meow to socialize with other people rather than stay alone and quiet.

Your task: Give 3 solutions to Aom so that she can solve Moew's problem.

Part 3: Exchanging Opinions About Places (Opinion Exchange Task) (For both students).

Directions:

1. You will perform the task in pair.

2. You must read the questions below and exchange opinion on them.

3. You have 1 minute to read the questions and prepare.

4. You have 4 minutes to complete the task (20 points).

The questions:

Which place is better to live, downtown or countryside? Why?

Appendix G

Analytic scoring rubric for English speaking ability pre- and post-tests

The total score of one task was 20 points. There were three tasks in one test. The total score of one test was 60 points (Each pre- and post-test had 60 points).

Fluency and coherence	
5	• speaks fluently with only rare repetition or self- correction; hesitation is in content rather than to find words or grammar. • speaks coherently with appropriate connectives.
4	• speaks at length, but may demonstrate hesitation in language, or some repetition, and/or self-correction at times. • uses a range of connectives but not always appropriately.
3	• usually maintains flow of speech, but uses repetition, self-correction and/or slow speech to keep going. • produces simple speech fluently, but more complex speech causes fluency problems. • may over-use certain connectives.
2	• responds with noticeable pauses; speaks slowly with frequent repetition and self-correction. • links basic sentences with simple connectives, but has breakdowns in coherence.
1	• speaks with long pauses. • has limited ability to link simple sentences. • gives only simple responses, is frequently unable to convey basic message.
0	• no rateable language, no communication possible, does not attend.

Grammatical range and accuracy	
5	• uses a range of structures taught flexibly. • mostly produces error-free sentences with only rare inappropriacies or non-systematic errors.
4	• generally produces error-free sentences, though some grammatical mistakes or systematic errors persist. • may make mistakes with complex structures, though these rarely cause comprehension problems
3	• produces basic sentence forms with reasonable accuracy. • makes mistake with complex structures, but these cause some comprehension problems.

Grammatical range and accuracy (Continued)	
2	• produces only basic sentence forms, but may have some limited success. • makes frequent errors, which may lead to misunderstanding.
1	• cannot produce basic sentence forms, or relies on apparently memorized utterances. • makes numerous errors except in memorized expressions.
0	• no rateable language, no communication possible, • does not attend.

Lexical resource	
5	• uses a wide vocabulary resource readily and flexibly to convey precise meaning with appropriacy.
4	• uses vocabulary flexibly to convey precise meaning, but may contain some inappropriacies.
3	• manages to convey intended messages in all topics, but uses vocabulary with limited flexibility.
2	• is able to convey basic meaning with simple vocabulary. • makes frequent errors in word choice.
1	• only produces isolated words or memorized utterances.
0	• no rateable language, no communication possible, does not attend.

Pronunciation	
5	• uses pronunciation features with full precision and accuracy. • sustains flexible use of features throughout. • is effortless to understand.
4	• uses pronunciation features with general precision and accuracy. • sustains flexible use of features, with only occasional lapses • is easy to understand throughout; L1 accent has minimal effect on intelligibility
3	• uses pronunciation features with mixed control. • can generally be understood, but mispronunciation of individual words or sounds reduces clarity at times.
2	• uses pronunciation features with limit or frequent lapses. • frequently mispronounces some words and causes some difficulty for the listener.
1	• often makes unintelligible speech.
0	• no rateable language, no communication possible, does not attend.

Appendix H

Results of the English speaking ability tests evaluation form

The criteria are: +1 = Appropriate   0 = Not sure   -1 = Not **Appropriate**

Item	Expert			Total	Comment
	A	B	C		
1. The tests assess the knowledge (vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation) and skill (speaking) as covered in scope and sequence of the instruction.					
1.1 Part 1 Jigsaw Task.	-1	+1	+1	0.33	- Tests may not be able to assess all the language knowledge taught in class.
1.2 Part 2 Problem-solving Task.	-1	+1	+1	0.33	
1.3 Part 3 Opinion exchange Task.	-1	+1	+1	0.33	
2. The appropriateness of the content.					
2.1 Part 1 Making an appointment.	+1	+1	+1	1	
2.2 Part 2 Solving addiction.	+1	+1	0	0.66	
2.3 Part 3 Exchange opinions about places.	+1	+1	+1	1	
3. The level of difficulty of the content.					
3.1 Part 1 Making an appointment.	+1	+1	+1	1	
3.2 Part 2 Solving addiction.	+1	0	+1	0.66	- Students may not have enough knowledge to share.
3.3 Part 3 Exchange opinions about places.	+1	+1	+1	1	

Item	Expert			Total	Comment
	A	B	C		
4. The clarity of each part of the test.					
4.1 Part 1 Jigsaw Task: Making an appointment.	+1	+1	+1	1	
4.2 Part 2 Problem-solving Task: Solving addiction.	+1	+1	+1	1	
4.3 Part 3 Opinion exchange Task: Exchanging opinions about places.	+1	+1	+1	1	
5. The directions of each part are easy to understand.	+1	+1	0	0.66	- The directions should be divided into items.
6. The time allowed for each task is sufficient to complete the task.	+1	-1	0	0.33	- The language in one question was unclear. - The preparation time should be increased. - Paper should be provided during preparation.
7. The pre- / post-tests are parallel.	+1	+1	+1	1	
8. The test layout is appropriate.	+1	+1	+1	1	
9. The scoring rubric is clear and support practical measurement.	+1	+1	+1	1	

Appendix I

Interview questions

1. What do you think about the instruction in general?

2. What do you think about the speaking tasks in the instruction? The tasks are:

    - Jigsaw task: Choosing a roommate

    - Jigsaw task: Arranging a one-day trip for Jim

    - Problem-solving task: Finding Christmas gifts for the orphans

    - Problem-solving task: Helping Amanda

    - Opinion exchange task: Should students wear school uniforms or casual clothes?

    - Opinion exchange task: Should students go to tutoring schools?

3. What do you think about the language focus?

    - Grammar, for example:

        Making suggestion: Shall, Let's, Why not, Why don't, How about

        Showing a weak degree of certainty: may, might, could

    - Vocabulary, for example:

        Words based on lifestyle, time expressions and duration

        Words based on passages about doing charity and Amanda's problems

    - Pronunciation, for example:

        Pronunciation of new vocabulary

        Rising and falling intonation of questions

4. Which part of the lesson do you like the most? Why?

    The lesson parts are:

    - Pre task i.e. playing games, watching video clips, doing activity sheets.

    - During task i.e. performing tasks (1st speaking).

    - Post task i.e. individual noticing, group noticing, learning grammar after the task, listening to teacher's feedback, and 2nd speaking

5. Which part of the lesson do you like the least (refer to the parts in item 4)? Why?

6. What do you think about usefulness of the instruction?

7. Are there any comments to improve the instruction? Please specify.

Appendix J

Results of the interview questions evaluation form

The criteria are: +1 = Appropriate   0 = Not sure   -1 = Not Appropriate

Item	Expert			Total	Comment
	A	B	C		
1. What do you think about the course in general?	+1	+1	+1	1	The word 'course' should be changed to 'instruction.'
2. What do you think about the speaking tasks in the course? The tasks are: - Choosing a roommate. - Arranging a one-day trip for Jim. - Finding Christmas gifts for the orphans - Helping Amanda. - School uniform or casual clothes? - Should students go to tutoring schools?	0	+1	+1	0.66	The task types should be provided.
3. What do you think about the language focus: grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation in the course?	-1	+1	+1	0.33	Examples of grammar, vocab, and pronunciation should be provided.
4. Which part of the lesson do you like the most? Why? The lesson parts are: - Pre task i.e. playing games, watching video clips, doing activity sheets.	+1	+1	+1	1	

Item	Expert			Total	Comment
	A	B	C		
- During task i.e. performing tasks (1st speaking). - Post task i.e. individual noticing, group noticing, learning grammar after the task, listening to teacher's feedback, and 2nd speaking.					
5. Which part of the lesson do you like the least (refer to the examples in item 4)? Why?	+1	+1	+1	1	
6. Which part of the lesson do you think is the most useful (refer to the parts in item 4)? Why?	-1	+1	+1	0.33	- All parts combine in one approach. So, a holistic picture should be asked instead of parts.
7. Are there any comments to improve the lesson plan? Please specify.	+1	+1	+1	1	- The word 'lesson plan' should be changed to 'instruction'.

Additional comments

It should be group interview instead of individual interview to save time.

Will the interview be done in Thai?

Appendix K

The pre-test and post-test excerpts of the student who gained the most

improved scores

Student 17 paired with student 18, but student 18 had been hospitalized in the pre-test week. Thus, they were the only pair that the researcher tested separately, and be the interlocutor for them in pre-test.

The pre-test excerpt of student 17

<u>**Part 1: Making an appointment (jigsaw task)**</u>

Researcher: Hello student 17.

Student 17:   **Hello**

Researcher: I'm leaving Thailand tomorrow. Can we see each other this afternoon?

Student 17:   **Ah..**[long pause] **ah..I lun with friend** [mispronounced from 'lunch'].

Researcher: What time are you having lunch with your friends?

Student 17:   **Ah..one p.m. ah..**

Researcher: Until?

Student 17:   **Two p.m.**

Researcher: At 1, I will have some business at a bank too. What about four-thirty?

Student 17:   **I have a dinner appoint** [mispronounced from 'dentist appointment'].

Researcher: How about two-thirty?

Student 17:   **I cancel watch a movie with boyfriend.**

Researcher: Can you cancel that?

Student 17:   **I cancel.**

Researcher: So you cancel the movie with your boyfriend. We'll see each other around two-thirty until three. Where should we meet?

Student 17:   **Ah..Seacon.**

Researcher: OK. Let's see each other at two-thirty until three at Seacon Square.

Part 2: Solving addiction (problem-solving task)

Researcher: What do you think student 17? How can we solve Tee's problem?

Student 17:   **ah..ให้ ah.. he play sport.**

Researcher: Ok. First, play sports. Second?

Studetnt17:   **Ah..** [long pause] **ah he reas book** [mispronounced from 'read'].

Researcher: Read a book. Ok. And third?

Studetnt17:   [long pause] **He listen music.**

Researcher: But if he listens to music, he'll go back to use computer or things like that.

Studetnt17:   [long pause] **I ..he listen to music sometime** [mispronounced from 'sometimes']....[spoke unintelligible speech].

Researcher: OK. That's all.

Part 3: Exchanging opinions about places (opinion exchange task)

Studetnt17:   **Which place is better to study?** [repeated the question] **A day school because..ah..** [long pause]

Researcher: Because?

Studetnt17:   **เปลี่ยนได้ไหมคะอาจารย์**

Researcher: OK.

Student17:   **Which place is better to student?** [mispronounced form 'study'] **A boarding school** [long pause] **ah..because ah.. จะได้ have because have time do homework.**

Studetnt17:   **จะได้ ah.. get up ah.. morning**.

The post-test excerpt of student 17

Part 1: Making an appointment (jigsaw task)

Student 17:   **Hi.**

Student 18:   Are you free at three..three..three-thirty to four-thirty p.m.?

               What..What's are you doing at..What are you doing at three-thirty to

               four thirty? Yes, three p.m. what are you doing?

Student 17: **I am wash school uni..wash school uniform. Ah..what's are you doing four to four-thirty o'clock?**

Student 18: Exercise. OK I.. สคิดิ๊วส์ [mispronounced from 'schedule']. What are you free at...you cancel..you cancel time..sometime.

Student 17: **I cancel two..two to three o'clock. I เพรสตี้ [mispronounced from 'practice'] guitar.**

Student 18: OK. You cancel practice..you cancel practice guitar. We are..we are see..we are see information for rules..rules ..rules. We're tutoring subject...a subject Institute Theology... [spoke unintelligible speech].

Student 17: **We are tutoring English ah..ah.. two to... two to three o'clock at BIT.**

Part 2: Solving addiction (problem-solving task)

Student 18: OK. We are help Aom give three solution, so Meow is..Mewo is problem. Number one..first I think is visiting..visiting Meow see..see.. see friend..see friend exercise..exercise

Student 17: **I think Meow she is shopping** [pronounced 's' in she and shopping instead of 'sh' because of Laos mother language does not have 'sh' sound].

Student 18: Shopping. OK. She..we are ask Meow go to see movie..ask Meow go to see movie and shopping and ask Meow exercise

Studetnt17: **Oh. Good idea. I same.**

Student 18: First ask Meow exercise. Second Meow..ask Meow shopping. And third ask Meow go to see movie. Ask Meow see friend..see friend.

Studetnt17: **I think she is exercise good idea. I think she ah..go to... I think she is ah.. First, she is exercise. Second, she shopping. Third, ask she go to see movie.**

Student 18: I think we should ask Meow. First, ask she exercise sometimes. Second, ask she shopping. Third, ask she go to movie.

Part 3: Exchanging opinions about places (opinion exchange task)

Student 18:   OK. I should better to live countryside

Studetnt17:   **Oh, I same.**

Student 18:   You same? I like countryside because air good..air good..air..clean air. I like mountain. I don't like problem smoke, car. In downtown I don't like problem.

Studetnt17:   **Yes. I like countryside because in downtown it's ah..building hot in the summer.**

Studetnt18:   OK. I agree with you. We are should better to live countryside. In countryside good air, animal..many animal.

Studetnt17:   **I same. I agree with you.**

Studetnt18:   Tree..many tree..green..world green. In countryside world green, I like.

Studetnt17:   **Yes. I like tree green, air good. I like mountain. I like waterfall. Which place is better to live?** [repeated the question] **Countryside. I think I like mountain, waterfall, and tree because in downtown in the summer it is building hot.**

Studetnt18:   OK. We are better to live countryside because good idea mountain waterfall. Downtown very hot. I like mountain. I like air good.

Appendix L

Example of data on noticing the gap for triangulation

Data: Student #7's notes on the self-transcription of lesson three

Lesson three: Finding Christmas Gifts for the Orphans

Example of data on noticing the gap for triangulation (Continued)

Data: Student #7's stimulated recall of lesson three

S #7: First I thought 'I want to give' could be used to tell my own opinion, but later I thought it was wrong so I crossed it out and added 'we have to choose one gift, right? following the model. I thought 'we' fit in this context because we meant 'us', and we did this task together. In my work, I only used 'I want', 'I think.' I knew later when the teacher explained that it was ok to use 'I'. But at that time when I thought alone, I thought the word 'I' shouldn't have been used. I added the word 'we could' following the model. I wasn't sure whether I spelled 'stores' correctly or not. I wanted to say we could play music in front of the stores. I didn't know the vocabulary 'in front of', so I used 'for' like 'forward.' I didn't add 'at' or I used wrong words before places. It should have been 'at Seacon, right? I thought using 'in BIT' was wrong. It should have been 'at' for places. I added many words of 'could' following the model. There were words such as 'I agree', and 'let's do it' that I didn't think about when I spoke.

Example of data on noticing the gap for triangulation (Continued)

Data: Student #7's 2nd speaking of lesson three

S #8:   How are you?

S #7:   I'm fine. Thank you and you?

S #8:   I'm fine.

S #7:   We have to choose Christmas gifts, right? We could..we could give coloring books for children.

S #8:   I want to give blankets. First, we could work job parts time resorts on summer.

S #7:   Second, we could... we could play music on the street at Seacon, Lotus and Big C. Third, we could help teacher work at BIT. Are you ok?

S #8:   OK, good idea. Ok summarize. We choose gift Christmas gift this year blankets. Are you ok?

S #7:   Yes, I agree.

S #7:   I agree. First, we could.. we could..work job part time...part time at resort on summer. Second, we could play music on the street at Seacon, Lotus, and Big C. Third, we could..help teacher work at BIT.

S #8:   Ok, we choose. First, first, we could..er.. we could work job part-time resorts on summer. Second, we could play music..play music on street Seacon , Big C and Lotus. Third, we could work work work help teacher at BIT. Are you ok?

S #7:   Yes. I agree.

S #8:   OK. Let's do it.

Teacher's note: Student #7 always mispronounced 'could' by adding 's' sound and using long vowel to be /*kuds/, and mispronounced agree to /*əgre/.

VITA

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