"Affective (pre) dispositions towards task-based English L2 learning: A study of third-year Japanese university learners."

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Abstract

This dissertation examines the affective nature of task-based (hereafter TB) L2 English learning, with respect to Japanese third-year university students. In a three-part study, which included: a) a questionnaire b) an experiment incorporating both TB and Structural-functional orientated activities (hereafter SF) and c) a follow-up interview, the data was collected both qualitatively and quantitatively, measuring aspects of learners' *attitudes*, *motivation* and *anxieties* towards TB classroom methods. Thus the title: "Affective (pre)dispositions towards task-based English L2 among third-year Japanese university learners: a case study" was reformulated into the following three hypotheses:

H1 – *Learners demonstrate a negative* ***attitude*** *towards TB activities*

H2 – *Learners demonstrate low* ***motivation*** *towards TB activities*

H3 – *Learners demonstrate a high level of* ***anxiety*** *towards TB activities*

The subjects (N) included 25 Japanese learners majoring in L2 English, in their third year of university. Various theories for *attitude* and *motivation* are given in chapter 2.1 – for example, Gardner & Lambert (1972), Gardner (1982, 1985), Ajzen (1988), Dornyei & Otto (1998) and Dornyei (2001). For *anxiety,* see Dulay & Burt (1977), Koch & Terrell (1991), Scovel (1978,1991), Bandura (1991) and Pekrun (1992).

The purpose and rationale of this study is twofold. Firstly, Japanese learners demonstrate problems in oral communication activities - see Prichard (1995). Such problems cannot be accounted for by 'gaps' in language skills, alone. Learners' perceptions towards particular styles of learning and teaching warrant some degree of investigation - see Damen (1987). It is worth noting that Western ideals (i.e. The Communicative Approach) in English language teaching have drawn criticism, not only in Japan but, in a number of Asian regions - (See Ellis, 1996).

Secondly, the literature on TB methods and 'affect' is relatively narrow. With the exception of Koch & Terrell (1991), who conducted a study on *anxiety* in task engagement, research has tended to concentrate on group dynamics rather than styles of teaching. For example, Gass & Selinker (1994) Gass & Varonis (1994) Pica (1994) and McNamara (1996), were concerned

with the interactive nature of performance. In addition, MacIntyre et al (1998) focussed on the willingness to communicate (WTC), and, Dornyei & Kormos (2000) researched motivation and social dynamics. In the context of Japan, research on matters of affect has tended to concentrate on L2 English, in studies such as: Berwick & Ross (1989), Widdows & Voller (1991), Benson (1991) and, Kobayashi et al (1992). Other studies have focussed on Native speaker (NS) teachers - e.g. Shimizu (1995, 2000) – see chapter 2.2 - and Cultrone (2001).

The findings of this study suggest learners do not simply demonstrate negative affect towards TB activities. However, particular tasks were found to be conducive to varying attitudes, motivation and anxiety, resulting in certain affective patterns emerging within the group, as well as differences among individual learners, the basis of which, stems from the learners' perceptions of factors such as 'task usefulness' and 'group dynamics for optimal learning'. Therefore the three hypotheses presented: **H1**, **H2** and **H3** could not be confirmed.

(1) Distinctions between 'approach', 'method' and 'techniques' are drawn upon – (see Richards & Rodgers, 1986, 1992) - where approach refers to the underlying theoretical conception of language, in which a system of teaching (method) is born. The system includes a set of 'techniques' (classroom activities). For our purposes, approach/method and methodology are used interchangeably to mean 'method' in the above stringent definition.

Contents

"…Genuine learning can only result from an integration of cognitive and affective responses by the learner."

(Source: Dewey, 1916)

"Motivation: Perhaps no other quality is so important to success in school, nor so misunderstood."

(Source: Lewis -http://eric.voregon/pdf/samples/SM/motivation.foreward.pdf.)

1: Introduction

English in the Japanese education system.

The 1890s (or Meiji era) saw Japan establish a formalised language program that included English as a compulsory subject in middle and high schools, mostly taught by Christian missionaries from the US (Kitao & Kitao, 1995). The focus at this time was on oral skills development.

In the pursuing years, Japan's relations with the outside world grew and more emphasis was placed on the study of English. However Japanese academics took over as English instructors and, Japanese educational texts were adopted (Ibid.), along with a shift to grammar-translation methods.

In the build-up to World War II, English was predictably discouraged. However, during the post-war occupation, it became once, again a highlight, most probably owing to the presence of the US military. Educational reforms were introduced by the Ministry of Education (hereafter Monbusho) reflecting a move away, from centralised planning, including the selection of materials and educational methodologies (Livingston et al, 1973). Many Japanese people could be exposed to oral English, taught by US servicemen. They employed Structural (1) teaching methods, which focussed on oral skills through intensive pattern practice exercises such as drills.

In the post-occupation period, Japan-US relations remained close, and the study of English enjoyed a high profile in the education system (Kitao & Kitao, 1995). However, the Monbusho reversed its earlier policies concerning de-centralisation of all curricula (Livingston et al, 1973). Consequently, English education in schools (2) again consisted of translating abstract sentences, with emphasis on grammar and structure, while vocabulary was selected according to the criteria set out by the boards of education, appointed by the Monbusho (Hisano, 1976)(see also Morrow, 1987).

(1) The emergence of Structuralism, reflected a view that language is made up of units of sounds, words etc. which can be understood in their relationship to one another, within a system (Richards et al, 1987). On this premise, language is to be learned, starting with the smallest units in isolation, steadily moving towards sentences and discourse. The influential works of Bloomfield was based on the theory of Behaviourism – see Skinner, 1957.

The 1960s put Japan on the world economic circuit. Prosperity and a government drive to 'internationalise' Japan, meant the learning of English would become even more significant. Several factors behind the increasing importance (and popularity) of English can be noted: 1) the demand for English in business. 2) Japan's aim to culturally bridge Japan with the outside world (Kitao & Kitao, 1995) - (see also Hisano, 1976). 3) A rise in the quality of life meant that people wanted to be more educated, on an intrinsic level, and this has led to the promotion of 'life-long learning', which also accounts for the rise in popularity of English language conversation schools.

The 70s and 1980s saw the emergence of L2 conversation schools, which have made a brave attempt at filling the communicative void in English education, focussing primarily on listening and speaking skills. In particular, many university learners opt to supplement their scholastic courses (in English-related studies) with a conversation school package. Reasons include smaller numbers i.e. greater individual attention, more communication-orientated classes and a more informal atmosphere – among other factors.

In 1987, the Monbusho established the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) programme, which places native Assistant English Teachers (AETs) in junior and high schools across the country. The purpose of this has been to increase the amount of native English exposure, in light of the poor TOEFL (3) scores achieved by Japanese candidates – some of the lowest in Asia. However, the JET programme has been wrought with problems e.g. lack of teacher-training, Monbusho-prescribed teaching methods (4) and low learner-motivation since listening and speaking skills are not required for university entrance (Collins, 1999). Furthermore, the TOEFL examination tests only listening, of these.

While English (5) is an elective course in secondary education, over 99% of students choose to study it. The underlying motivation is to gain university entrance (Berwick & Ross, 1989), irrespective of the intended course. Collins (1999: 2), points out that it is the university entrance exams "which retain the format and content of grammar translation methodology." Hence, the emphasis on university entrance dictates the methods, which are geared to it. According to a study by the US department of Education (2000), this narrow focus of (English) secondary education leading up to university entrance has led to the underdevelopment of learner's analytical and critical skills. Aside from the lack of time spent on speaking and listening, the

learner's cognitive development has been undermined, which might in part, account for the frustrations of teachers and learners alike, in task-based syllabi.

English continues to enjoy a high status in the education system in reflection of university entrance requirements and the tremendous pressure set upon high-school learners to enter higher education. Therefore, nearly all secondary school students opt to study English from the age of 12 (6), and this in turn becomes their motivation (Berwick & Ross, 1989). Kitao & Kitao (1995) and Kobayashi et al (1992) have suggested that English is valued by (the) Japanese as a means of learning about other cultures while, Hisano (1976) maintains that it is as way for Japanese to express their culture. Furthermore, the status of English is underlined by the government's drive to 'internationalise' Japan, culturally and economically. However, Japan has remained a mono-cultural society and this in part, explains why English conversation schools have had little success i.e. listening and speaking skills are barely practised outside of the classroom because L1 is the dominant language. Despite the lack of success, English conversation schools have remained popular, especially among college/university learners and working professionals, because oral skills are not promoted satisfactorily (Widdows & Voller, 1991), and English is viewed as an important skill for upward mobility.

In the next chapter, we will discuss the theoretical constructs of *attitude*, *motivation* and *anxiety* followed by a review of the research in TB methodologies. In this chapter, we will also provide an account of the research carried out in Japan, on matters of affect in L2 learning. Chapter 3 includes a description of the three-part study and an account of the subjects' profiles. Chapter 4 provides a detailed analysis of the data, along with findings. In chapter 5, we will summarise and conclude with suggestions for follow-up research.

(2) Until 2002 English education began at the age of 12, in the first year of junior high school and generally continued for 6 years, for those completing high school and beyond.
(3) TOEFL - The Test of English as a Foreign Language serves as a benchmark for non-native English speakers entering universities in North America.
(4) Classroom activities conducted by AETs are typically limited to repetition exercises and other structural input, none of which merits the term 'communicative' (see Miyazato, 2001).
(5) English is offered three hours per week in public schools.
(6) From 2002, The Monbusho introduced English at elementary school level.

2: Theoretical framework

This chapter is divided into 3 sections. The first characterises the nature of *attitude*, *motivation* and *anxiety* from early theoretical grounding to recent developments. The second reviews studies on affective variables, with particular attention to group dynamics and 'task' (1) (as defined by Wallis, 1996). In the third section, we will summarise the research on *affect* (2), within the Japanese context.

2.1 Attitude, motivation and anxiety

According to Baker (1992), *Attitude* is an abstract concept, which serves to characterise the nature of human behaviour. In this paper we will adopt Ajzen's (1988, p.4) definition in which:

"(An attitude) is a disposition to respond favourably or unfavourably to an object, person, institution, or event."

In our case, we are measuring learners' predispositions towards particular styles of learning. Ajzen (1988) proposes 3 constructs, which make up *attitude*: **1) Cognition, 2) affect and 3) readiness for action. Cognition**, firstly, relates to one's thoughts and beliefs (which are stated overtly, although this is not made clear). When asked about the *attitude object* (i.e. learning styles) the subject may respond favourably given the tendency to offer what s/he perceives as desired (3). Particularly, in 'face' societies such as Japan, it is difficult to divulge one's true feelings – including anxieties -about X (i.e. the second construct affect), particularly where the information required may be seen as critical and potentially confrontational.

(1) Wallis (1996: 23) defines *task* as an activity "where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome." Emphasis is placed on *meaning* rather *form*, and a goal must be included.
(2) For our purposes, *Affect* (italicised) broadly refers to the attitude, motivation and anxiety, as an umbrella term. Not to be confused with Ajzen's (1988) notion of **affect** (bold) – the second of three, underlying constructs of *attitude*.
(3) This is often referred to as the 'halo effect' (see Potter & Wetherell, 1987).

Affect then is may be hidden, covert, as suggested above. For this reason, *cognition* and *affect* are not necessarily harmonious in their relationship. **Readiness for action** describes the subject's behavioural intention - for example their willingness to execute task X, given their favourable attitude towards this style of learning. In this respect *attitude* is a predisposing factor, which will, in some way, affect the outcome of X. Moreover, the outcome itself may re-shape pre-existing attitudes, regarding X.

Furthermore, affective predispositions can alter during the course of X itself. This is the fundamental concern Dornyei & Otto (1998) (4) have with more, traditional theories (e.g. Gardner & Lambert, 1972: Gardner, 1985) on *affect* (in the broader sense – see footnote (2)). They view such theories and models as reliant on the assumption that matters of affect are static, rather than evolving and changing over time. Dornyei (1996, 1998, 2001) is discussed more later on.

Under the influence of Mowrer (1950), early studies by Gardner & Lambert did not draw a distinction between *attitude* and *motivation* (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). Much of the onus was placed on *motivation*, from which the following dichotomy was born (see Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Beebe, 1988; Baker, 1992; Green, 1993; Ngeow, 1998; Norris-holt, 2001; Shimizu, 2000; Dornyei, 2001): -

I). *Instrumental motivation* – where learning is product/result-oriented with desire for upward mobility - (this is very much evident in the Japanese system where the onus placed on testing at the expense of the process and experience values of education.)

II). *Integrative motivation* – where learning is desired for holistic reasons: " a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented in by the other group" (Preston, 1989: 79).

(4) Although we are discussing *attitude*, Dornyei & Otto primarily criticise the implicit assumptions that *motivation* is static.

Two problems, which, emerge from Gardner & Lambert's construct, relate to: 1) Their over-simplistic model and 2) A definition for *motivation*, as distinct from *attitude*. With regard to the first, Tsuruta (2000), points out that researchers have been dissatisfied with this dichotomy since it is " too broad to adequately describe the complexity of motivational factors" (Ibid, p.1). Consequently, a number of theories have been developed to compensate for this. Cooper & Fishman (1977), for example, introduced a third type, which they termed *developmental motivation*. This refers to L2 as a function of personal goals i.e. being able to understand song lyrics, reading books etc. Similarly, Benson (1991) proposes a third type which, he labels *personal* (see section 2.3). Oxford & Shearin (1994) reviewed 12 theories of motivation, stemming from linguistic and psychology-based disciplines, and found six factors which affect the nature of motivation language learning: 1) *attitudes* 2) *beliefs about self* 3) *goals* 4) *involvement* 5) *environmental support* and, 6) *personal attributes* - refer to Ngeow, (1998). Green (1993) identified three dimensions of *motivation*, according to the various (if not innumerable!) theories and/or studies at hand which, he classifies as: **1) Holistic** – general biological principles of motivation. **2) Cultural-Linguistic** – in this he includes Gardner's work (i.e. *instrumental* and *integrative* motivation towards the use of L2 in various cultural settings. **3) Cognitive-Linguistic** – which for Green is concerned with the learner in a formal educational setting, and relates to aspects of learner cognition and acquisition, in relation to e.g. *anxiety* (see the end of this section).

Other examples of *motivational* theories, which are not discussed here, have been put forward by Clement & Kruinder (1983) and Biggs (1987). These researchers are mentioned because they have developed modified extensions of the *instrumental/integrative* principle.

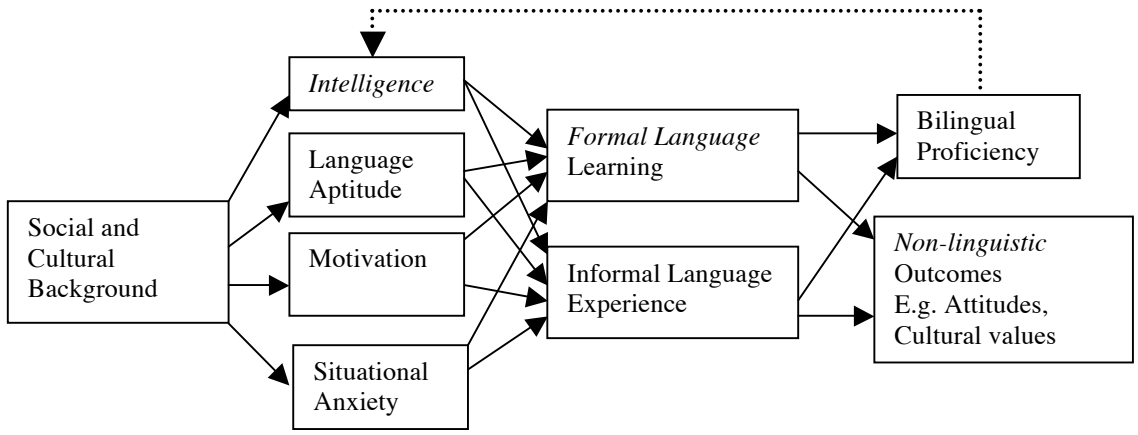
Secondly, and in view of the overwhelming number of theories presented, Dornyei (1996) suggests we are at a loss in providing an integral and accurate definition of *motivation*. At a more superficial level, Richards et al (1987: 185) define *motivation* as " the factors that determine a person's desire to do something." However, models and studies by Dornyei (1996) and Dornyei & Otto (1998, 2001) have furthered traditional theories of *motivation*. In doing so they have given recognition to the fact that *motivation* is not static, but ever changing and evolving, in any stage of learning, and in any specific situation. Although not discussed at great length, it is worth mentioning that Dornyei & Otto's (1998) **Process Model of L2 Motivation,** provides a complex

and intricate account of a set of given motivational variables, which are persistently subject to change, over time. In other words, *motivation* exists not only at the outset or as a resulting force, but must also be viewed as an evolving set of factors which, will be influenced by both internal - (e.g. the learner's orientation to learn) - and, external forces - (e.g. the style of teaching presented), according to specific situations in the learning process. Thus, Dornyei & Otto (pp.64), arrive at the following definition for *motivation:*

" The dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, co-ordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritised, operationalised and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out."

In all fairness to Gardner (1985), his reaction to earlier criticism and alternative theories, did in fact result in a model which, attempts to broaden underlying factors in the context of *motivation* as well as, propose that the relationship between *attitude* and *motivation* is cyclical - (i.e. implicitly, not static). A schematic representation of Gardner's Socio-educational Model (1985) is given below in Fig. 2.1.

Fig. 2.1 Gardner's Socio-educational Model (1985)



Source: Baker (1992: 39)

Gardner's (1985) socio-educational model consists of 4 stages, the **first** of which refers to one's own social and cultural background in which beliefs about language and culture are formed.

Presumably, an attitude develops towards L2, its culture and people. **Stage 2** can be broken down into 4 variables: intelligence; language aptitude situational anxiety; and *motivation*, which is further broken down into 3 elements - *effort*, *desire* and *affect* (Norris-Holt, 2001). *Effort* refers to the time spent on L2 study, while *desire* reflects to what extent the learner wishes to become proficient in L2. Finally, *affect u*nderlines the learner's emotive factors in SLA i.e. the degree of happiness the learner feels about learning L2. **Stage 3** includes the SLA experience, whether formal (i.e. in the classroom) or informal in setting. **Stage 4**, the experience of SLA, results in linguistic and non-linguistic outcomes - proficiency and *attitude,* respectively. Motivation in further SLA experience will be influenced by *attitude* formed on this occasion - hence the relationship between *attitude* and *motivation* appears to be cyclical (Baker, 1992).

One construct left to discuss in this section is *anxiety*. Here, we turn to Koba et al, (2000, p.1), who re-state Scovel's (1978) definition:

"… state of uneasiness and apprehension or fear caused by the anticipation of something threatening."

Scovel (1978, in Horowitz & Young, 1991, pp. 21-22) reviews the early research on *anxiety*. In 1960, Alpert & Haber conceptualised *anxiety* as either facilitating or debilitating performance of X. These two variables are independent where one, both or neither may be present in an individual. Spielberger et al (1970), differentiate state anxiety (SA) and trait anxiety (TA). The former, presumably, refers to a condition at a given time/situation, while the latter is concerned with personality. While socio-psychological in foundation, Scovel points out that Alpert & Haber's dichotomy would be fruitful in the SLA research context. This supports MacyIntyre & Gardner's (1991, p.43) view that " while the instruments used to measure language anxiety should be specific to the language area, theoretical links to more general anxiety literature can be strengthened".

Pappamihiel (2002) summarises theories of anxiety in two specific models: Pekrun's (1992) Expectancy-Value Theory of Anxiety (EVTA), and Bandura's (1991) theory of self-efficacy. Both of these theories similarly incorporate two dimensions: 1) the threat (or not) of performing a given task at the outset (with given expectations at the outcome). 2) one's ability to cope in the given situation, according to (5) beliefs about one's self. Furthermore, it appears that these dimensions can be juxtaposed with Spielberger et al's proposition.

Daly (1991) refers to *anxiety* as *communication apprehension* in the context of second language learning, where the emphasis is on oral development. A study by Horowitz et al (1991) suggested that *anxiety* in foreign language learning is prevalent in listening and speaking. Price (1991) found that *anxiety* was most acute when learners had to speak in L2, before their peers.

Perhaps, and with regard to L2 learning, the concept of *anxiety* is best understood in context with theories of *attitude* and *motivation*. In stage 2 of his Socio-educational Model, Gardner (1985) views *situational anxiety* as an important individual variable because of the significant effect it has on learner performance in the overall learning experience, which in turn will affect SLA (Baker, 1992, p.39). Gardner does not include *personality* as a distinct factor in *anxiety*, however it is implicitly held in stage 2 (Ibid).

A more recent model proposed by Clement et al (1994) was developed from a study of Hungarian L2 English learners of 17-18 years of age. Their **tripartite** model which, is discussed at great length in Oxford (ed.) (1996:74-75) is made up of three dimensions: **1) Social** – which is concerned with integrative motivation. **2) Personal** – referring to 'linguistic self-confidence (and this includes *anxiety*). **3) Appraisal of the classroom Environment** – relating to variables such as group cohesion (5), rapport with the teacher and appraisal of the course. These three dimensions will in turn affect 'Foreign Language behaviour and Competence'. According to the study, low *anxiety* among L2 learners is the result of more optimal previous learning experiences, with respect to L2. These learners demonstrate a higher level of self-confidence in terms of their own L2 ability and are likely to find tasks less problematic. In turn, *motivation* is less hindered by lack of self-confidence (Dornyei (1996: 74-75). For Krashen (1981) learners' performance in second-language, acquisition is better when self-confidence is higher and *anxiety* is lower. Krashen's theoretical grounding has been influenced by Dulay's & Burt (1977) conceptualisation of an **Affective Filter** hypothesis; this consists of a mental device, which inhibits comprehensible input if *learner anxiety* is high (and attitude is negative)(see Krashen, 1982, p.30-33).

In the next section, we will list studies related to our research, and draw out one, which is of particular significance, in the context of affective predispositions towards TB methods.

(5) In this context, *group cohesion* refers to the 'togetherness' of the group. This might be equated to the socio-psychological concept of 'in-group/out-group' feeling.

2.2.1 Related studies

Early research on *motivation* in the L2 learning context, focussed on language itself (cf. Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Sharp et al, 1973; Burstall et al, 1974). More recent studies have been derived from an interest in learners' behaviours in the classroom setting (Dornyei, 1996). In particular, research in 'group dynamics', traditionally in the social-psychological discipline, has found its way into applied linguistics. For example, Clement et al (1994) found that learners' perceptions of the L2 classroom were influenced by *group cohesion* (5), and more relevant to our purpose, by *teaching style*. While our concern is not primarily with affective predisposition towards L2 group work/learning, TB methods, in a communicative sense rely on the interactive nature of learners, as the selected TB activities in our study will demonstrate.

The following group and/or TB-related research, summarised by Dornyei (2001, pp. 38-39, 40, 227, 252-253), is given in Fig. 2.2.1.

Reference	**Aims**
Sharan & Shaulov (1990)	To measure the correlation between group motivation and learner achievement.
Gass & Selinker (1994) Gass & Varonis (1994) Pica (1994)	To measure levels of interaction in communicative tasks.
Erhman & Dornyei (1998)	To examine the motivational impact of peer relationships.
MacIntyre et al (1998)	To measure learners' willingness to communicate (WTC)
Dornyei & Kormos (2000)	To examine the socio-dynamic and motivational derivatives in L2 learners' task engagement.

Table 2.1

One study not listed above, but worth some elaboration due to its obvious link to TB methods, is by Koch & Terrell, (1991). Koch & Terrell's focus on *learner anxiety* centred on the Natural Approach (NA) (6).

(6) The Natural Approach developed circa the late 70s – but stemming from notions born in the 19th century - consists of a set of stages, beginning with comprehensible input, and leading to the promotion of (target) language use among learners, in meaningful way rather focussing on grammar (see Richards & Rodgers, 1992).

The study took place at the University of California. 119 First and second-year university students in L2 Spanish were handed questionnaires, asking them to characterise their own degrees of *anxiety* towards NA. Learners were asked about their previous learning approach and claimed only 17% in NA, while 69% stated grammar-translation.

It appears that multiple answers were given, since 46% claimed they had been taught through audio-lingualism. These ratios indicate a strong tendency towards SF orientated methods. At two extremes of a 5-point scale, about 30% reported that they were 'not at all anxious' in an NA class, while about 20% were 'very…' or 'extremely nervous'. In equal respective thirds, subjects said they felt more nervous, no different, or less nervous, than with other approaches. This suggests (**H3**) there is no difference in anxiety between SF orientated methods and TB methods. In their analysis of specific tasks, Koch & Terrell generally found that tasks associated with L2 oral production e.g. presentations, role-plays, and defining words in L2 produced the greatest levels of *anxiety*, while tasks such as ranking which allow students to express their opinions without too much (or any) speaking, produced the most comfort. The study concerns American learners of Spanish. These results do not necessarily correspond to Japanese learners of English, whom may be characterised according to different personality traits (with reference to Spielberger et al, 1970), and who may have had different formal and informal learning experiences (with reference to Gardner, 1985).

2.2.2 Research in Japan

In the Japanese context, studies have tended to concentrate on attitude (& motivation) towards: 1) L2 English or 2) L2 English Native Speaker (NS) teachers. Ironically, there is a need for research in the area of teaching (& learning) styles, given that terms such as 'task-based learning' and 'communicative methodologies' have received so much attention. Japan evidently reflects a negative 'attitude' in this respect. In particular, the Monbusho prescribes rigid syllabus (& method) specifications throughout the schooling system, focussing on 'test English' rather than actual communicative development. The testing process begins from an early age, resulting

in high levels of stress, anxiety and ultimately, de-motivation towards L2 (beyond the goals which the learners are expected to meet). This is underlined by the fact that many Japanese learners attend 'cram' schools in the evenings in order to meet these expectations of parents and the system alike. Typically, class sizes are large and follow a strict code of grammar-translation and test-specific content, allowing no room for meaningful learning opportunities and the development of e.g. speculation and critical thinking skills, which in turn, may result in an 'affective filter', when later faced with alternative styles of learning.

A longitudinal study by Berwick & Ross (1989), found that high-school students' motivation towards L2 English was *instrumental* i.e. in order to pass the compulsory university entrance examination for English. Upon entering university, motivation to learn English (also compulsory in their context) rapidly decreased. In contrast, Benson's study (1991), found that university students' motivation to learn L2 English not only included both *instrumental* and *integrative* types, but also a third type which he could not classify under the above dichotomy, and so termed this 'personal'. Examples he provides include "pleasure at being able to read English, and enjoyment of entertainment in English." (Ibid, p.36). Benson concludes that *personal* and *integrative* motivation outweighed *instrumental*-types. Widdows & Voller (1991), focussed on aspects of L2 learning, and in a study of Japanese college students, found that there was a preference to develop listening and speaking skills (and that these skills were not being sufficiently addressed). In a similar study, Kobayashi et al (1992), found that college students favoured learning to speak English, through which, they wished to learn about foreign cultures. This supports the second notion in Keller's (1983) education-oriented theory, which Miyazato, 2001, p.1) re-states:

> " Cross-cultural issues for the theme….increase learners' intrinsic motivation…"

Miyazato's study was primarily concerned with *anxiety* in relation to NS and Japanese (or Non-native teachers - NNS). She found that 50% of subjects favoured team teaching (both NS and NNS) with emphasis on cross-cultural interaction, while the remainder would opt for NS,

once their linguistic competence was at a level perceived to be adequate. This she claims suggests that *anxiety* is dependent on linguistic uncertainty' rather than NS presence.

These and other studies are summarised below in Table 2.2

Source	**Purpose & findings**
Berwick & Ross (1989)	*Instrumental* motivation towards L2 in order to enter university, declining thereafter.
Benson (1991)	Proposed a third type: *personal*. *Learners* favoured personal & *integrative* over *instrumental* reasons to study L2.
Widdows & Voller (1991)	Learners desired oral development but this need was not met.
Kobayashi et al (1992)	Learners desired oral development to communicate with foreigners & learn about foreign cultures.
Tsuruta (2000)	Learners' motivation towards L2 was found to be made up of 4 factors: 1 "Willingness to overcome difficulties" 2 " Sense of ability" 3 " Practicability of English" 4 " Active learning for participation"
Koba & al (2000)	Japanese learners' anxiety towards taking tests and studying grammar was lower than among non-Japanese learners.
Shimizu (1995, 2000)	Learners' *attitudes* towards NS & NNS L2 teachers: Japanese learners tended to favour NS for their personal qualities and NNS for their academic qualities.
Miyazato (2001)	Learners' *anxiety* towards NS and NNS teachers: Many favoured team-teaching, while a few would take NS classes if their L2 proficiency had reached a certain level.

Table 2.2

In the next chapter we will give an account of the methodology of our study along with profiles of the subjects (N) included. Following this, we will describe the three-part study, present the relevant data and report on the findings.

3: The study

3.1 Aims and rationale

The aims of this study are to explore the affective (pre) dispositions of a specific group of Japanese learners, towards Task-based (TB) English L2 methods. The learners are in the third-year of university, majoring in English. In the study we set out to obtain qualitative and quantitative data on learners' *attitudes*, *motivation* and *anxieties* towards TB methods, in order to compare and measure it against our three hypotheses:

H1 – *Learners demonstrate a negative* ***attitude*** *towards TB activities*

H2 – *Learners demonstrate low* ***motivation*** *towards TB activities*

H3 – *Learners demonstrate a high level of* ***anxiety*** *towards TB activities*

The interest in conducting this study stems from observations made about Japanese learners - e.g. Pritchard (1995) - in which student to student (Ss) L2 oral communication in particular tends to be problematic. Learners typically avoid giving opinions, lack verbal compensatory strategies, leave long pauses between mostly, short statements and demonstrate other ' inhibitors' in oral communication (for reasons suggested in the previous chapter). While these observations may be somewhat characteristic of today's Japanese undergraduate classrooms, further (and more up-to-date) enquiry is needed to pinpoint the specific needs of current learners, with respect to 1) increasing their exposure to particular tasks with which they demonstrate difficulty, and to 2) raise their awareness of theses tasks, in terms of their purpose and usefulness. The gap between learners' perceptions of 'optimal learning styles' and those of NS teachers is very much evident in the current system given the increasing number of NS teachers at both the secondary and tertiary levels. There is a tendency for NS teachers to institute 'western' teaching methods cultivated in the Humanist vein which, are sometimes viewed as culturally hegemonous, and met with resistance by Japanese educators and learners alike. While there is some justification to this end, the very existence of this problem warrants address.

Furthermore, the research into learner affect has mostly concentrated on issues such motivation towards L2 English or NS teachers, which gives this study its underlying direction.

3.2.1 Research methods

As stated in the introduction, this study is primarily concerned with Japanese learners' affective predispositions towards TB methods. In this respect, we have adopted a definition of 'task' given by Wallis (1996), in which the activity centres on meaning rather than language form. In addition, we may characterise a 'task' as an activity that is deductive rather than inductive, with emphasis on the process or experience itself driven by an underlying end goal. Task-teaching/learning tends to be associated with learner-centred oral development in particular, since it is born of the Communicative Movement of the late 60s and early 70s. However, TB learning is not exclusive to oral skills, if we consider (recent) CALL-related methods in which e.g. learners produce an L2 newspaper or web page. Skills developed through

use of various software applications, negotiation between learners, delegation and meeting deadlines, all contribute to the their overall experience, with the underlying goal being the physical realisation of the L2 project itself. Tasks need not be group orientated e.g. individual projects with an end presentation. However, a by-standard of TB learning more often than not includes the promotion of learner interaction (and so greater autonomy from the teacher). Therefore, a secondary concern in our study is the level of learner interaction - or to borrow from MacIntyre et al (1998), the willingness to communicate (WTC).

The study incorporated three research tools to ensure a higher degree of validity, given that only 25 subjects were included. The research tools are described schematically in Fig. 3.1.

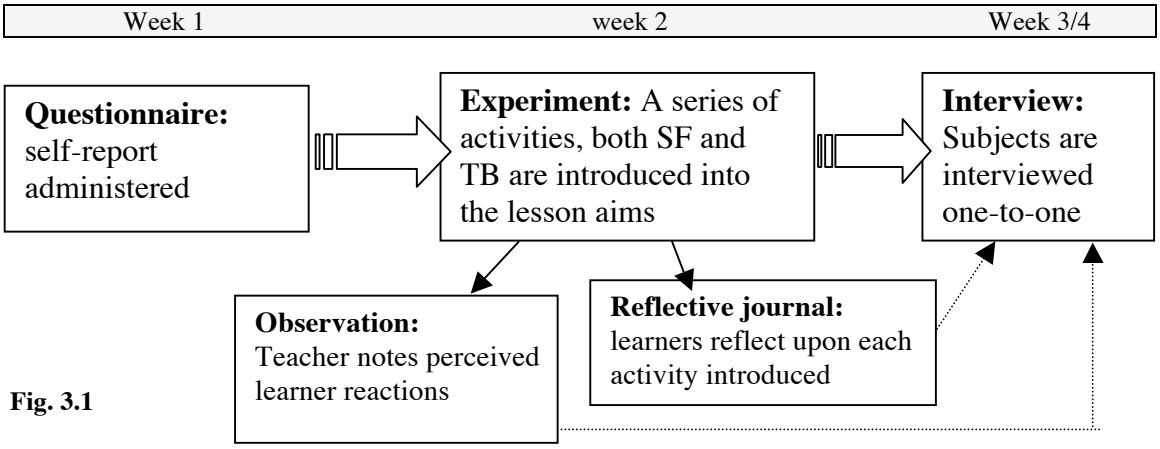


Fig. 3.1

As illustrated in Fig. 3.1, the subjects where administered a three-page questionnaire (see Appendix I) in week 1 of the study; the document included 5 general sections and a total of 46 closed and open response items. Closed items were intended to produce specific data, which is easily quantifiable and measurable, while open ended responses could be used as 'substance' in the follow-up interview in order to shed light on the subjects' perceptions of TB methods for example, and raise any issues which may have been overlooked by the limitations of the types of closed questions set in the research design (see Ushioda, 1994).

The subjects were determined to be of low to mid intermediate level in oral skills, while of high intermediate level in reading and writing, at the start of the academic year 2002). For this reason, it was thought appropriate to produce the questionnaire in L2 English only. To ensure reliability subjects were assisted when they felt they needed clarification of a particular item. When interviewed in week 3 and 4, subjects' item responses were also double-checked.

As Schumann (1976) and Skehan (1989) point out self-reporting instruments (such as questionnaires) can produce responses, which do not reflect actual beliefs but rather a view that the subject anticipates the researcher/teacher wishes to have. This may be particularly so if the true response is seen as a negative statement towards the style of teaching. We should also bear in mind that Japanese learners are nurtured in a somewhat conformist society and are not encouraged to develop critical thinking and opinions in school education – see chapter 1.

An observed experiment was conducted in week 2 (see Appendix II), in addition to the follow-up interview in weeks 3 and 4. The subjects were placed in groups of 4 or 5 randomly

and exposed to a series of SF and TB-orientated activities. The rationale for this stems from I) the small sample number used and II) the limitations of quantitative analysis (with reference to Ushioda, 1994). The experiment consisted of a series of classroom activities selected because of their typicality (1) and practicability (2), which were considered to be of either SF or TB in orientation.

While we have defined TB activities primarily focussing on meaning rather than form - (see Wallis, 1996) - SF activities can be viewed in the opposite light. This central distinction is often accompanied by secondary characteristics, which are identifiable, in the selected classroom activities. (See below in Tables 3.2a & b)

SF-orientated activities used	General characteristics of SF-orientated activities
• Listen & Repeat exercises • Pattern practice drills • Structured focussed discussion • Dictation • Listening tasks (NT-Ss) • Post-reading Q&A (NT-Ss)	• Focus on language *form* (Wallis' stringent definition, 1996 For our purposes, other characteristics may be present) • Teacher-centred (TC) or high involvement (NT-Ss) • Inductive rather than deductive • Bottom-up listening or reading style • Purpose: to arrive at the correct answer • Focus on language *form* (Wallis' stringent definition, 1996 For our purposes, other characteristics may be present)

Table 3.2a

(1) Typicality: The SF activities presented are typical of the learners' L2 English in secondary education. In former observations, the TB activities selected have frequently resulted in low on-task performance.

(2) Practicability: The SF and TB activities presented are short-term and can be executed and completed within the given time constraints.

TB-orientated activities used	General characteristics of TB-orientated activities
• Picture (& text speculation) • Information gap (Ss-Ss) • Discourse sequencing • Debating • (Plan & design) a Game • Problem solving • Picture (& text speculation)	• Focus primarily on *meaning* • Tend to be learner-centred (Ss-Ss) • Deductive rather inductive • Top-down styles of reading and listening • Purpose: to fulfil a (communicative) goal • The process (on-task) is itself important • Tends to emphasise cognitive skills/development

Table 3.2b

The above activities are not necessarily unique to either category. For example, *information gap* activities can lend themselves effectively to SF methods. This would be determined by the language specificity i.e. whiting-out specific units of language such as key vocabulary, particular tenses, specific question forms etc. – the focus here being on *form*. The task is also more likely to be NT-Ss or TC, although this need not be the case. For our purposes, however, we intend to apply each set of activities within its given category. TB activities can be generally characterised as learner-centred (hence Ss-Ss), inductive and less structured i.e. less focused on specific syntactical features. In contrast, SF activities will focus more on form (as well as meaning). These activities will be executed more inductively and so with greater teacher-involvement/centredness (NT-Ss, TC).

The diagram below (Fig. 3.2) illustrates the method of observations and follow-up interviews:

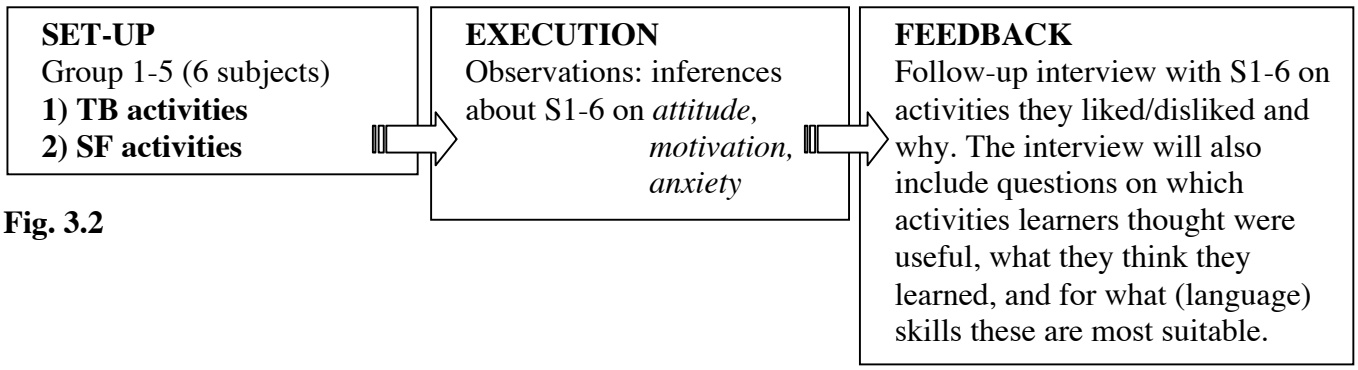


Fig. 3.2

Upon completion of each activity, learners were asked to note their affective dispositions in a reflective journal. The teacher noted his observations either at this time or during tasks, according to whether the activity was NS-centred or not – see Fig. 3.2

One problem concerning the selected TB activities is that they do not necessarily reflect the questionnaire items 4.1 – 4.5. For example, in item 4.2, subjects are asked to provide affective responses with consideration towards producing a video or journal project. This type of TB activity requires a certain period of time to complete and would clearly have to be included in a longitudinal experiment of this nature. However, the inclusion of a greater range of TB activities allows us to move closer towards making generalised statements about learners' perceptions of TB methods.

The interview stage of the study could yield substantial qualitative data. Subjects were asked about item responses on the questionnaire – in particular, items 4.5 to 4.6.3, which are central to testing hypotheses **H1**, **H2** and **H3**. Learners also referred to their 'reflective journals', when discussing the classroom activities presented, while the teacher made use of his notes from observation.

During the interview, which lasted approximately 15 minutes per subject, information was sought concerning subjects' profiles (questionnaire items 1.1 to 1.8), and their affective predisposition towards learning (& teaching styles) in L2 English. One of the more problematic encounters was trying to establish the subjects' experiences with regard to teaching methods. To attempt to include items on the questionnaire, which would invite responses of this nature, was considered too complex. The interview part of the study was crucial in this respect. Learners claimed either SF or TB methods had been employed in their school experience, according to descriptions given of frequent or typical activities presented which can be associated with one type or the other. Many responses included *listen & repeat* and *drill* exercises, which supports the evidence in section 1.2. Familiarity with activities presented in the experiment was also a benevolent factor.

3.2.2 Subjects' profiles

The study was conducted in the first semester of 2002 and included only 25 subjects (N). The subjects are third-year L2 English (major) students at a university in Osaka, Japan. Table 3.3 (below) provides details of the subjects' profiles. Given the small number of subjects included in the study, the findings that concern hypotheses **H1**, **H2** and **H3** are at best, suggestive.

Table 3.3 Subjects' Profiles

N	Sex	Age	Junior high school		High school		University		Study abroad	Conversation school
1	F	20	NT	SF/TB	NT	SF/TB	NT	SF/TB	No	No
2	M	21		SF	NT	SF	NT	SF/TB	No	No
3	M	20		SF	NT	SF	NT	SF/TB	No	No
4	M	20		SF		SF	NT	SF/TB	No	No
5	M	20	NT	SF	NT	SF	NT	SF/TB	No	No
6	F	20		SF	NT	SF/TB	NT	SF/TB	No	No
7	F	20	NT	SF	NT	SF	NT	SF/TB	No	No
8	F	20	NT	SF	NT	SF/TB	NT	SF/TB	Yes	No
9	F	20	NT	SF	NT	SF	NT	SF/TB	No	No
10	F	21		SF		SF	NT	SF/TB	No	No
11	F	21	NT	SF	NT	SF	NT	SF/TB	No	No
12	M	22	NT	SF	NT	SF	NT	SF/TB	No	No
13	F	20	NT	SF	NT	SF	NT	SF/TB	Yes	No
14	M	20	NT	SF	NT	SF	NT	SF/TB	No	No
15	F	20	NT	SF	NT	SF/TB	NT	SF/TB	Yes	Yes
16	M	20		SF		SF	NT	SF/TB	No	No
17	F	20		SF		SF	NT	SF/TB	No	No
18	F	21	NT	SF		SF	NT	SF/TB	No	No
19	F	20		SF	NT	SF/TB*	NT	SF/TB	No	No
20	F	20	NT	SF		SF	NT	SF/TB	N	No
21	M	20		SF		SF	NT	SF/TB	No	No
22	M	20	NT	SF	NT	SF	NT	SF/TB	No	No
23	M	20		SF		SF	NT	SF/TB	No	No
24	F	21		SF	NT	SF	NT	SF/TB	Yes	No
25	F	20	NT	SF	NT	SF	NT	SF/TB	Yes	No

Junior High School = 3 years. High School = 3 years

where 40% of these are male. In the fourth column subset, subjects indicated whether their (junior High school) JHS L2 experience was structural functional (SF) in orientation, Task-based (TB), or both (SF/TB). Only 1 subject (S1) claims to have had SF/TB exposure. This subject also had classroom time with NT, and in a private school setting (not indicated in Table 3.3). All other subjects (96%) claim to have received SF instruction, whether they had time with NT or

not. In the follow-up interviews, subjects did not clearly recall their experience at times, particularly when asked how many hours a week they had spent with NT. However, all subjects report that NT had focussed on oral development, some even claim the frequent use of listening devices such as cassette recorders and repetition exercises. Since most subjects attended public JHS, NT would have likely been an assistant English teacher (AET), constrained to SF-type activities (see Collins, 1999; Miyazato, 2001). In a private JHS, there might have been more flexibility, although, this is not necessarily true for the age group concerned, as responses indicate.

In the fifth column high school (HS), 68% of subjects report classroom time with NT, and in the fifth column subset, 80% of all subjects claim to have received SF instruction. An interesting finding is that 4 out of 5 subjects who had NT exposure, and attended private HS, claim to have received SF/TB instruction. Only one subject (S19)*, who attended public HS, received SF/TB instruction with a NT. This supports the literature in section 1.2.concerning the public school system. 100% of subjects taught by a JT, and 92% of those taught by a NT, were exposed to SF methods.

The sixth column shows that all subjects claim to have received SF/TB instruction in the last 2 years of university. All subjects major in English and receive the same amount of JT/NT exposure. When interviewed, subjects reported that JT focussed on reading and writing skills through SF methods. However, in some courses e.g. English literature and cross-cultural studies, discussion (in L1) was encouraged, where the emphasis was on meaning rather than the structural analysis of sentences and translation. Furthermore, subjects claimed that only some NT (who generally focus on all 4 skills) used TB methods. Subjects described the use of recorded material, listen & repeat and drill activities as typical of the teaching style among NT.

Column 7 shows 20% of subjects who have studied L2 abroad. S8 spent 1 month and 6 months in the US, in 1997 and 2001, respectively. S13 spent 4 months in the US, in 2001. S15 spent 1 month, 1 month and 4 months in the US, in 1995, 2000 and 2001, respectively. S24 was in the US for a year, between 1998 and 1999. S25 spent 2 weeks in Australia, in 1996. This data is relevant in the case of subjects who have spent a considerable amount of time in an L2 environment, and have done so recently. It is felt that these subjects are likely to be more self-confident in their L2 abilities.

In column 8, surprisingly only one subject S15 attends a conversation school in Japan; she has done so for the last 10 years, once a week. This subject has also spent time abroad recently and attended private HS with NT exposure, and SF/TB experience.

In the next chapter we will show calculation of the data obtained from our quantitative instrument, thus referring to the questionnaire items in Appendix I. We will also discuss the subjects' qualitative responses and observations made during the three-part study.

4: Presentation of data

4.1 Data analysis

Firstly, we will refer to questionnaire items 2.1 – 2.4. Although not the primary concern of this paper, we sought to gain some understanding of the learners' motivational predispositions towards learning L2 English. Items 2.1 and 2.2 refer to *instrumental* and *integrative* types, respectively (see Gardner & Lambert, 1972). Item 2.3 derives from notions put forward by Cooper & Fishman (1977), and Benson (1991) – see section 2.1. Item 2.4 allows the subject some flexibility if it is felt, the response cannot be categorised according to any of the other three items. In actuality, only 2 subjects (or 8%) selected item 2.4 giving 'none' as the reason. 44% of all subjects chose *instrumental*, while *integrative* and *developmental/personal*, each yielded 24%. As presented below in Table 4.1 *instrumental* motivation was the most significant choice, while *integrative* and *developmental/personal* types are equal. This suggests that the simplistic 'instrumental-integrative' dichotomy might be an insufficient model of measuring motivation. Furthermore, male responses suggest the first and third types are both equally significant, at 40 % each (4 out of 10), while *integrative* motives are accounted for by only 10% of the male sample. With respect to female responses, the first two are proximal representation, with *instrumental* motivation being slightly higher, at 47% (7 out of 15).

Motivation type	Male	Female	Total	%
Instrumental	**4**	**7**	**11**	**44**
Integrative	**1**	**5**	**6**	**24**
Developmental/ personal	**4**	**2**	**6**	**24**
Other	**1**	**1**	**2**	**8**

Table 4.1 – Motivational type by sex

Items 3.1 – 3.4 represent a series of open-ended questions, which aim to tap into the subjects' *attitudes* towards the L2 English courses and towards the teacher (whether NT or JT), having completed two years of study at university. In this respect, *attitude* is being investigated as an outcome of a formal language learning experience (see Gardner's Social-educational Model, 1985).

Item 3.1 yielded mixed responses. While some subjects expressed positive reactions to the learning experience in a university setting, others claimed they had learned very little in the way of oral development. As for item 3.2, a clear pattern emerged in which NT where more favoured because of cultural knowledge, the lessons being more fun and the fact that learners have to listen in L2 English. However in item 3.3, many expressed the necessity of having a balance of lessons between JT and NT. The JT, it was generally felt, could clarify difficult grammatical areas or vocabulary, although a few subjects argued that JT spent too much time on grammar-related activities in Item 3.4, which asks learners to point out more specific areas of concern. Criticism mostly swayed towards NT and some typical examples included the desire for more NT-Ss interaction.

Responses were verified in the follow-up interview.

The next section of the questionnaire reflects our main locus of investigation - our concern being the affective nature of TB-orientated activities. We recall the hypotheses **H1**, **H2** and **H3** given in Chapter 3.1:

- **H1** – *Learners demonstrate a negative **attitude** towards TB activities*
- **H2** – *Learners demonstrate low **motivation** towards TB activities*
- **H3** – *Learners demonstrate a high level of **anxiety** towards TB activities*

Section 2.1 presented a number of constructs put forward by researchers with regard to *attitude*, *motivation* and *anxiety*. Needless to say, the analysis of the data given in section 4 of the questionnaire, limits us to the exploration of these constructs at the outset (cf. Ajzen, 1988) and in some cases, at the outcome as well (cf. Gardner, 1985). The evolving and changing patterns in the subjects' levels of affect are subject to actual on-task observation (with reference to Dornyei & Otto, 1998).

Items 4.1 – 4.5	Male	Female	Total	%
Presentation	**4**	**9**	**13**	**52**
Video/journal	**1**	**3**	**4**	**16**
Picture speculation	**4**	**8**	**12**	**48**
Diary	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**
Opinion giving	**7**	**11**	**19**	**76**

Table 4.2 Male/females who have had experience with activities 4.1 – 4.5

Table 4.2 shows the number of male and female subjects who have had experience with the selected to activities born of TB orientation (questionnaire items 4.1-4.5). The choice of activities presented stems from their typicality in TB methods. 76% of subjects have had experience with opinion-giving tasks and 52% have given presentations. It is likely that these experiences are born of university classes since many subjects claim SF teaching styles in secondary education. What is surprising is that only 48% of subjects claim to have done picture speculation activities, considering this is a rudimentary activity used even in SF-orientated pre-listening activities. Also, no subjects have kept a diary in L2 English.

Items 4.1.1, 4.2.1…4.5.1 refer to the subject's *attitude* towards the given activity, in terms of its usefulness/effectiveness in their L2 learning. For subjects who have experience in a given activity, their responses are likely to reflect their current *attitude*, as a result of those experiences (cf. Gardner, 1985). To this end, we might anticipate something of their motives - with reference to Baker (1992). We can also juxtapose the current *attitude* of both ('yes' and 'no') types of subjects towards each item, with Ajzen's (1988) notion of *cognition*, which measures the learner's outward thoughts and beliefs about X (in this case, the usefulness/effectiveness of the activity). The same is true of subjects with no previous experience in the given activity.

One problem Ajzen raises relates to the potential disparity between *cognition* and *affect* – see section 2.1. The questionnaire items 4.1.2, 4.2.2…4.5.2, refer the subjects' *motivation* to execute the given activities. This item is based on Gardner's (1985) notion of *desire* to do X, but can also

be linked to Ajzen's third notion of *attitude*: *readiness for action*. Difference between values given in items 4.1.1-4.5.1 and 4.1.2-4.5.2, might suggest a degree of *affect* i.e. outward versus inward beliefs. Furthermore, subjects might reflect a low willingness/desire to do X, if *anxiety* is a factor. However, we wished to separate *anxiety* in order to measure it in isolation. The subjects were verbally informed to discard *anxiety* as a contributing factor in items 4.1.2-4.1.5, since they had a chance to express this in items 4.1.3-4.1.5. Also their selections were verified in the follow-up interview.

The questionnaire items which elicit information about the subjects' degrees of (dis)comfort towards the specific activities, are based on Scovel's (1991) definition of *anxiety*, and the first aspect of Bandura's (1991) and Pekrun's (1992) propositions – see chapter 2.1.

Table 4.3a. Male raw values for each activity & affective component.

Items 4.1 – 4.5	S2	S3	S4	S5	S12	S14	S16	S21	S22	S23
4.1 Presentation										
4.1.1 Attitude	5	3	4	5	4	2	4	4	4	1
4.1.2 Motivation	3	1	2	3	3	1	3	4	3	3
4.1.3 Anxiety	2	1	1	2	3	1	3	3	3	2
4.2 Video/journal										
4.2.1 Attitude	4	3	4	5	4	3	4	4	4	3
4.2.2 Motivation	3	2	2	3	2	3	4	3	3	2
4.2.3 Anxiety	4	1	2	2	2	3	4	3	3	2
4.3 Picture spec.										
4.3.1 Attitude	4	2	3	2	3	2	4	3	4	1
4.3.2 Motivation	4	3	2	2	2	2	4	2	4	1
4.3.3 Anxiety	4	3	2	2	2	2	4	2	4	1
4.4 Diary										
4.4.1 Attitude	3	3	4	5	4	4	5	3	4	1
4.4.2 Motivation	2	2	2	5	2	3	4	2	4	1
4.4.3 Anxiety	2	2	2	5	2	2	4	2	3	1
4.5 Opinion										
4.5.1 Attitude	4	2	4	5	4	3	5	4	4	3
4.5.2 Motivation	3	3	2	5	3	2	4	3	3	3
4.5.3 Anxiety	3	4	2	5	3	1	4	3	3	3

In section 4.1.1 – 4.5.3, subjects were presented with a rating scale to reflect their current affective (pre) dispositions towards the selected TB activities, our independent variables. The scale ranges from 1(not at all) to 5 (very much), in terms of degrees of *attitude*, *motivation* and comfort (low *anxiety*) our dependent variables. In Tables 4.3a and 4.3b, we have presented the rating values for male and female subjects, respectively. In the responses, we wish to notice low values i.e. '1' for all items, in order to make generalised statements about the affective nature (**H1**, **H2**, **H3**) of the TB activities. We also wish to notice inconsistencies in the rating values between *attitude* and *motivation,* which we will consider significant if the difference is at least '2'.

In Table 4.3a (above), the results are quite varied. In item 4.1 for example, only 1 out of 10 male subjects demonstrated a negative attitude towards (4.1) presentation tasks, although he (S23) showed a higher degree of motivation (willingness/desire) in this respect. 2 subjects selected a value of 1 for motivation, while 3 subjects selected 1 for anxiety. S3 claims to have a relatively positive attitude to presentation tasks, yet selected 1 for desire/willingness to execute them. The same subject also demonstrates high anxiety in this respect. It is possible that anxiety is a contributing factor within the desire/willingness item, as may be the case for S14. Overall, for item 4.1, subjects expressed a quite positive attitude, while motivational values tend to be lower, along with higher anxiety levels.

With reference to other items, S3 rates a 1 for anxiety towards video/journal tasks, S23 rates 1 for all three affective categories in picture speculation and (keeping a) diary. S14 rates 1 for anxiety towards opinion-giving tasks.

Table 4.3b. Female raw values for each activity & affective component

Items 4.1 – 4.5	S1	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10	S11	S13	S15	S17	S18	S19	S20	S24	S25
4.1 Presentation															
4.1.1 Attitude	4	5	5	3	2	2	3	4	3	5	4	4	2	3	4
4.1.2 Motivation	2	3	5	2	1	1	1	3	2	4	2	1	1	2	3
4.1.3 Anxiety	2	2	1	1	1	5	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	2	3
4.2 Video/journal															
4.2.1 Attitude	5	3	5	1	3	3	3	4	2	4	5	4	3	3	3
4.2.2 Motivation	3	3	5	1	2	1	1	3	2	2	4	4	4	3	3
4.2.3 Anxiety	3	2	5	1	2	5	1	1	2	2	4	3	3	2	3
4.3 Picture spec.															
4.3.1 Attitude	3	5	3	2	3	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	4	4	3
4.3.2 Motivation	3	3	3	2	2	2	1	3	5	2	5	4	3	3	3
4.3.3 Anxiety	3	3	1	2	2	5	1	1	4	1	3	4	2	3	3
4.4 Diary															
4.4.1 Attitude	4	5	4	5	3	3	4	5	4	5	4	3	3	3	3
4.4.2 Motivation	2	4	3	5	2	3	2	5	3	3	1	3	2	2	2
4.4.3 Anxiety	2	3	3	5	2	5	2	3	2	2	3	3	2	1	3
4.5 Opinion															
4.4.1 Attitude	5	5	4	5	5	3	5	5	4	5	5	4	4	3	4
4.4.2 Motivation	4	5	4	5	3	1	4	3	4	4	4	3	3	2	3
4.4.3 Anxiety	4	3	3	5	2	5	4	1	4	3	4	1	2	2	3

NB. Item 4.6, has been discarded from these tabulations, since many subjects chose not to answer this or entered responses such as 'homework', which don't bear relevance.

We will describe female responses in Table 4.3b, before looking at the cumulative ratings for each of the affective categories, in each of the items.

In item 4.1, subject S11, shows a difference between attitude and motivation towards presentation tasks. Again, this might be the result of an 'affective gap' between inward and outward beliefs (cf. Ajzen). S9-11, and S19 – 20 rate 1 for motivation towards presentations. For this item, general degrees of anxiety range from high to relatively high, according to the given ratings, with the exceptions of S10 and S25.

S_{11} presents similar response patterns in most of the items. S_8 rates 1 in all affective categories for video/journal item. Not unlike S_{11}, S_{10} shows differing attitude and motivational ratings in video/journal and opinion-giving tasks.

With the exception of presentation tasks resulting in 11 negative affective responses, all other items reflect more moderate ratings. Notably, variance in S8's ratings, for example, suggests that affective predispositions can largely be determined by the type of task presented, with reference to this subject's ratings of 5, in all 3 categories for opinion-giving tasks.

However, in order to make a set of generalised statements concerning the hypotheses in question, we have added the rating values of males - (M) $\Sigma(\mathbf{XV})$ – and those of females - (F) $\Sigma(\mathbf{XV})$ – for each affective category in each item, presented in Table 4.4. These values were divided by the sum of the maximum rating for each of the affective categories, in each item. Hence $\Sigma\mathbf{X}$ = 5 (times the number of subjects in each sex category). From this we arrive at a value in decimal form, which can be interpreted as a measure of all male or female subjects' *tendency* towards a positive affective value (since we have used a maximum rating coefficient) for the TB activities presented. The measure kept here in decimal form so as to draw distinction from the 'whole number' rating values, is in a range between 0.10 and 1, where 1 would indicate suggestively, a positive affective *tendency* (according to its category) towards the given task.

Table 4.4. Male and Female total/ affective values and *tendency* for each item.

Items 4.1 – 4.5	(M) $\Sigma(\mathbf{XV})$	(M) $\frac{\Sigma(\mathbf{XV})}{\Sigma N(\Sigma \mathbf{X})}$	(F) $\Sigma(\mathbf{XV})$	(F) $\frac{\Sigma(\mathbf{XV})}{\Sigma N(\Sigma \mathbf{X})}$	(M+F) $\Sigma(\mathbf{XV})$	$\frac{\Sigma(\mathbf{XV})}{\Sigma N(\Sigma \mathbf{X})}$
4.1 Presentation						
4.1.1 Attitude	36	0.72	53	0.706	89	0.712
4.1.2 Motivation	26	0.52	33	0.44	59	0.472
4.1.3 Anxiety	21	0.42	26	0.346	47	0.376
4.2 Video/journal	38	0.76	48	0.64	86	0.688
4.2.1 Attitude	27	0.54	41	0.546	68	0.544
4.2.2 Motivation	26	0.52	39	0.52	65	0.52
4.2.3 Anxiety						
4.3 Picture spec.						
4.3.1 Attitude	28	0.56	50	0.666	78	0.624
4.3.2 Motivation	26	0.52	43	0.573	69	0.552
4.3.3 Anxiety	26	0.52	38	0.506	64	0.512
4.4 Diary						
4.4.1 Attitude	36	0.72	58	0.773	94	0.752
4.4.2 Motivation	27	0.54	42	0.56	69	0.552
4.4.3 Anxiety	23	0.46	41	0.546	64	0.512
4.5 Opinion						
4.4.1 Attitude	38	0.76	66	0.88	104	0.832
4.4.2 Motivation	31	0.62	51	0.68	82	0.656
4.4.3 Anxiety	31	0.62	46	0.613	77	0.616

In observing Table 4.4, the sum of male attitudes towards presentation tasks gives a 0.72 *tendency*, or in effect 72% positive in this affective category, towards this item. In this respect, the sum of female attitudes measures at 0.706 (or 70.6%). However, we wish to notice low *tendency* values, because these will to some extent support one or all of the hypotheses **H1**, **H2** and **H3**. For males 2 values fall below the midpoint 0.5, into the negative affective *tendency* range. The degree of comfort towards presentations and 'diary' measure at 0.42 and 0.46 respectively. However, to measure 1 on the rating scale (i.e. not at all), the *tendency* would have to be in proximity of 0.20. The lowest *tendencies* measure, at best as 2 on the rating scale. For females we observe a 0.44 *tendency* for motivation towards presentations, and in the same

respect, a low 0.346 for comfort (relatively high anxiety). Since both male and female responses indicate a low *tendency* for comfort towards item 4.1, the combined value measures at 0.376, while motivation towards item 4.1 measures at 0.472, within the negative range.

In the previous Table we observed tendencies for affective variables in each TB activity. In Table 4.5, we have added all ratings for what corresponds to attitude, motivation and anxiety, across the 5 TB activities presented to form generalised statements about affective predispositions towards TB activities, by the evidence of these. There is no tendency for any affective variable falling in the negative range. Therefore attitude, motivation and anxiety are dependent on the nature of the specific TB activity, and not on TB methods as a whole. If we were to undertake a study on larger scale, with the inclusion of more specific TB activities, it is highly likely that we would find varying degrees of affect, which if cumulatively presented as below, would not in the statistical sense, objectively reflect a pattern upon which the foundation a valid hypothesis might be formed. This begs the question: what is it in the nature of tasks that influences affective (pre) dispositions?

Table 4.5. (Raw) attitude, motivation and anxiety values for male, female, ΣN and tendency for affective variable totals.

Affective variable totals $\Sigma(\mathbf{XV})$	Male	$\frac{\Sigma(\mathbf{XV})}{\Sigma N(\Sigma X)}$	Female	$\frac{\Sigma(\mathbf{XV})}{\Sigma N(\Sigma X)}$	ΣN	$\frac{\Sigma(\mathbf{XV})}{25(25)}$
Attitude	176	0.704	275	0.733	452.437	0.721
Motivation	137	0.548	210	0.56	347	0.555
Anxiety	127	0.508	190	0.506	317	0.507

With specific reference to the experiment and on the basis of observation, as well as qualitative remarks given by subjects, and follow-up interviews, affective dispositions towards the SF and TB-orientated activities were varied with some exceptions worth noting.

The *picture speculation* activity received positive feedback in terms of its usefulness as an introduction to the theme, enjoyment and level of comfort, despite this activity focussing on meaning, with no objective answers, and requiring the subjects to interact. In contrast, *sequencing* received more negative feedback, and little interaction was observed within the groups. Subjects noted that it was useful in reading comprehension and identifying paragraphs, but that it was not enjoyable to carry out. The *information gap* activity, which was set-up as a student-centred task, received in particular, negative feedback with respect to usefulness in developing listening skills and pronunciation. In comparison and for these reasons, the subjects were more favourable towards the teacher-centred *listening* activity.

Presentation was generally favoured in terms of usefulness for fluency, but the subjects felt it induced high levels of anxiety. These remarks support the responses given in Tables 4.3a & b. In some fluency-based activities, whether SF or TB-orientated, subjects expressed the desire for greater teacher-participation because the content was difficult an/or to serve as the initiator.

Overall subjects did not respond more or less favourably towards SF-orientated activities. According to what the subjects informed in their *reflective journals,* levels of affect varied from activity. This suggests attitude, motivation and anxiety is not static (cf. Dornyei & Otto, 1998). However, it is apparent that attitude towards the various activities, was largely determined by the subjects' perception of the L2 skill being focussed on, and the degree of usefulness inherent in the task (in testing that skill).

We are suggesting then, that TB-orientated activities do not necessarily result in negative affect because they focus on meaning and are in this way ambiguous and incongruous to their formative L2 experience. By way of observation and responses, we can interpret that the subjects' attitude and motivation (in observation – disposition to act), will be negatively affected if the perceived L2 skill would be better served with greater teacher-participation (in the subject's view).

The next step was to enquire about L2 skills, in terms of learning experience and the optimal level of teacher involvement. We refer to questionnaire items 5.1-5.6.

Table 4.6. Male and Female affirmative responses to item 5.1

L2 Skill	Male	Female	Total
Reading	90%	80%	84%
Writing	80%	52%	64%
Listening	60%	40%	48%
Speaking	30%	40%	36%

Table 4.6 displays the percentages of 'yes' responses to the question of whether enough time had been spent on each L2 skill. For both male and females, reading is yields high scores as to be expected. For writing, 48% of females surprisingly responded 'no'. More dissatisfaction is apparent with listening, and particularly, speaking. This supports findings by Widdows & Voller (1991).

Table 4.7 Male/female % by hours per week on L2 skills outside the classroom.

L2 skill	Reading				Writing				Listening				Speaking			
Hours	**0-1**	**2-4**	**4-6**	**6+**	**0-1**	**2-4**	**4-6**	**6+**	**0-1**	**2-4**	**4-6**	**6+**	**0-1**	**2-4**	**4-6**	**6+**
Male	30	40	10	20	50	40	10	0	50	20	30	0	0	100	0	0
Female	13	60	27	0	40	40	13	7	34	66	0	0	93	0	0	7

In Table 4.7 above, we observe that the amount of time spent on L2 English varies considerably between sexes, and between the four skills (item 5.2). While there is greater dispersion among both males and females in reading, writing, and to some extent listening, speaking is skewed, towards the lower time ranges, with the exception of one female subject. This suggests more time should be spent on communicative tasks, in which oral production can be maximised i.e. learner-centred.

In item 5.3, only a few subjects responded that they use library resources for reading. None made use of video or listening laboratories.

Subjects' perceptions in the questionnaire item 5.4 demonstrate that there is an overall desire for teacher-participation in the four skills, with a view to effective SLA. The subjects were

presented with a graphic scale, with T-S and S-S at either end of the continuum and asked to make normative selections. The results were calculated by using standard deviation (**x**) at every interval, where the midrange value = 0, as given below in Table 4.8:

T-S	100	90	80	70	60	50	60	70	80	90	100	**S-S**
(x)	-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	+4	+5	**(x)**

Table 4.8

The **x**-factor was then added thus: **Σx** as displayed in the second column of Table 4.9a & b. The sum of standard deviations over **ΣN**, the total number of male or female subjects, gives us the average of **x,** which can then be reconverted to a % for total male and female responses in each L2 skill.

Table 4.9a (Σ) Male values for T-S orientation

L2 Skill	(M) **Σx**	$\frac{\Sigma x}{\Sigma N}$	**% (T-S)**
Reading	-16	-1.6	66%
Writing	-7	-0.7	57%
Listening	-27	-2.7	77%
Speaking	-15	-1.5	55%

For males (Table 4.9a), it is perceived that all four skills should involve some degree of teacher-participation, the highest of which is *listening*, and this supports the remarks given in part II of the study.

Notably the lowest T-S values, *speaking* and *writing* are perceived similarly.

In contrast (Table 4.9b), female responses yielded higher T-S values, particularly in *listening*. Even for speaking, a 67% T-S tendency is perceived to be optimal in SLA. We also note that speaking and writing are perceived equally, with respect to this measure.

The results suggest there is a perceived notion among males and particularly females that the path to effective SLA, includes in some cases, high teacher-participation. If the nature of the task is such that a high degree of S-S interaction is required, this may result in negative affect, especially if the skill is perceived to necessitate teacher-participation in the successful acquisition of that skill.

Table 4.9b (Σ) Female values for T-S orientation

L2 Skill	(F) Σx	$\frac{\Sigma x}{\Sigma N}$	% (T-S)
Reading	-15	-1.0	60%
Writing	-26	-1.7	67%
Listening	-61	-4.0	90%
Speaking	-24	-1.7	67%

The final qualitative remarks in items 5.5 support the values given in the previous analysis. In the final item (5.6), subjects gave mixed responses with regard working alone or with others. It may be the case that subjects, who take preference to working alone, display negative attitudes and motivations, which may or may not be the result of anxiety. A number of factors, which have not been considered explicitly, might include personality, group-cohesion, self-efficacy and other social-psychological variables.

4.2.1 Summary of Findings

Given the limited number of subjects used in the study, the data can only be at best suggestive, and serve as grounding for further wider-scale investigation.

It was expected that the majority of subjects would demonstrate high degrees of negative affect towards the TB-orientated activities presented in the questionnaire and classroom experiment, with respect to the underlying hypotheses **H1**, **H2** and **H3**. The underlying assumptions for this

were based on the subjects' formative L2 experience, in which, teaching methods were predominantly SF in orientation, accounting for a lack of development in areas such as critical thinking, cognitive skills and tolerance of ambiguity i.e. expectations of a clear-cut, definitive answer and low fluency exposure.

With reference to the questionnaire items 4.1-4.5 and the activities presented in the classroom experiment responses, observations and remarks were varied, with particular TB-activities resulting in negative attitude and/or motivation and/or anxiety, while others were conducive to positive affect. Therefore, hypotheses **H1**, **H2** and **H3** can be refuted.

Attitude, motivation and anxiety levels are not necessarily dependent on the principle that TB-activities focus on meaning rather than form and/or a have a communicative goal. In certain activities a number of subjects expressed a degree of enjoyment while interacting in L2. However, subjects also demonstrated negative affective dispositions in a learner-centred dynamic if the task was perceived to be more useful/effective in SLA, when the teacher was more involved. Indeed, in other findings, the subjects, particularly female, felt development in all four L2 skills, was best enhanced with higher teacher-participation.

5: Conclusion

The purpose of this study has been to explore learner *attitudes*, *motivation* and *anxieties* towards task-based learning, with the presupposition that our group of learners would demonstrate negative affect in these respects. Based on the Japanese educational model and the experiences of our learners, presented in chapters 1 and 3, respectively, we formulated the hypotheses **H1**, **H2** and **H3** and set out to confirm them.

The study firstly included a questionnaire, in which learners' predispositions towards a selection of task-based activities were measured both qualitatively and quantitatively. In several cases, the findings revealed differences between *attitude* and *motivation* on particular items presented. This anomaly might be accounted in terms of Ajzen's (1988) distinction between 'cognition' and 'affect'. Notably, *presentation* tasks yielded not only differences (in some cases) between *attitude* and *motivation*, but also generally higher levels of *anxiety*. These findings support, remarks by Price (1991), in which he found *anxiety* was greatly induced when learners had to speak in L2, before their peers. (See also Koch & Terrell, 1991).

Since the questionnaire items were hypothetical, observations are likely to tell us something about the learner's personality i.e. 'trait anxiety' (cf. Spielberger et al, 1970), or with reference to Bandura (1993) and Pekrun (1992), one's ability to cope (with the task), based on self-perception (of linguistic competence). We should also consider, that current *attitudes*, *motivation* and *anxieties* have been, to an extent, shaped by former learning experiences (cf. Gardner, 1985). In light of these findings, we might predict that learners with negative predispositions will, at the outset of particular tasks, demonstrate somewhat poor *attitudes*, *motivation* and high *anxiety* levels, ultimately hindering the amount of acquisition taking place (cf. Krashen, 1982). However, other factors may emerge, which may or may not result in variable affect over time. Tasks that are characterised by learner-centredness, for example, and which may involve varying degrees of communication, cognition, negotiation and other socio-linguistic factors (according to individual roles), may be affected by overall group cohesion (cf. Clement et al, 1994). Other considerations would include the classroom environment, clarity in the teacher's set-up of the task, the learners' perception of the teacher (Ibid), both in terms of, rapport and the learner's underlying perception of the teacher's role in language learning. The overwhelming number of

factors, mean that findings become highly interpretative (in part 1 of the study). Therefore, the questionnaire alone was thought to be rather limited, aside from the general problems encountered with self-reporting instruments (cf. Schumann, 1976) and (cf. Skehan, 1989).

In order, to provide more scope to the findings, and to shed light on affective variables at play, the study included an experiment and follow-up interview (cf. Ushioda, 1994), as described in detail, in chapter 3.2. We set out to confirm that learners would demonstrate negative dispositions towards task-based activities. Based upon observations made by, both the teacher and learners, task-based activities resulted in varying degrees of affect, not only between tasks, but also within 'on-task' time. The interviews revealed differences between *attitude* and *motivation* in particular, according to the learners' perceptions of usefulness and (ideal) role of the teacher in effective language learning. The latter section of the questionnaire also supports these findings. In addition, some groups appeared to be more cohesive than others. Even when L1 transfer occurred, a degree of negotiation was taking place in some groups, while in others, long bouts of silence could be observed. This suggests the dependent variables *attitude*, *motivation* and *anxiety*, are constantly changing and evolving, according to a number of factors over time (cf. Dornyei & Otto, 1998). Therefore, dichotomous models presented by e.g. Gardner & Lambert (1972) 'integrative-instrumental' - and Gardner (1985) - 'outset-outcome' - do not sufficiently account for variations of affect, within on-task time. The hypotheses **H1**, **H2** and **H3** could not be confirmed, because learners demonstrated varying degrees of affect in different tasks, and in different time frames, according to a number of factors, notably perceived usefulness and optimal classroom dynamics for the L2 skill(s).

Although the hypotheses H1, H2 and H3 were rejected any findings were at best suggestive, given the small number of participants. It is further recommended that future studies be 1) wider-scale to ensure greater statistical significance, and 2) longitudinal with emphasis on classroom observation. Task completion e.g. journal projects, may require time and affective dispositions can be investigated in their fluid and evolving states with application of Dornyei & Otto's (1998) Process Model of L2 Motivation. The research into *attitude*, *motivation* and *anxiety* towards task-based learning/teaching may lead to better communication and understanding between

teacher and learner, with respect to the purpose and usefulness of tasks, and serve as a pretext for the development of skills and strategies, in the successful rate and route to second language acquisition.

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1) Background Information

Appendix I

1.1) Name (no kanji please)	1.2) Age	1.8) English experience: JHS ( ) HS ( ) UNIV ( ) Indicate years e.g. (2) With Japanese teacher: ( ) ( ) ( ) Write Y-yes or N-no e.g. (Y) With Native teacher: ( ) ( ) ( ) As above
1.3) Student no.	1.4) Year	
1.5) Course: Communicative English IV	1.6) Sex M F	

1.7) Study abroad Y/N	IF 'Y' where?	When?	How long?
Circle **Y** or **N**	e.g. San Francisco	e.g. 2000	e.g. 3 months

2) Why do you study English? (Please choose ONE as your MAIN reason) ✓

2.1) I am interested in English cultures and people e.g. Canada. ◯

2.2) For my future: I want to improve my chances for the job market. ◯

2.3) For my interests: I like watching films or listening to music in English. ◯

2.4) Other – please specify: ..... ◯

3) Studying English at University

3.1) How do you feel about your experience at university so far? Are you learning a lot of English?

.....

.....

3.2) Are the lessons more enjoyable with Japanese teachers or native teachers? WRITE WHY.

.....

.....

3.3) Are the lessons more useful for learning with Japanese teachers or native teachers? WRITE WHY.

.....

.....

3.4) Have the English courses met your expectations? If yes/no in what way(s). PLEASE GIVE EXAMPLES - e.g. "Not really – I wanted the native teacher to correct me more/less." OR "The native teacher didn't speak with us enough/spoke too much."

.....

.....

.....

4) General

In these last two years at the university, **have you ever been asked to…….?**
Please read the examples in **bold**, and circle **Yes** or **NO**, according to if you have done this.
Next answer the questions by circling a number from 1 to 5.

(1 = not at all; 2= a little; 3= to some extent; 4 = quite a lot; 5 = very much)

NB – **'Comfortable'** means confident enough, not nervous.

4.1). **Give a presentation in front of other students? Yes/No**

4.1.1). Do you think it helps you to **improve** your English?	1	2	3	4	5
4.1.2). Do you **want** to do this?	1	2	3	4	5
4.1.3). Do you feel **comfortable** doing this?	1	2	3	4	5

4.2). **Do a project - e.g. make a video or journal? Yes/No**

4.2.1). Do you think it helps you to **improve** your English?	1	2	3	4	5
4.2.2). Do you **want** to do this?	1	2	3	4	5
4.2.3). Do you feel **comfortable** doing this?	1	2	3	4	5

4.3). **Talk about a picture using your imagination Yes/No**

4.3.1). Do you think it helps you to **improve** your English?	1	2	3	4	5
4.3.2). Do you **want** to do this?	1	2	3	4	5
4.3.3). Do you feel **comfortable** doing this?	1	2	3	4	5

4.4). **Keep a diary in English or Japanese for English class?** **Yes/No**

4.4.1). Do you think it helps you to **improve** your English?

1	2	3	4	5

4.4.2). Do you **want** to do this?

1	2	3	4	5

4.4.3). Do you feel **comfortable** doing this?

1	2	3	4	5

4.5). **Give your opinion about something in English** **Yes/No**

4.5.1). Do you think it helps you to **improve** your English?

1	2	3	4	5

4.5.2). Do you **want** to do this?

1	2	3	4	5

4.5.3). Do you feel **comfortable** doing this?

1	2	3	4	5

NB – if the teacher asked you to do something else e.g. a classroom game, homework etc. that you thought was 'very good' or 'very bad', please write it under here, next to **'other'**.

4.6). Other: .....

.....

4.6.1). Do you think it helps you to **improve** your English?

1	2	3	4	5

4.6.2). Do you **want** to do this?

1	2	3	4	5

4.6.3). Do you feel **comfortable** doing this?

1	2	3	4	5

5) Reading/writing/listening/speaking

5.1). Do you feel you there are has been enough time spent on these skills in class?

Reading **Y N** Writing **Y N** Listening **Y N** Speaking **Y N**

5.2). How many hours a week do read outside of class:
Less than 1 hour / 2-4 hrs/ 4-6 hrs/ 6 hrs +.

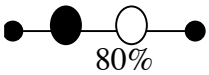
Writing ---------- **Listening**---------- **Speaking** ----------

5.3). Do use the library and resource centre for reading/writing/listening speaking? How?

.....

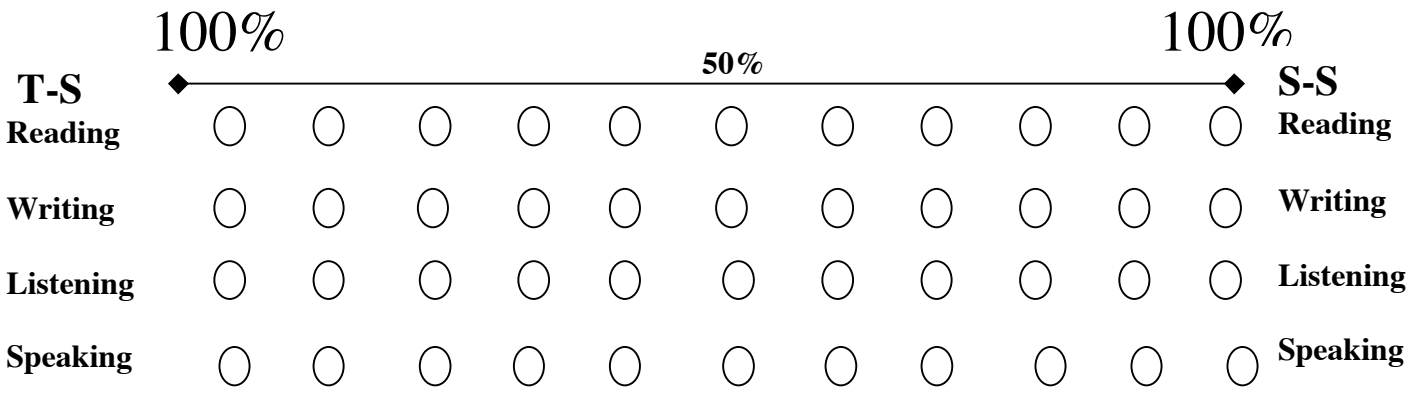
Look at the scale below and colour-in the circle percentage that you think is best for learning these skills.

T-S
reading



means you think the teacher should be working with the students 90% of the class time, to **improve** e.g. reading skills.

5.4). Do your think reading skills improve more when students work together i.e. help each other (**S-S**) or when the teacher works with the students (**T-S**)?



5.5). Do feel more comfortable if the **teacher** works with you or **other students** work with you on each of these skills in the classroom? Why?

.....

5.6). Do you feel more comfortable working alone or with other students for each of these skills, outside of class time? Why?

.....

Thank you very much for filling-out this questionnaire and good luck with your studies.

Reflective journal (Your name)

APPENDIX II

Please make some notes about what you are doing. Consider whether it's **1) Useful and how 2) Enjoyable and/or interesting** and **3) You feel comfortable, (nervous or not nervous)**, doing it. I will ask you later about this points so your notes will help you.

Activity/task name	Description
(Picture) Speculation	You will be shown a series of images linked to Canada and New Zealand. Try to say 1) what they are and 2) with which country they are associated.

***Your notes on (picture) speculation**

Listening activity	You will hear about Canada's economic development. Listen for **two** positive and **two** negative aspects.

***Your notes on the listening activity**

Listen & repeat and drill practice	The teacher will choose some sentences from the text and you will repeat them. After this, the teacher will give you only key words and you will make a sentence or question, using the key words.

***Your notes on listen &repeat and drill practice**

Information gap	You will work in fours. Student A, B, C and D will have different versions of the **same** text. Talk together but don't show each other you sheets. Try to get all the information about why Canada is often called "a vertical society".

***Your notes on the information gap**

Post-reading Q & A	After checking the text in your books, you will be asked to close your books. The teacher will ask you some questions about the text.
***Your notes on post-reading Q&A**	
Dictation & focussed discussion	The teacher will tell you 10 questions – write them down exactly as you hear them, and be careful with spelling. Next, ask an answer these questions in your groups. You can also ask the teacher a few questions.
***Your notes on dictation and focussed discussion**	
Sequencing	You will be shown another text, cut up into paragraphs. Read each paragraph and try to put the text in to the correct order - you must give reasons for your choices in English.
***Your notes on sequencing**	

Game (Quiz)	After checking the text in your books, you will design a quiz - i.e. note down a few questions about the text. The questions should range from easy to difficult. Also, please write a score after each question, according to how difficult it is.
***Your notes on the game**	
1) Debating **2) Problem solving**	In your groups, 2 people will prepare an argument for country A (and against country B), as a choice for travel, and 2 will prepare to argue for country B in the same way. A debate will take place. The other 2 people have to decide on which country they will choose based on the arguments they hear. You will give reasons for your choices.
***Your notes on 1) debating**	
2) problem solving	