

Teaching English Grammar Communicatively in an Indonesian University

**by
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DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis is my own work and has not been submitted previously, in whole or part, in respect of any other academic award.



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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Since 1945 English has been widely used as a means of international communication (see for example McCoy 1988: 1; Abas 1989: 30; Crystal 1997) and as a result, English has come to be seen as the most important foreign language in Indonesia. In 1967 the Government, through the Department of Education and Culture, passed a ministerial decree to introduce English as the prime foreign language in secondary education (year 7 up to year 12) and in higher education (universities and other higher education institutions) (McCoy 1988: 4). Despite such official commitments the level of competence of students in English has not been as high as expected. In fact, Abas (1989: 30) has commented that the ability of graduate students is low and their performance in English is poor. Similarly, Djauhari (1991: 26) states that Indonesian learners have not yet achieved the desired degree of competence in English.

The term “foreign language acquisition” (FLA) is most appropriately applied to the learning of English in Indonesia as English is a language which is mainly learnt in the classroom and has no major role in the surrounding community. This learning context contrasts to acquisition in a second language context in which that same language is used for institutional and social purposes within the surrounding community (Ellis 1994:11-12).

In line with research findings and developing language acquisition theories, English language teaching (ELT) in Indonesia has undergone several changes in methodology over the past three decades. Grammar-translation, direct methods, audio-lingual methods, and contrastive methods have all been used and now teachers are gradually moving towards communicative methods (Nababan 1976: 1 & 5; Subyakto-Nababan 1993: 109). Whilst researchers have made valuable contributions to ELT, dealing with issues such as preferred learning style and preferred teacher behaviour (Thaib 1993: 5 and Pammu 1994: 140) and highlighting some of the most common problems faced by Indonesian learners of English (Syahrial 1993: 6; Syafiah 1993: 3; Pammu 1994: 139-140), further research is needed in order to find more effective means of ELT.

Recent research into ELT and FLA in Indonesia have revealed problems faced by the learners in a number of areas. For example, many studies have highlighted grammatical difficulties. Syafiah (1993: 3) suggests that unmarked forms of verbs, the selection of tenses, and aspectual factors of the present perfect tense need greater attention. Syahrial (1993: 6) also argues that acquisition of grammar is the prime problem of learners. Similarly, McCoy (1988: 10) argues that teaching English tense and aspect to Indonesian learners is a real challenge.

This thesis seeks to make a contribution to the research which is trying to understand the likely causes of problems experienced in teaching and learning English in Indonesia and to investigate how these can be addressed. Nababan (1976: 3) suggests that the unsatisfactory achievement of ELT in higher education mainly results from unclear

objectives in the syllabuses of ELT, a view also supported by Barus (1991: 5). In particular, Nababan argues that unclear objectives lead to difficulty in assessing achievement in the teaching and learning processes. Class size is also problematic in Indonesia. It is not uncommon that a class comprises 40-50 students. Whilst the teacher may wish to encourage the students to be actively involved in the class, practically this can be difficult to achieve. Pammu (1994:133) argues that large classes bring about several negative factors such as the students' discomfort, interactional constraints, difficulty in understanding the teacher, and lack of feedback from the teacher. To solve these problems Barus (1991: 5) and Nababan (1976: 7) point out that there is a need for constructing a suitable syllabus in order to achieve desired goals in ELT. Nababan further suggests that ELT teachers should have access to resources for updating their knowledge and reorientating their methods. For example, a fairly recent study has shown that "communicating about grammar" tasks facilitate a great deal of interaction and suggests that they may promote fast acquisition (Priyana 1994: 99).

Empirical research on ELT and learning in Indonesia has uncovered some of the most common problems experienced by learners, and more importantly, research also has paved the way for solving some problems experienced by Indonesian learners, but more classroom-based research is needed to find more effective ways to deal with FLT in Indonesia. Not only do syllabuses and teaching materials need to be reviewed and reorganised but I would argue new approaches to teaching problematic features of English, such as the tense and aspect system, need to be further researched in order to optimally achieve the objectives of ELT.

The aim of the research reported in this thesis is to investigate how the expression of tense and aspect are acquired during the process of learning English as a foreign language within the classroom. Specifically, the research will compare the level and usage of English tense and aspect forms by two separate groups of students exposed to two different teaching methods. The first of these teaching methods is that currently used within the Diploma of English at an Indonesian university, whereas the second is one that includes activities based on the principles of the communicative approach to language teaching.

The next chapter of the thesis reviews some of the key literature relevant to the research. Following this in Chapter 3 the proposed research methodology is outlined in detail. The data analysis is presented in Chapters 4 - 6. Specifically Chapter 4 provides an analysis of the classroom processes in a selection of the actual language classes for each group. Chapter 5 presents an analysis of the contrasting performance of the groups on the full range of tasks that each group undertook. In Chapter 6 the development and use of English tense and aspect of the students in each group is considered in greater detail focussing specifically on the spoken language production of each group. Finally, in Chapter 7, conclusions are reached about the outcomes of the research, and the implications of these are discussed.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Studies in language acquisition have contributed to theories and approaches to language teaching which may facilitate the process of acquisition. Chapter 2 begins by discussing second language acquisition theory and approaches to language teaching. It moves from behaviourist to innatist theories and considers how some recent studies both in first and second language acquisition have contributed to theory development. In section 2.2. different kinds of knowledge of grammatical rules are discussed, considering how grammatical knowledge may contribute to the ability to use the language, and the distinction between “explicit knowledge” and “implicit knowledge” and how these may affect the acquisition of grammar rules. Section 2.3 deals with the proposed approaches to teaching the grammar of English as a second/foreign language. Section 2.4 deals with studies on the system of English tense and aspect and the developmental sequences of tense and aspect marking in the processes of language acquisition. In section 2.5 communicative language teaching is discussed and some research on the application of this teaching paradigm to the teaching of grammar rules is considered.

2.1. Second Language Acquisition Theory and Approaches to Language Teaching

Behaviourists

First language acquisition studies have made valuable contributions to second language acquisition research. In studying second language acquisition one of the key issues is the extent to which the acquisitional processes in a first language are the same or different from those in a second language (Ellis 1985:5). Up to the end of the 1960s, behaviourist learning theory was very dominant in language learning research (Nababan 1976: 1; Ellis 1985:20; Subyakto-Nababan 1993: 7). Behaviourists (Watson 1924; Skinner 1957) suggest that the acquisitional processes are something analogous to motor skill learning in general. They name the theory “the formation of habits” and argue that learning a language is forming new habits over old habits. These new habits will be formed by responding to stimuli through processes of imitation, repetition, and reinforcement. Behaviourist theory rejects any internal or mental factors as acquisitional contributors. In this era (1960s) several teaching methods such as grammar translation and audio-lingual were widely used (Nababan 1976: 1; Rutherford 1987: 29). Some of the teaching methods still commonly used in Indonesian textbooks for ELT draw on this behaviourist paradigm and focus on drilling. Their objective mainly focuses on forms and lacks function and meaning-based instruction and communicative practice activities.

Innatists

The stimuli which are claimed responsible for enabling acquisition by behaviourists are argued by innatists, such as Chomsky (1968), to only trigger innate mental processes in the brain of the learner. Innatists argue that a human has a “built-in” mechanism for

acquiring a language. Chomsky has termed this a “Language Acquisition Device” (LAD) (Ellis 1985: 12), although others have characterised this rather differently in terms of a set of cognitive operating principles and strategies (see for example Slobin). Innatists argue that these built-in cognitive capacities draw on grammatical competence (a core grammar) with its general principles that can be applied to all languages (Cook 1988: 56) to process the input into output. They claim that these general principles allow any learner to learn other languages. Innatists minimise the contribution of environmental factors in the developmental processes of language acquisition. As a reaction to behaviourist teaching methods, such as the audio-lingual method, the cognitive-code method was developed (Krashen 1982: 132; Subyakato-Nababan 1993: 37). More recently, in line with the emergence of new theoretical developments in language acquisition which placed more emphasis on an interactionist perspective (egs. Pica, 1988; Long, 1985), the communicative context of SLA and psychosocial factors which may impede language development, further new teaching approaches have since emerged, for example, the direct method, the natural approach, total physical response, suggestopedia, and the communicative approach (Nababan 1976: 1; Krashen 1982).

2.2. The Acquisition of Knowledge about Grammatical Rules

A plethora of studies (see for example, Dulay and Burt 1974a,b; Robison 1990; Andersen 1991; Shirai and Korono 1998; Bardovi-Harlig 1999) have suggested language acquisition occurs in stages, but it still remains unclear the precise processes by which aspects of a language are learned and acquired. Bialystok’s linguistic knowledge (1978) and Krashen’s learnt and acquired knowledge (1982) are amongst theories concerning the

nature of language knowledge in the process of SLA discussed in this respect. The main focus of this debate concerns whether or not practice can convert the explicit/learnt linguistic knowledge into implicit/acquired linguistic knowledge. Bialystok argues that explicit/learnt linguistic knowledge which consists of conscious grammatical knowledge can be automatically converted into implicit/acquired linguistic knowledge through practice. Similarly, Lightbown and Pienemann (1993: 718) argue that explicit knowledge learnt through formal instruction can change learners' competence and can facilitate further language acquisition. However, Krashen argues that grammatical rules are acquired in a predicted order and claims that explicit/learnt linguistic knowledge cannot be transferred to implicit/acquired linguistic knowledge by means of practice. He argues that explicit/learnt knowledge can merely be used as a monitor. In this section aspects of these debates will be discussed in detail.

2.2.1. Linguistic Knowledge

Bialystok (1978) divides the knowledge of language use into three kinds of knowledge, namely, "explicit linguistic knowledge", "implicit linguistic knowledge", and "other knowledge". Explicit linguistic knowledge is composed of grammatical knowledge, for instance, knowledge of morphological and syntax rules, together with other forms of linguistic knowledge such as vocabulary items, pronunciation and the ability to consciously articulate these, while implicit linguistic knowledge contains intuitive information about the language and the ability to use the language automatically and spontaneously. Bialystok refers to "other knowledge" as all the information the learner brings, such as the native language, information about the culture associated with the

language and other knowledge of the world. According to Bialystok explicit linguistic knowledge has three functions. First, it functions as a buffer for new information presented in a classroom. This information will then become automatic and transferred to implicit knowledge after continued use. Second, the explicit linguistic knowledge acts as a store for information which is always represented explicitly and the third function is as an “explicit articulatory system”. Bialystok argues that information represented in the implicit linguistic knowledge may be made explicit. For example, by examining the grammar rules which are already unconsciously or implicitly used, the learner will then notice and become aware of the grammar rules in question. Bialystok argues that the implicit linguistic knowledge functions as a working system for most spontaneous comprehension and production tasks.

2.2.2. Acquisition vs Learning

Dulay and Burt (1973; 1974a,b), Bailey, Madden and Krashen (1974), Bloom, Lifter and Hafitz (1980), Dulay and Burt (1973; 1974a,b), Krashen and Terrell (1983: 28), Krashen (1985: 1) and Larsen-Freeman (1976) are amongst those who suggest that grammatical rules are acquired in order. In order to aid the acquisition of these grammatical rules, Krashen (1982: 10; 1985: 1) puts forward five hypotheses (Acquisition-Learning; Natural Order; Monitor; Input; and Affective Filter). Krashen and Terrell (1983) apply the same division in terms of linguistic knowledge. They draw a distinction between “acquisition” and “learning” and claim that “acquisition” and “learning” are separate. “Acquisition” refers to the natural way of developing linguistic ability. This is claimed to be a subconscious process in which formal teaching does not help, while “learning” refers to

formal knowledge of a language and is said to be a conscious process in which formal teaching helps (Krashen and Terrell 1983: 26). They argue that the former is the competence to use the language and the latter is knowing about the language and that “learnt knowledge” can only be used to “monitor” or self-repair. Krashen (1988: 112-118) claims that the monitor is used to correct performance and that such correction will only be likely to occur when enough time is available and when the focus is on appropriate form. He contends that the 'monitor' can correct fairly well with simple rules, but with more complex rules it is not so successful. He divides conscious rules into those which are not yet acquired (referred to as "late acquired") and those which are 'easy' to learn. The easy rules (eg. the passive structure, wh-questions) and the late acquired (eg. third person -s, 's for possessive and past irregular) may aid accuracy and produce L2 which appears better formed in monitored performance, such as in writing and in prepared speech.

Krashen and Terrell (1983: 28) and Krashen (1985: 1) claim that certain structures are likely acquired early and others later in accordance with a 'natural' order. So that grammatical tense and aspects are said to be in a predictable order. The striking issue which Krashen (1985: 6) argues for is the role of comprehensible “input”. He claims that language is acquired by understanding input a little above current degree of competence ($i + 1$). Krashen (1985: 3) argues that the learners have to be “open” to the input so as to deactivate their “affective filter”, a mental block which he claims inhibits the learner fully utilising the comprehensible input for language acquisition.

Bialystok and Krashen to some extent share the same opinions. For example, they argue that grammar rules which are not yet used spontaneously may be represented in the so-called learnt knowledge/explicit linguistic knowledge. All knowledge about the language which is already acquired and spontaneously articulated is represented in the acquired/implicit linguistic knowledge. However, Bialystok argues that information represented in the explicit linguistic knowledge, after continued use, can become automatic and transferred to the implicit linguistic knowledge. She also further claims that other knowledge, for instance, the native language, can and does make a contribution to second language learning. In contrast, Krashen argues that the learnt/explicit linguistic knowledge cannot be transferred to the acquired/implicit linguistic knowledge. This is due to his claim that these kinds of knowledge are separate and discrete. He claims that the former knowledge can only function as a “monitor”.

Bialystok's and Krashen's theories about the acquisition process and different sorts of linguistic knowledge are amongst the theories of language acquisition relevant to the teaching and learning of grammar. However, it could be argued that not only is it important to observe the empirical issues regarding these theories about the process of language acquisition, but it is also worth considering on-going studies of approaches to the teaching of grammar.

2. 3. Teaching and Learning of Second Language Grammar

In its broadest sense “grammar” can be used to mean anything concerning knowledge of a language, and thus to cover all branches of linguistics, including phonology, semantics,

morphology, syntax, and lexis (Fromkin, Rodman, Collin, Blair 1990: 15). In this discussion, however, grammar is used in its narrower definition to refer only to aspects of morphology and syntax.

A number of researchers have investigated the place and means of grammar learning and teaching in SLA. Most important amongst these are theories of teachability (Pienemann 1984), and those associated with consciousness-raising and focus on grammatical forms (egs. Rutherford 1987; Ellis 1995; Sharwood Smith 1981; White et al 1991).

2.3.1. Teachability

Pienemann's "multidimensional model" forms the basis of his teachability hypothesis. This model proposes that language acquisition has two separate dimensions ("developmental" and "variational"). The developmental dimension refers to the sequence of acquisition of certain aspects of a language which cannot be altered by other factors, such as learner and environmental factors, and the variational dimension refers to aspects of a language which are dependent on differences in the learner or the situation (Cook 1993: 93). The multidimensional model attempts to bring these two separate dimensions together. Pienemann (1984: 37; 1989: 55) argues that each developmental stage along the developmental dimension/axis is a prerequisite for the following stages. For example, the $x+2$ stage cannot be acquired before fully acquiring the $x+1$ stage. In other words, the learners only learn when they are developmentally ready. Pienemann (1985: 23) argues that the input in learning a second language should be graded from the simplest structure (x) to more complex structures ($x + _$). According to him grading

should aim to suit the level of current competence of the learners and to follow the natural sequence of predetermined acquisitional developmental stages and that grouping learners to the right stage is needed for the purpose of instruction.

With respect to Pienemann's proposal, in fact, it is difficult to follow his suggestion in many classroom contexts as the basis for grading/grouping of students takes place within broader institutional constraints, including factors such as expected class size, and number of years students have been enrolled in the program in question. Whilst grouping according to stage of development might be the optimal for facilitating language acquisition, it assumes a level of flexibility, specialised knowledge and time commitment to undertake the necessary assessment of students' development, and to then organise the class grouping around their level of development that is rarely able to be achieved practically.

In the case of the particular study being proposed for this research project, the teaching intervention took place in the middle of the semester as part of a larger course conducted as an accredited university award-bearing program. The students had already been grouped according to their course year level, and had been introduced to many aspects of English grammar in ways that did not necessarily involve grading from simplest to more complex structures. The teacher who was involved in the intervention had to work with the approval of the department and using the proscribed syllabus as the prime determiner of the content to be covered.

In addition to these practical constraints, there is also the question of how long such a grouping may be effective. Every learner is likely to progress at relatively different pace. Over time this means that the initial group will no longer reflect a common level of development. Does this mean that regrouping takes place regularly or on an ongoing basis with the associated institutional and organisational issues? In short, there seem to be enormous practical barriers to undertaking the sort of fairly rigid grouping based on acquisitional stage that Pienemann proposes, even if it might be desirable for facilitating SLA. Such an approach also devalues the importance of other aspects of class/group dynamics which may be facilitative of learning such as a supportive, non-threatening environment, and which may be affected if there is a constant movement of students between groups.

2.3.2. Consciousness-raising and Focus on Grammatical Forms

With regard to grammatical acquisition different terminology is used by scholars, although they all share an interest in how classes on aspects of grammatical structure can enhance acquisition. For example, grammatical consciousness-raising is an approach for grammar teaching proposed by Rutherford (1987) and Fotos (1994). This approach is aimed at raising the awareness of learners to enable them to notice the grammatical features of the language being learnt. This awareness is claimed to indirectly facilitate the process of acquisition. In other words, Rutherford (1987: 18) argues that grammatical consciousness-raising is a tool of language learning which attempts to provide the crucial data for the learner's testing of hypotheses and forming generalisations. Rutherford claims that in grammatical consciousness-raising activities the learners will enter into a

new unfamiliar system in the language they are learning. This system is different from that which the learner already knows (eg. their mother tongue and associated general linguistic knowledge). In other words, the role of grammatical consciousness-raising is as “instantiations” of what he terms “familiar to unfamiliar “ learning progression. For example, he points out that all languages have a basic word order that the learners are familiar with. However, each language has a specific order deviation that is unfamiliar to the learners. The grammatical consciousness-raising attempts to aid the learner’s perception of how such deviation is likely to be constrained in the language the learner is learning. Rutherford further claims that grammatical consciousness-raising will bridge the gap between the learner’s prior knowledge of how the major constituents are likely properly ordered for effective communication (the familiar) and the learner’s ignorance of the specific grammatical devices that the language in question requires for the correct ordering (the unfamiliar).

Ellis (1995) proposes that the selection of materials for grammar teaching should be determined by the forms which are not yet used and the forms which are not yet properly used (problematicity). He advocates an approach using “interpretation tasks”, which are designed to manipulate input. The manipulation of input is aimed to make the learners attend to specific grammatical properties. Ellis (1995: 94) points out that interpretation tasks have three goals. The first goal is to enable the learner to identify and comprehend the meanings in a specific grammatical feature. For instance, he argues that the learner may understand that “bottles” indicates the plural form without noticing the “-s” in “I’d like three bottles please”. The second goal is to induce the learner to notice a grammatical feature which they may fail to notice, and the third goal is to encourage the

learner to notice the gap between the way a particular form functions to convey the meaning in the input and how the learner uses the form in communication.

2.3.3. Discussion

Pienemann (1985) argues that the teaching content should start from easy structures and move to complex structures and be graded according to the sequence of developmental stages, whereas Rutherford (1987) claims that grammatical consciousness-raising directs the learner's attention from what they already know to the language-specific information and by doing this they can learn the structure. Similarly, Ellis (1995) proposes his "candidature for instruction" through what he terms "problematicity" where it focuses on forms which are not yet used and are not yet properly used and the focus is on drawing learner's attention to specific grammatical features. In contrast to Pienemann, Ellis and Rutherford do not consider it necessary to group the learners for the purpose of instruction. Both Ellis' interpretation tasks, and Rutherford's grammatical consciousness-raising, attempt to encourage the learner's awareness of language specific properties that they might ignore. Pienemann proposes that the teaching content should be graded from easy structures to complex structures, whereas Rutherford proposes that the teaching content should be graded from general linguistic principles (familiar) to specific grammatical features (unfamiliar). Pienemann argues that for the purpose of instruction the learners should be grouped. He seems to put more emphasis on his hypothesis (x + $\underline{\quad}$) where each stage has as its prerequisite other stages, while Rutherford puts more emphasis on the activities which attempt to make the learners aware of the specific features in the language they are learning and enable them to notice them. Ellis

proposes that the “candidature for instruction” is determined from the grammatical features which are not yet used and the grammatical features which are not yet used correctly, thus the learners’ actual level determines what is focused on. This is very much similar to both Pienemann’s proposal and Rutherford’s. The features which are not used correctly imply that the learner already knows them partially and therefore they are familiar to some extent. Ellis’ grammar teaching activities are mainly meant to enable learners to notice the meanings conveyed by specific grammatical features. In other words, the activities attempt to direct the learners’ awareness among the forms and their functions and the meanings they convey. His proposal is similar to Rutherford’s as he attempts to make the learners aware of the grammatical features which they might ignore in the input. The most important issue discussed in this respect is Ellis’. Besides encouraging the learner to attend to specific grammatical properties Ellis also emphasises the need to encourage the learner to use these specific properties in communication.

2.4. Communicative Language Teaching

Currently, the dominant paradigm in ELT is the communicative approach, an approach that Yelden (1987:87) argues accommodates wider aspects of language teaching in comparison with the more traditional approach, which mainly focuses on linguistic structures and words. Communicative language teaching (CLT) is “an approach to foreign or second language teaching which emphasises that the goal of language learning is COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE” (Richards, Platt and Platt 1992: 65). In other words, the learners should be able to both use the grammatical rules correctly and to be capable of appropriately using them according to sociocultural rules (eg. to know when,

where, and to whom) in everyday situations (Scott 1981:71; Nunan 1988: 25; Dubin and Olshtain 1986: 76). Brumfit (1979: 188) defines a communicative methodology as starting with communication and exercises that challenge students to communicate. Exercises such as information gap activities, role play, simulation, and language games can promote communication (Morrow 1981: 62; Howatt 1984: 279; Johnson 1982: 150-1). Similarly, Morrow (1981: 61) and Nunan (1989: 59) suggest that tasks for the communicative classroom should contain skilled behaviour needed in genuine communicative interaction outside the classroom. In addition, Littlewood (1981: 94) and Dubin and Olshtain 1986: 77) contend that the communicative approach should go along with interpersonal relationships between teacher and learners, and among learners themselves. This relationship is an important factor in language teaching settings. They argue that the teacher should create a comfortable situation in order to lessen learners' tension and barriers and that this will bring about a cooperative and shared attitude and thus facilitate communication.

The next section will deal with practice, communication and the learning of grammar.

2.4.1. Communicative Practice and Grammatical Rules

Within the communicative paradigm a growing level of interest has developed in the place of formal grammar teaching (eg. McKay's "form, function and technique" 1985; Rutherford's "grammatical consciousness raising" 1987; Wood & McLeod's "meaning and form" 1990; Ellis' "interpretation tasks" 1995). One important issue is whether or not and, if so how, to teach grammar in second and foreign language classes (Celce-Murcia

and Hilles 1988: 1). Ur (1988: 4-5) argues that ability to communicate effectively may not be achieved most quickly by means of pure communication practice and claims that learning of grammar is one of the means to thoroughly master the language as a whole. This claim implies that both communicative practice and learning grammatical rules are equally important in the mastery of the language as a whole. Similarly, McKay (1985: xvii) argues that carefully selected functions of grammatical features introduced to a class will encourage learners' communication. Rutherford (1987: 27) also strongly claims that not only is grammatical instruction considered necessary, but it is considered a sufficient condition in achieving successful language learning. Nunan (1989:59) suggests that tasks designed for grammar instruction should encourage students to participate in communicative interaction activities in order to aid the acquisition. Although Krashen and Terrell (1983: 72) strongly argue that the provision of comprehensible input is more valuable in aiding acquisition than grammatical instruction, they, nevertheless, admit that grammar has a role in the second language program as well as being important for future linguists and teachers.

To summarise, proponents of communicative language teaching advocate that the selection and the design of the tasks as well as grammar instruction for grammar teaching should encourage learners to actively participate in communicative interaction activities so as to facilitate acquisition.

In grammar teaching tense and aspect are best understood in conjunction with each other. Tense and aspect are two grammatical features which need to be explained clearly before

proceeding further, so in section 2.5 the relationship between the two features will be further explicated.

2.5. The Learning of the Tense and Aspect in English

Tense and aspect in English are two integrated grammatical features. Richards (1988: 391) for example, claims that sentences in English contain both tense and aspect. In contrast, Shirai and Korono (1999: 246) state a sentence may consists either tense, aspect or both, but regardless of which of these possibilities pertains, these two features are very important in establishing time reference and the way the speaker views a situation. DeCarrico (1986: 665) also suggests that the clarification of tense and aspectual relationships are important to avoid confusion for learners. Research also has suggested that the acquisition of tense is influenced by the acquisition of aspect (see, for examples, Andersen 1991: 306; Bardovi-Harlig and Reynolds 1995: 665).

Research has shown the order of acquisition of English tense/aspect morphology (Dulay and Burt 1974b; Madden, Bailey, and Krashen 1974; Andersen 1991) and has also shown that aspect can either be encoded clearly within a verb or inherently exist within a verb or a predicate. The following section describes the relationship between tenses and aspects in English.

2.5.1. Tense and Aspect in English

Tense and aspect are two main constituents that govern the structure and meaning of a sentence. Tense can be described as "a set of grammatical markings which are used to relate the time of events described in a sentence to the time of the utterance itself."

(Richards 1981: 392). Traditionally, English tense can be grouped into three main tenses; past, present, and future (Hartmann and Stork 1972: 235), a three-way distinction that is also called deitic (Bache 1994: 4). The verb 'play', for example, in "We play tennis in private courts" refers to present time and the verb 'play' in "We played tennis in private courts" refers to past time of tense and 'will play' in "We will play tennis in private courts." refers to future (Andersen 1991: 307). These three sentences can be said to differ in terms of tense.

The term aspect can be described as "ways of viewing the internal temporal constituency of a situation" (Comrie 1976:3). Smith (1983: 480) refers to this as 'viewpoint' aspect. In a general definition, English aspect has been divided in two basic categories, that is, perfective and progressive (Richards, Platt and Platt 1992: 376). For example, "I have read the newspaper.", "I had read the newspaper.", "I will have read the newspaper.", are perfective aspect, whilst "I am reading the newspaper.", "I was reading the newspaper.", and "I will be reading the newspaper.", are progressive or continuous aspect (Hartmann and Stork 1972: 20). In the next section the relationship between tense and aspect and how these operate in English will be discussed in detail.

2.5.2. How Tense and Aspect Operate in English

The tense system provides information dealing with the time of an event and the aspect system provides information dealing with the nature of the event which the verb refers to (Richards 1981: 392). Richards explain that an event, in terms of aspect, may be described as changing, repeated, habitual, or complete. He argues that two sentences may have the same tense but have different grammatical aspect (eg. "Tim worked." and "Tim was working") with the difference between the two sentences being that the non-progressive verb 'worked' in the first sentence refers to a complete event, whilst the progressive verb 'was working' in the second sentence refers to a changing event.

In addition, the choice of progressive aspect and non-progressive aspect is associated with a difference between kinds of situation to which the verb refers - a dynamic or stative situation (Richards 1981). For example, 'ask' and 'believe' are verbs which refer to a dynamic situation and a stative situation respectively (Quirk 1972). As Richards (1981) demonstrates dynamic verbs can be put into the progressive form (eg. I was cleaning the kitchen this morning.) and non-progressive form (eg. I cleaned the kitchen this morning.), whilst stative verbs are usually used in the simple non-progressive only (eg. I know the answer.). For dynamic verbs then, the simple form (non-progressive) is used to describe actions as complete and the progressive form to describe actions as incomplete, changing or developing.

Andersen (1991: 308) has developed a more-detailed analysis of how aspect operates. He argues that in a particular language aspect may be explicitly encoded by means of an auxiliary or inflections - represented in verbal endings, termed by Robison (1995: 345) as

grammatical aspect. For example, "We were playing a tie-breaker when my racket broke." and "We have played tennis since we were nine.", refer to progressive aspect and perfect aspect respectively. However, Andersen argues that such an aspect may not be explicitly encoded. 'Inherent' aspect may exist within the verb or predicate which represents the situation or the event. For example, "We played a great game." is associated with a single event. The aspect is represented by the context, not by the verb played (p. 307).

Vendler (1967: 107-108) has categorised 'inherent' aspect into activity, accomplishment, achievement, and state, in contrast to Quirk's (1972) two main distinctions, dynamic and stative. Andersen (1991) has somewhat different terms for these categories grouping them as state, activity, telic event, and punctual event. He states that activity, telic event, and punctual event are non-stative or dynamic. States (eg. like, want, and hate) have stative inherent aspect with no change over time. Activities (eg. listen, study, and run) have durative inherent aspect thus involve a span of time and do not have a specific endpoint. Telic events such as in "paint a picture" and "build a house" have inherent aspect of activities and inherent aspect of punctual events. In contrast, telic events have inherent duration and endpoint. Whilst punctual events have momentaneous inherent aspect and an endpoint as in "lose something" and "find something", they have no duration (p: 134). Bardovi-Harlig and Reynolds (1995:108-109) term this instantaneous point (a single point). They state that the punctual events may have the beginning and an endpoint as in "The race began." and "The game ended."

Tense involves expression of the concept of the time, specifically the time when the event being discussed took place. For example, the present tense refers to an event that takes place in the present and the past tense refers to an event that took place in the past. This contrasts with aspect that relates to the situations the verb refers to or the inherent aspect (eg. stative or dynamic) the verb possesses. Therefore, it can be argued that the structure or the performance of a sentence is not merely determined by the time when the event occurs, but is also governed by the inherent aspect of the verb. These two factors will govern the whole meaning of the sentence (eg. present or past and repeated or developing event). This leads to an important question, how these two factors are acquired by learners of English.

2.5.3. The Acquisition of Tense and Aspect in English

There have been many studies carried out researching the area of tense and aspect acquisition in the first language (egs. Antinucci and Miller 1976; Bloom, Lifter, and Hafits 1980) and second language (egs. Dulay and Burt 1974b; Bailey, Madden, and Krashen 1974; Andersen 1991; Robison 1995; and Hinkel 1997). One approach has been to research how the morphology of tense and aspect is acquired by non-native speakers of English. Dulay and Burt's findings (1974) suggest that for second language learners acquiring verb morphology, progressive -ing and copula (contractible 's) are acquired first followed by auxiliary, past irregular, past regular and third person singular -s. These findings are supported by other studies which suggest that adult learners' development sequence is similar to that of children learning English as a second language (Bailey, Madden, and Krashen 1974). Similarly, Andersen (1991:318) and Bardovi-Harlig and

Reynolds (1995) have found that learners rarely use past forms in the early stages.

However, Gradman and Hanania's findings (1990) conflict with those of earlier findings in the case of regular past verb (-ed marking) being acquired before copula. In Gradman and Hanania's study regular forms (eg. wanted and selected) and irregular forms (eg. gave and bought) are combined together. They term verb + -ed an easy structure, verb + -s an intermediate structure, with modals being difficult structures. They suggest that copula is acquired after verb + -s and is eventually followed by modals.

The use of tense and the accuracy of using it appear to be influenced by several factors. Levels of proficiency, passage context, and lexical aspectual class are suggested amongst the factors which have influence. Gradman and Hanania (1990) and Robison (1995), for example, have suggested that level of proficiency is related to the accuracy of using tense and aspect. Gradman and Hanania have revealed significant differences in the performance of using verb + -s form for lower levels (Intermediate and Low) and for all levels of proficiency for modals. Similarly, Bardovi-Harlig and Reynolds (1995: 114) argue that levels of proficiency have influence on accuracy of using tenses. Their findings suggest that Level 6 has higher appropriate use of tense than those of lower levels (1-5). Furthermore, Hinkel (1997: 306-307) suggests that passage context might result in the shift in tense usage. His study has demonstrated that students incorrectly used the verbs 'gather' and 'expand' in "2,000 years ago people (1. discover) ____ how to form glass containers. They (2. gather) ____ melted glass on the ends of iron pipes and (3. expand) ____ the glass by blowing through the pipes. (p. 306), His findings indicate that the use of past tense declines significantly in the gaps requiring 'gather' and 'expand'. Hinkel argues that discover is finite, but the interpretation in the process of making glass

containers may be seen by non-native speakers as currently relevant because the process of making glass has hardly changed. Bardovi-Harlig and Reynolds also share the same opinion and argue that the use of tense depends on how the text is constructed. They suggest that “..., if a story is told in chronological order, the pluperfect (past perfect) is unlikely.” and “if all events are reported as sequential there will be no need for the past progressive,”(p. 285). Their study has also demonstrated how some learners use present forms for imaginative episodes which suggest past.

In the acquisition of the aspectual system in English Andersen (1991) and Andersen and Shirai (1994: 135) state that in the early stage verbs (eg. believe and know) are used without inflections, progressive -ing inflection is mainly used with active verbs (egs. drink and eat), past and perfective forms are used with accomplishment and achievement verbs, whilst in the later stages imperfective forms are used with state verbs, progressive imperfective with activity verbs, past perfective with activity and state verbs. Perfective refers to actions completed in the past or in the future (eg. I have seen the book.).

Imperfective refers to continuous or repeated actions in the past, present, or future (eg. It was raining all day) (Hartmann and Stork 1972). Andersen (1991: 319) argues that irregular past inflection is associated by learners with marking inherent aspect rather than with past because it is more relevant to the meaning conveyed by the verb alone than to the time reference. He further argues that the use of third person singular -s inflection is associated with marking time reference for occurrence of event, it is not associated with the meaning of the verb.

Robison (1995) argues that the learners with lower proficiency level associate past marking with punctual events and verb + -ing form is associated with durative and punctual events, and the use of verb + s form is associated with states and durative events. In the higher proficiency levels the use of past marking spread from punctual events to durative events and punctual activities, and the use of verb + ing form strengthens as a marker of lexical aspect. He argues that learners at a lower level associate verb + s and past marking with lexical aspect, whilst for learners at a higher level associate them with tense. The use of verb + s form associates present reference, past marking denotes time reference, and verb + ing form refers to aspect.

Based on the empirical findings in first, second, and foreign language studies, there seems to be a predetermined developmental sequence in the acquisition of the tense and aspect system for native and non-native speakers of English. The findings show that non-past forms are first acquired, followed by past forms (regular and irregular), verb + s form and, subsequently, modals. However, non-native speakers of English, particularly those who learn English as a foreign language, would normally take a considerably longer period of time to acquire the tense and aspect system in English than first language learners of English.

2.5.4. Difficulties in Learning Tense and Aspect in English

Research has highlighted some of the difficulties second language learners experience in learning English tense and aspect. The relationship of the actual time of an event's

occurrence with the speaker, hearer, and other participants, ways of describing and conceptualising external phenomena, different concept of temporal discourse frame, the relationship of tense and aspect, and the relationship of attitude and aspect are amongst difficulties discussed in this respect.

Lakoff (1970) claims that the lack of understanding of the relationship of the actual time of occurrence of events with the involvement of the speaker, hearer, or other participants results in difficulty for non-native speakers of English in acquiring the usage of tenses. Learners need to acquire an understanding of the relationship of temporal aspect (actual time of occurrence of events) and the 'viewpoint' aspect of a speaker, and other participants involved in representing the meanings to be passed on to a hearer in order to be able to use tenses appropriately and to understand the meaning they represent. Lakoff (1970: 846) also argues that other languages have similar distinctive characteristics of tense use and he claims that this brings about difficulty in acquisition for non-native speakers. Guiora (1983: 6-8) suggests that the usage of past tense is regarded as a pervasive problem for Hebrew speaking learners of English to the extent that some learners never succeed. According to him the failure of non-native speakers of English to appropriately use the past tense is associated with the ways of describing and conceptualising external phenomena which he attributes to the difference in concept of time between the first language and the second language being learnt. Guiora argues that not only do learners need a cognitive shift regarding vocabulary, grammar, and syntax, but also to recategorise information in line with the linguistic forms, and thus to assimilate other alternative different ways to describe, conceptualise, and experience events in and around them in order to be able to acquire the usage of tenses in English.

Hinkel (1997: 300-304) recently has investigated the use of past tense by Chinese, Korean, Japanese, and Indonesian learners of English within a contextual frame. His findings suggest that inconsistency of use of the past tense is associated with different concept of temporal discourse frame. He demonstrates how the failure to use the appropriate temporal discourse frame is likely to occur when learners deal with information which holds true to the present time. He claims that such verbs as 'follows', 'pays' and 'makes' in “He said that a good student follows the teacher and pays attention to the important point that the teachers makes.”, are written in the present tense because they are considered to hold true to the present time, even though the first verb has clearly referred to the past event. Hinkel also has found that the other likely causes of inconsistency in the use of frame result from type of verb (eg. stative verbs such as know and be) and context of the passage.

Bardovi-Harlig and Reynolds (1995: 114-116) have identified difficulties dealing with the use of past tense and its relationship to lexical aspect. Their study indicates that non-native learners of English have a strong conception of the present tense when dealing with adverbs of frequency. This strong concept causes the learners to fail to notice contextual cues which are stated in the past tense. Overall, their study has found; a) the use of past tense is low with activity and state verbs as compared with events, b) the use of progressive is high with activity verbs as it probably has to do with the assumption that the action is in progress, c) within the state verbs, the use present tense is very competitive to the use of past tense, d) adverb of frequency has great effect in the choice of tense with correct use of past tense in the environment of adverb of frequency being

low. The rate varies considerable according to the level of proficiency because in higher levels the effect of adverb of frequency is very mild.

Bland (1988: 60-66) has suggested that the use of the present progressive with stative verbs in formal speaking is problematic even for the most advanced students. This is because the meaning they convey, when they are used in the present progressive, is associated with emotion, desire, and attitude. He claims that the use of the present progressive with stative verbs may represent ‘strengthening effect’ as in “I’m hating this weather.”. However, stative verbs combined with present progressive may have a “weakening effect” as in “Are you liking it here?” Based on his study, Bland suggests that the incorrect use of present progressive by ESL learners is due to “... inadequate knowledge of the meaning and the functional range of both the progressive and the simple present”. His findings also suggests that the use of the simple present by learners is to refer to “characterising in general”, whilst the use of the present progressive is to refer to “describing something immediate or specific.”

In summary, contextualised understanding, a communicative approach, and explicit form-based instruction are all claimed to be essential to aid the acquisition of tense and aspect (Bardovi-Harlig and Reynolds 1995; Hinkel 1997). This is discussed further in the next section.

2.5.5. Teaching Approach

Research studies in English tense and aspect have contributed a great deal to teaching approaches. The past tense, present tense, present progressive, present perfect and present perfect progressive are amongst tenses to have been discussed.

Riddle (1986) has researched the teaching of tense and aspect and suggests that in order to obtain good results in the teaching of past tense, activities should be designed to be communicatively and contextually based. She claims that this can contribute to the consistency of use of the present tense and the past tense. Riddle proposes several tasks together with teaching activities regarding the use of these tenses. These include the provision of examples in context from real-life materials (egs. novels, articles from newspapers, dialogue from actual TV programs), drawing on student experience to generate examples of the usage of the tenses, fill-in-the-blank and tense manipulation exercises, role plays, and generating discussion on real-life topics that require contrasting use of past and present tenses (eg. about past experiences, customs, ways of living). Moy (1977: 309) makes similar suggestions for dealing with the contrast between present and present perfect tenses.

Similarly, regarding the use of present progressive, Bland (1988) argues that the teaching materials should be strongly focused on the discourse context in which the progressive is used. To deal with the present progressive, she contrasts the notion of progressive events with non progressive states. Bland proposes that the materials for teaching the progressive should; 1) have a great deal of speaker's perception of meaning, range, and

scope of the progressive, 2) have focus on the function of the progressive extracted from discourse and complement communicative approaches.

“Input enhancement” (Sharwood Smith 1991) is a revised version of the so-called “consciousness-raising” (Sharwood Smith 1981; Rutherford 1987). “Input enhancement” may help learners to sense aspects of the second language (White, Spada, Lightbown and Tanta 1991). Input enhancement focuses on drawing explicit attention toward properties of a language being learnt. They argue that “input enhancement” provides “positive evidence” and “negative evidence”. “Positive evidence” refers to utterances which “give learners unconscious knowledge of what the language allows” and “negative evidence” refers to unacceptable forms in the language being learnt. Although they admit that negative evidence might contribute very little to first language acquisition, they argue that it might be of great benefit in learning unacceptable forms when it is not possible to draw learners’ attention explicitly to formal properties of a language being learnt. This will aid learners to notice the aspects of the target language that may be unnoticed.

Bardovi-Harlig and Reynolds (1995) have enriched “input enhancement” by expanding the tasks with the provision of the use of the past by means of contextualised instances extracted from authentic text. They organise the instruction into “positive evidence”, “focused noticing”, and “beyond positive evidence and focused noticing”. Through the presentation of “positive evidence”, learners will get the idea of how the target language works. The aim of “positive evidence” is to give the examples of activity verbs and state verbs in the past form, so as to provide activity verbs with adverb of frequency and state verbs with tense (eg. “I never saw that man again” and “He looked very clean.”). With

respect to activity verbs, the examples are given in the simple past and the past progressive context. “Focused noticing” aims at drawing learners’ attention to identify the use of each of the tense/aspect forms and the use of the two forms. Learners are assigned to find the corresponding simple past from the past progressive forms. The tasks given to learners are also meant to draw their attention towards the relationship between a lexical aspectual class and tense/aspect morphology by means of contextualised examples of both tense and aspect forms. The task following this is for the class to discuss the difference in meaning of the verbs in question when used in a different tense, such as in the simple past and past progressive. An additional task in “focused noticing” is to emphasise the use of state verbs in the simple past in the environment of an adverb of frequency. “Beyond positive evidence and focused noticing” focuses on the use of past with adverb of frequency. The focus of the instruction is also to draw learners’ attention to the use of activity verbs in the past and the past progressive through extracts of authentic reading passages and a cloze passage. A writing assignment is then designed to deal with the use of the simple past and the past progressive tense set up by means of instructions.

Bardovi-Harlig and Reynolds (1995) argue that when learners have noticed the differences between their first language and the language they are learning through carefully tailored instruction, various sources of authentic text, conversation, and other sources of input (eg. news from radio and television) can provide evidence that the simple past is distributed across aspectual categories.

2.6. Concluding Discussion

The demand of students for grammar instruction is relatively high in the English Department, Universitas Sumatera Utara (State University of North Sumatera), Medan, Indonesia. This results from the average level of students' English competence, which ranges from intermediate to low-advanced. The students in the program have a lot of previous experience in learning languages (eg. native languages, bahasa Indonesia, and English). Furthermore, some of the students are, in fact, English teachers at private English courses and schools. In order to meet the demand of the department and adult learners at tertiary level for enhancing their knowledge of English grammar and their ability to apply this knowledge, I would argue that grammar rules need to be more relevantly and meaningfully taught and learnt. Based on the literature about the acquisition of tense and aspect and the teaching/learning of this aspect of English grammar it appears that this can probably optimally be achieved by using a communicative approach which emphasises focussed 'noticing' and the development of contextualised understanding and of implicit as well as explicit knowledge of English grammar. In the next chapter the research aims and methodology for the study into acquisition of English tense and aspect that has been undertaken in the Indonesian higher education context will be outlined in detail.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN

This chapter deals with the research aims and methodology. It starts by outlining the general and specific aims of the study, and explaining the focus of the study. After this the research design is outlined beginning with an explanation of the two different teaching methods and including discussion of the principal differences between them. Following this the background of the participants and the process of their selection and allocation to the two groups is explained. The next section of the chapter then explains the nature and process of development of the language development assessment tasks used to collect data about the students' use of tense and aspect in English. Finally, the data collection process is discussed as well as the intended approaches to the data analysis.

3.1. Research Aims

The general aim of the research is to investigate the effectiveness of methods of grammar teaching in facilitating the acquisition of English grammar by Indonesian university students. The area of English grammar selected as the focus of this project is tense and aspect, an area where Indonesian students experience considerable difficulty. The main thesis is that grammar will be acquired more effectively if the approach to teaching includes principles from communicative grammar teaching pedagogy.

3.1.1. Specific Aims

The specific aims of the research are:

1. To undertake teaching of tense/aspect using two different approaches, one of which includes principles based on communicative grammar teaching pedagogy.
2. To investigate the extent to which the application of communicative grammar teaching pedagogy to the teaching of tense/aspect in English can facilitate their acquisition in a classroom context.
3. To monitor and document the progress of students in their acquisition of English tense and aspect in the context of classroom processes.
4. To assess the relative impact of these approaches on the understanding and use of tense/aspect by students both during the teaching phase and after the teaching has been completed.
5. To assess the extent to which the teaching method may affect the forms of linguistic knowledge the learner has access to (eg. implicit/acquired vs. explicit/learnt), and thus their performance on different task types.

3.2. Research Design

This study is aimed at investigating the learning of and use of English tense and aspect by adult Indonesian learners enrolled in the second year of the Diploma of English at the University of North Sumatra (USU). In particular, it investigates the extent to which the use of some aspects of a communicative grammar teaching pedagogy may facilitate students' acquisition of English tense and aspect in comparison with the current grammar

teaching method used widely within the university. In addition to investigating the product of students' learning, an important component of the study is an investigation of the language acquisition process over time within the classroom.

A range of data was collected during fieldwork and these data are then analysed. The experimental method (Hatch and Farhady, 1982; Nunan, 1992) was used for collecting data on students' language development over time, with the students being randomly assigned to one of two teaching methods (Current Method (CM) and Alternative Communicative Grammar Method (ACGM)) and tested on four occasions in all (Time 1 = pre-test, Time 2 = mid-test, conducted in the middle of the teaching phase, Time 3 = post-test, immediately following the teaching phase, Time 4 = delayed post-test, four weeks after the conclusion of the teaching phase). With its focus on the performance of two groups of students over time the research design combines both longitudinal and cross-sectional approaches to documenting language development. These data allowed for the effectiveness of current teaching method and classroom processes to be investigated together with the impact of the alternative approach on students' acquisition of English tense and aspect.

In this next section the two teaching methods to which the participants were assigned are described. Subsequent to this the participants are described and the nature of the data elicitation tasks used and the process of data collection are outlined.

3.3. The Two Teaching Methods

The two randomly divided groups were formed into the two class groups of students. Each class group was taught separately for the 'Grammar' subject within their Diploma program over a period of 6 weeks. On average, the students in the diploma would be taking Grammar as one of five subjects in a given semester, and would study the Grammar subject for two 100 minute sessions per week. The teaching was undertaken by the researcher and author of this research based on a planned approach to pedagogy for each method.

3.3.1. Current USU Method (CM) (The Control Condition)

Grammar is one amongst many subjects taught in the English Department in the USU. An analysis was undertaken of the means by which grammar has been presented and taught within the current USU English syllabus. According to the description of the syllabus designed for the department in question, the aims of the teaching of grammar subjects are to enable the students to identify the grammatical rules and to use them correctly. This means that the activities used in the classroom are currently focused on grammatical forms and the usage of grammatical features. Activities focusing on meanings and the use of the grammatical features in real communicative contexts are not the main focus of syllabus. This orientation relates to another distinctive feature of the current curriculum: the division of the teaching of macro English skills (listening and speaking, conversation,

reading, and writing). These subjects are taught separately from the grammar subject and are also handled by different teachers. In the grammar subject within the CM the method of teaching adopted is described below. This is identical to the method normally adopted in grammar subjects within the USU diploma program (thus the title of the method), and involves the following elements:

1. The presentation of specific grammatical features within one or two sentences. This is aimed at focusing the students' attention on the use of these grammatical features isolated from a broader context.
2. The explanation of these grammatical features within their usage. The explanation is aimed at enabling the students to identify the forms and to use them correctly.
3. Grammar exercise. The aim of the exercise is to give the students an opportunity to demonstrate their grammatical competence appropriately.
4. Correction and feedback. The aim of correction and feedback is to help the students to fully understand the usage of grammatical features being learnt, but tasks are not designed to encourage students to engage in communicative practice.

3.3.2. Alternative Communicative Grammar Teaching Method (ACGM) (the Experimental Condition)

In the alternative communicative grammar teaching method (ACGM) planned by the researcher presentation and practice of grammatical features are undertaken in a way which was designed to be compatible with CLT. In particular, the activities, adapted from

Celce-Murcia (1988), present examples of the grammatical features in real-life communicative contexts. These basic stages in teaching were planned to be followed:

1. The presentation of specific grammatical features is extracted from simple paragraphs or conversations. The tasks here are aimed at focusing the students' attention on the use of the grammatical features within their natural context.
2. The explanation of the grammatical features within the usage. This aims at focussing the students' attention on the use of the grammatical features, to make them conscious and aware of the forms and the functions, and more importantly, to understand the meanings they conveyed through their natural context.
3. Grammar exercise. The aim of this exercise is to give the students an opportunity to demonstrate their grammatical competence appropriately.
4. Correction and feedback. The correction and the feedback from the teacher had the same aim as that of the CM.
5. Communicative Practice. The objective of the communicative practice stage is to provide an atmosphere which encourages the students to communicate with their fellow students in small groups or pairs applying the grammatical features being learnt.

In the ACGM correction is planned to be undertaken somewhat differently from in the CM. Correction is made after the grammar exercises. This correction is aimed to ensure that the learners fully understand the grammatical features being learnt and to make the learners aware of the form, function, and the meanings (Ellis 1995). However, correction

is not planned to be made when the learners are engaged in communicative practice, as it would obstruct the flow of communicative activities and would also discourage the learners from communicating due to their mistakes. The ungrammatical features that may occur during communicative practices are only to be put forward, discussed, and corrected when the tasks have been completed.

In recognition of the tensions associated with the researcher's involvement as the teacher for each of the teaching methods, and the potential that this may create for unintended changes in the teaching methods actually adopted, it was decided to include in the research design an independent means of recording and analysing classroom processes and activities. This was achieved by recording 3 classes for each teaching method and undertaking an analysis of these recordings applying Frohlich and Spada's (1995) Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) Scheme to examine the nature of the activities and episodes in the classes in each of the teaching methods.

3.4. Student Participants

The students who participated in the research were all Indonesians and had received their education through the medium of the national lingua franca, Bahasa Indonesia. All the students were enrolled in their third semester of the Department of English's Diploma Program at the Universitas Sumatera Utara (State University of North Sumatra). Prior to their enrolment in the Department of English Diploma Program, the students had studied

English formally for at least six years - three years at Sekolah Menengah Pertama (year 7 - year 9) and another three years at Sekolah Menengah Atas (year 10 - year 12).

The student cohort of 57 was randomly divided into two classes. This division of the cohort was made for the purpose of separation of teaching between the proposed alternative communicative approach (ACGM, the experimental group) and the current approach (CM, control group). Over a period of 6 weeks each class was taught separately by the same teacher using one or the other of these two methods, which have been outlined in the previous section. Altogether each class group participated in data collection tasks involving the use of tense and aspect in English on four separate test occasions. Because of absences from designated classes only 21 of the 57 students completed all tasks at each of the four test times. This group of 21, which comprised 11 students in the experimental group (ACGM) and 10 students in the control group (Current Method) are the focus for the analysis of language acquisition and use in Chapters 5 and 6.

3.5. Language Development Assessment Tasks

Data on the students' use and development of tense and aspect in English were collected through a series of 4 sets of language development assessment tasks (pre-test (Time 1), mid-test (Time 2), post-test (Time 3), and delayed post-test (Time 4)). Each set comprised a number of modules designed to enable students to exhibit different aspects of their productive competence in the use of tense and aspect in both speaking (recorded on

tape) and written activities. Some activities were designed to enable a closer focus on form and explicit/learnt knowledge (eg. discrete point, fill-the-gap tasks) whereas others had a stronger focus on the integrated and spontaneous use of language and, thus, of implicit/acquired knowledge. The tasks were aimed at providing evidence of the level of knowledge of the students of features of tense and aspect and also to obtain data on overall group means and performance

The Language Development Assessment Tasks developed for the research included:

- ❑ discrete point tasks
- ❑ modified cloze task
- ❑ writing task
- ❑ speaking tasks

All tasks and task items were developed prior to the commencement of the data collection phase of the project and were designed to be equivalent in difficulty and format. The allocation of items and tasks to each of the 4 separate sets of assessments was undertaken on a random assignment basis. Details of the process of development and piloting of each of the task types is provided below.

3.5.1. Discrete Point Tasks

The discrete point tasks involved gap filling exercises in individual sentences in sets of ten items with each set requiring choice between two contrasting aspects (and, in one case,

tense); present simple vs present progressive, simple past vs past progressive, present perfect vs present perfect progressive, past perfect vs past progressive, the future (will vs going to), past (habitual - used to) vs simple present. In each sentence a verb is missing and the base verb form is included in brackets. The task requires the student to decide on the appropriate form of the verb in each sentence and write this into the gap.

Put the verb into the correct form, present continuous or present simple.
[Instruction]

Examples: Please don't make so much noise, I ... *am studying*.... (study).
This machine ... *does not work* .. (not/work). It hasn't worked for years.

1.The economic situation (get) worse.

2.Laurence usually(play) badminton, but
today he (play) table tennis.

The intention behind this task was to maximise the opportunity for the learners' attention to be focussed on the choice of the form of the verb. The four sets of discrete point tasks are provided in full in Appendix 3.1.

The performance of learners was analysed statistically using the SPSS package. The assessment of language development for the discrete point tasks was based on the mean scores and standard deviations for each group.

3.5.2. Modified Cloze Task

The modified cloze task was selected to have a strong focus on contexts requiring the present perfect tense. However, the cloze task was open to other tenses and grammatical forms. Each cloze task comprised ten gap filling items within a passage of connected text. Each gap required the student to generate and insert a verb in the appropriate tense/aspect.

Fill in the gaps with the most appropriate words and tenses

Growing Old in America

For years, the elderly were "forgotten" members of American society, but in recent times this has changed. The elderly(1) groups such as the Panthers to represent their rights. These groups (2) America politically, economically and psychologically.

Each version of the cloze task was designed to be roughly equivalent in format and difficulty, and there was random assignment of versions to one of the four test times. The four modified cloze tasks are provided in full in Appendix 3.2.

The scoring of performance of individual learners and groups was based on acceptable tenses and grammatical forms in each modified cloze task. The language development of each group was then based on comparison of the means and standard deviations, using SPSS statistical analysis.

3.5.3. Writing Task

The topics for each of the four versions of the writing task were developed by the researcher, but the students were given a free choice to structure and compose their writings. This task was aimed at investigating the extent of use of the tenses being taught in a context where there was a stronger focus on independent composition and communication in relation to a topic, but where there was some capacity for the student to review what they had written given that the format was not one that required spontaneity and instantaneous production.

The topics for each version of the task were developed to be broadly comparable in their difficulty and focus. The assignment of each topic to one of the four test times was undertaken on a random assignment basis. The four topics were: *Changes to the Environment, Changes in Family Life, Changes in Eating Habits, Changes in Parental Attitudes.*

The performance of learners in writing tasks first was graded by two experts in assessing students using the Australian Second Language Proficiency Ratings (ASLPR) from the English Language Institute of Victoria University of Technology (VU), with the final rating assigned to each piece being the average of the assessed rating of the two interviewers. The ratings obtained from the ASLPR were then analysed by means of SPSS statistical analysis. The assessment of language development for the writing tasks was

based on comparison of the means and standard deviations for group and used in comparing the performance of the two groups (Chapter 5).

3.5.4. Speaking Tasks

The speaking task was divided into a free speaking task and a guided speaking task. It was designed to produce the most spontaneous language from the students in a context where there was relatively little time to focus on the form of the language they were producing and where there was a strong focus on self-expression and communication.

The topics in the speaking tasks were selected from those topics considered to be most familiar to the students. The topics for the free speaking tasks were *My Spare Time Activities*, *My Family*, *My Campus*, and *My Country*, and encouraged use of descriptive and evaluative language. In the free speaking task the performance of the students was entirely dependent on their own capability to interpret the selected topic as no guidance (eg. pictures or key words) was provided. The topics for the guided speaking task were *Reunion*, *Jogging*, *Bank Robbers*, and *Dinner Party* (adapted from Fletcher:1994). In each of these tasks the students were encouraged to generate a narrative guided by a series of pictures.

Each student recorded each speaking task onto an audio cassette. The recordings were also transcribed to enable detailed linguistic analysis (refer to Chapter 6). The language

produced in the speaking tasks was considered to be the most spontaneous, and thus assumed to provide the clearest indication of the students' implicit, unconscious knowledge of English tense and aspect.

The language level in each speaking task for each student was also graded by two ASLPR rating experts from the English Language Institute of Victoria University of Technology (VU) with each being assigned the average rating of the two independent assessments. The derived scores were then analysed by the means and standard deviation using SPSS statistical analysis to compare the performance of the groups (Chapter 5).

3.5.5. Pilot Testing of the Tasks

The Discrete Point task items were largely adapted from various ESL textbook 'fill in the gap' grammar exercises with some items also being developed by the researcher with approval from 2 native speakers of English. Discrete point task items were revised several times and then were pilot tested in an ESL class at Victoria University's ELICOS Centre with students of a comparable level to those in the Diploma in English in Medan. After the first piloting the tasks were revised again, and then tested again this time in an ESL class from a different section of the University (students studying in the first year of a major in English as a second language). After this second piloting only minor corrections such as missing words and incorrect spellings were required.

The Modified Cloze tasks and Guided Speaking tasks were adapted from reputable ESL textbooks. The topics for the Writing and Free Speaking tasks were selected by the researcher and approved by the supervisor.

The Modified Cloze tasks were also tested out twice prior to their use with the USU classes. The first pilot test was administered at VU and the outcomes were discussed with the researcher's supervisor. The discussion was about the possibility of other forms of tenses and alternate grammatical forms used by the participants for the tasks. The approved final Modified Cloze tasks were then tested out in Indonesia.

All four task versions for each of the five task types (Discrete Point tasks, Modified Cloze task, Writing task, Guided and Free Speaking tasks) were assembled, and then randomly assigned to each of the task times (pre-test, mid-test, final-test and post-test) prior to the commencement of the data collection.

3.6. Data Collection

3.6.1. Pre-testing of Students

Prior to any intervention in the teaching program all students in the second year Diploma of English cohort completed the first set of Language Development Assessment Tasks (the pre-test) to assess their level of competence and knowledge in the grammatical features which would be taught.

3.6.2. Data Collection during the Teaching Period

During the teaching period, data were collected both on classroom interactions and processes and on the learning progress of students. Data collection included:

- taping of at least 3 x 90 minutes class sessions for each method over the six weeks period. This taping included taping of communication practice pair work/group work in ACGM.
- administration of the second set the language development assessment tasks halfway through the teaching period (mid-test), including assessment of both oral and written skills.

3.6.3. Post-test of Students

At the conclusion of the teaching period all students were assessed again using the third set of the language development assessment tasks.

Four weeks after the conclusion of the teaching period all students were re-assessed to see whether there had been any differences in retention of learning as a consequence of one or other method using the fourth set of the Language Development Assessment Tasks.

3.7. Data Analysis

Data analysis in the following chapters includes:

- ❑ Detailed analysis of each of the teaching methods both in terms of the planned teaching methods and the actual classroom processes was undertaken using Frohlich and Spada's (1995) Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) Scheme. The findings of this analysis are reported in Chapter 4.
- ❑ Analysis of Language Development Assessment Task Performance of the Students within each teaching method group to determine:
 1. Relative performances on the various types of tasks and activities (Chapter 5).
 2. Acquisition process and the nature of students' second language production in learning English tense and aspect (focussing on the two speaking tasks - Chapter 6).

3. Differences in performance and process in relation to the teaching method (see Chapters 5 and 6).
4. Short term and longer term effects of the two fundamentally different methods in students' mastery of English tense and aspect (Chapters 5 and 6).

There were two stages in the analysis of the performance and language use of the students within each teaching method: the first focussing primarily on quantitative measures and change in these over time and the second focussing more strongly on the nature of students' language production of English tense and aspect.

Language Performance Data Analysis - Stage 1

Standard deviations and means obtained from SPSS statistical analysis across all tasks (discrete point tasks, modified cloze task, writing task, speaking tasks) were used to measure the performance of learners. The performance was analysed from time to time, that is:

- a). from pre-test (T1) to mid-test (T2), T1 to final-test (T3), and from T1 to post-test (T4)
- b). from T2 to T3 and T2 to T 4
- c). from T3 to T4.

with the performance of the two groups being compared. The findings of these analyses are reported in Chapter 5.

Language Performance Data Analysis - Stage 2

The analysis was aimed at examining in a more qualitative way the outcomes of each of the two teaching methods in terms of the nature and quantity of the language produced by the students in each group (reported in Chapter 6). This analysis focuses on how the students use English in spontaneous production and whether and how the groups may have differed from each other in such contexts. It was for this reason the analysis was based on the language produced in the most 'spontaneous' tasks, guided and free speaking.

The analysis focuses on:

- a frequency analysis examining the proportion of attempts of use of different verb phrase (VP) variants over time
- average number of attempts of use of each of the tenses for individual learners over time, and the extent that this usage can be regarded as target-like or acceptable in L2.
- the nature of the non-target like forms produced by the learners.

As this discussion of the process of data analysis has explained the following three chapters (4 - 6) report on the different aspects of analysis of the data collected in this study. Each chapter provides a different window through which the workings and effectiveness of the different teaching methods can be examined.

CHAPTER 4

CLASSROOMS IN ACTION

The Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) Observation Scheme has been developed by Spada and Frohlich (1995) as a framework for recording aspects of classroom practice in order to ascertain the exact nature of classroom activities and evaluate how communicative the language teaching is. In this study comparing student performance and development in relation to two different language teaching methods, the collection and analysis of observations using the COLT framework was undertaken to assist in verifying how and to what extent the teaching approaches differed (see Chapter 3 for more details on the methodology). To gain a clear sense of the format and the structure of classes three lessons were recorded for each method. Each activity in the alternative communicative grammar teaching method (ACGM) and the current method (CM) has been analysed by means of the COLT observation scheme (Spada and Frohlich 1995). After a brief description of the categories used in the COLT analysis this chapter will use Part A of the COLT observation scheme to analyse the three lessons for each of the teaching methods adopted in this study.

4.1. Explanation of the COLT Analysis Framework

A chart is used for documenting classroom activities and episodes (referred to as Part A). This chart consists of seven main categories; *time, activities & episodes, participant*

organisation, content, content control, student modality, and materials (refer to Table 4.1 for an example of the COLT Part A proforma). Time indicates the starting point for each activity and the length of time spent in the activity. Activity & episode indicates all the activities involved in the class during the teaching phase. To be precise, Activity indicates the main topic or content given to the class and episode refers to the follow up of the main topic or content. In much of the description these may also be referred to as sections of the class lesson.

Table 4.1: Example of COLT, Part A Proforma

COLT PART A

Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme

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School Grade(s) Observer

Teacher Lesson (min.) Visit No

Subject Date Page

TIME	ACTIVITIES & EPISODES	PARTICIPANT ORGANISATION						CONTENT						CONTENT CONTROL		STUDENT MODALITY					MATERIALS												
		Class		Group		Indiv.		Manag.		Language			Other topics	Teacher/Text	Student	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Other	Type		Source										
		T-S/C	S-S/C	Choral	Same task	Different tasks	Same task	Different tasks	Procedure	Discipline	Form	Function	Discourse	Socioling.							Narrow	Broad	Teacher/Text	Teacher/Text/Aud.	Text	Minimal	Extended	Audio	Visual	L2-MNS	L2-MB	L2-MBA	Student-made
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	

FIGURE 2.1 COLT Observation scheme: Part A

The remaining four main categories are used to analyse the activities in the class.

Participant organisation refers to the way in which students are organised, with this category being divided into class, group, and individual. For example, if the central activity is determined by the teacher - the interaction with the whole class or with individual students - the activity falls into the sub-category of class under T-S/C, whilst S-S/C indicates student to student/class interaction. Choral indicates that the whole class or groups engage in choral work, repeating a model from the textbook or given by the

teacher. *Same task* under *group* indicates that the members of the groups or pairs work on the *same task* and *different tasks* indicates that the groups/pairs work on different tasks. Similarly, *same task* under *individual* indicates that students work individually on the *same task* and *different task* indicates that they individually work on different tasks.

Content refers to the subject matter/theme of activities. This category is divided into *management*, *language*, and *other topics*. *Management* is divided into *procedure* and *discipline*. The former indicates a procedural directive. For example, “Please have a look at the passages and see how the words are used”. The latter indicates disciplinary expressions in the class such as “be quiet please”. The *content* category dealing with language is split into four sub-categories: *form*, *function*, *discourse*, and *sociolinguistics*. *Form* indicates a focus on grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation etc. *Function* indicates function/communicative acts such as requesting, apologising, and explaining and *discourse* indicates consideration of the way in which sentences are cohesively and sequentially structured in describing a process (e.g.. how to operate a video recorder). *Sociolinguistics* refers to consideration of forms or style used for certain contexts (formal/informal contexts). *Other topics* indicates topics which are used in the class activities and is divided into *narrow* and *broad*. *Narrow* refers to topics which are related the classroom and the students’ immediate environment and experiences (personal information, routine school, family and community topics) whilst *broad* indicates topics beyond the classroom and immediate environment (international events, subject-matter, instruction and imaginary/hypothetical events).

The category of *content control* refers to who selects the topic. *Content control* is divided into *teacher/text*, *teacher/text/student*, and *student*. *Teacher/text* indicates that the topic is determined by the teacher or selected from the textbook and *teacher/text/student* indicates that the topic is decided by teacher and students and/or textbook. *Student* indicates that the topic is determined by the student/s.

Student modality refers to the kinds of skill (e.g. listening, speaking, reading, writing, or other) involved in classroom activities. Activities such as drawing and acting in classroom displays are regarded as *other*.

Finally, *materials* are subcategorised into *type* and *source*. Within *type* texts are classified as *minimal* or *extended*. *Minimal* indicates that the *materials* are selected from written text such as captions, isolated sentences, word lists etc., whereas *extended* indicates that the *materials* are selected from written text such as stories, dialogues, connected sentences, paragraphs etc. For the other two subcategories of *materials*, *Audio* indicates recorded material for listening and *Visual* refers to pictures, cartoons and other pictorial based *materials* which may encompass both *audio* and *visual* (e.g.. video). *Source* of material is divided into *L2-NNS*, *L2-NS*, *L2-NSA*, and *student-made*. *L2-NNS* indicates that the material is specifically designed for second language teaching (e.g. course books, teacher-prepared exercises, material etc). *L2-NS* refers to the material intended for native speakers (e.g. newspapers, magazines, advertisements, brochures, etc.). *L2-NSA* refers to native speaker material which has been adapted for second language purposes (e.g. stories/texts which have been linguistically simplified) and *student-made* refers to *materials* such as stories and reports created by students.

4.2 Planned Differences Between the Two Teaching Methods

In planning the class the researcher had planned to include certain differences in the ways classes were taught.

Table 4.2 Summary of Planned Differences between Methods

	Class No. of Activities	Presentation Phase	Grammar Explanation	Grammar Exercise	Correction/ Feedback	Communicative Practice
CM	4	features presented in isolated sentences	Explanation of features being learnt	Longer	grammar accuracy focus of correction	None
ACGM	5	features presented in contextualised environments	as for CM	Shorter	As for CM	Yes - collaborative requiring communicative practice in pairs

As indicated in the table the main differences were planned to be in the presentation phase, grammar exercise/s and communicative practice.

4.3. Characteristics of the Alternative Communicative Grammar Teaching Method (ACGM)

To provide an independent assessment of the nature of teaching practice with ACGM 3 classes involving teaching of the experimental group were taped. These classes dealt with the teaching of certain tenses and tense/aspect contrasts, specifically the present simple and simple progressive class, the simple past and past progressive class, and the present perfect and present perfect progressive class. Class materials are included in Appendices 4.1 - 4.3.

It was observed that the experimental group's class in each case had five *activities/episodes*:

Presentation

Grammar explanation

Grammar exercise

Correction/feedback

Communicative practice

All activities in the class are analysed by means of the COLT's features and categories in these sections. Except where mentioned all discussion by the teacher was in English.

4.3.1. Present Simple and Simple Progressive Class (Table 4.3)

Presentation

During this activity the *participant organisation* involved the teacher addressing the class with individual students studying the handout provided to the class by the teacher. The teacher directed the students to look at the examples of the present simple and the simple progressive in the handout. The focus in this presentation *activity* was on the grammatical forms and the functions of the tenses being learnt. However, the primary focus was on *form*. The examples of the tenses were given in the extended text type of paragraphs with the tenses being learnt presented in their contextual environments. At the beginning the teacher led the class and interacted with the class, but eventually students worked on their own. Both teacher interaction with the class and individual work was involved, but

COLT PART A AC G M

Grade(s) Semester 1 Year 1
Observer:

Observer.

Lesson (min.) 100 mins.

Visit No.

Page.

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individual work was more involved in the presentation with each student looking at the examples of the present simple and the simple progressive in the handout.

In terms of content, the teacher enacted a *procedure* in asking the students to look at their handout and assigned them to study the underlined words in the excerpt of Marja and Bertrand's conversation (Adamson 1992: 12). The main objective of introducing these examples appears to have been to raise the students' consciousness of the structural form of the tenses being learnt. In the presentation *episode form* was the primary focus. Besides *form*, *function* was also intended to be a focus for the students and this explains why the examples of the tenses being taught were given in the context. The topic being selected from the conversation was a very familiar topic (school activities), which is classified as *narrow*.

In the *content control* only *teacher/text* is marked and is clearly the primary category. The selection of the topic and the content as well as the activity of the class was controlled by the teacher.

In terms of *student modality* three skills were involved in the class. Although the primary focus in the presentation was intended to be reading the handout, some questions were raised by students. There ensued a kind of short, but genuine, communicative practice between teacher and students involving listening and speaking skills. However, the bulk of the time was used by students to read the text tentatively.

The examples of the present simple and simple progressive usage in the presentation are regarded as *extended* as they were given in contextual environments. The source of the *materials* are those specifically designed for second language teaching (Adamson, 1992: 12).

Grammar Explanation

In this episode the whole class worked on the same task. In the *participant organisation* *T-S/C* and *same task* were marked, but the teacher was primarily involved in interacting with the class. In this *episode* the teacher also distributed a handout as a guide for the grammatical rules of the present simple and the present progressive to students. The teacher asked students to look at the handout and asked them to observe and study how the present simple and the simple progressive are used in various different contexts, but in isolated sentences. Individual work was also involved as when the teacher read and explained the examples of the tenses, the students looked at their handouts and read silently.

Function was the primary focus in this grammar explanation *episode*. The teacher explained various usages of the tenses in different contexts with different meanings to the students. The topic being selected from the conversation was a very familiar topic (school activities) and is classified as *narrow*.

The selection of the topic and the content of the grammar explanation as well as the activity of the class was controlled by the teacher.

In *student modality*, listening, and reading are marked indicating that the students were not using productive skills during the grammar explanation *episode*, rather being engaged in comprehension.

Minimal and *L2-NNS* were marked respectively. The examples of the present simple and the simple progressive were given in isolated sentences with the *materials* being specifically designed for second language teaching (Murphy, 1985; Dean, 1993).

Grammar Exercise

Individual work was dominant in the course of the grammar exercise *episode*. The teacher only interacted with the class before the students started to do the exercises. When they had started the exercise they worked on their own until the time for the grammar exercise was up. The task for each student was the same for the grammatical exercise *episode*.

Procedure, *form*, *function*, *narrow* were marked respectively in the *content*. However, *form* was the primary focus. The teacher only directed the class to do the exercise as *procedure* and then left them do the exercise on their own. In the grammar exercise the primary objective was grammatical accuracy - i.e. to get correct answers. *Function* was also involved because one part of the exercise was given in the form of dialogue and the other two parts were given in isolated sentences. These parts were deliberately excluded for the following classes in the ACGM so as to be more relevant to the contextualised examples and to allow the class to have more time later in *communicative practice*

episode. The tasks were selected amongst familiar events that were based on Laura and George's daily activities (Dean 1993:11).

The selection of the task and the content in the grammar exercise was controlled by the teacher.

In the *student modality* reading and writing were the two skills which were equally used during the course of the grammar exercise. Students read carefully the exercises and wrote the answers in the blanks. It should be noted that writing in the grammar exercise only referred to writing the answers in the blanks.

The *materials* were selected from *materials* specifically designed for second language teaching (Dean, 1993).

Correction/Feedback

In the course of the correction/feedback *episode* both students and teacher were equally involved in the class. The activity in the correction/feedback was different from the activity in the grammar exercise. The students were asked one by one to read their answers to the class. The class was asked by the teacher to comment on the answers uttered by their fellow students. The whole class/students commented on the answer instantly. When students could not give the correct answers the teacher then gave the correct answers and explained again to the class until they understood.

Procedure, form, function, narrow were equally involved. The teacher drew the attention of the class (*procedure*) and then had the students one by one read their answer to the class. The correction given by the students and the teacher both covered *form* and *function*. The examples of tenses being learnt dealt with familiar topics.

The content of the task in the correction/feedback *episode* was controlled by teacher.

In the *student modality* three skills were equally involved: reading, listening and speaking. The students were asked one by one to read their answers to the class and other students listened and commented to the class on whether the answers were correct or incorrect. These activities continued for the whole course of the correction/feedback *episode*.

The exercises for the present simple and the simple progressive were given in isolated sentences and in contextualised passages. Therefore, it covered both *minimal* and *extended* text types. The *materials* were selected from *materials* specifically designed for second language teaching (Dean, 1993).

Communicative Practice

In the course of the communicative practice activity students were given more opportunity to take part in the class. Perhaps because it was the first meeting students needed a lot of guidance with their tasks during the course of the communicative practice *episode*. The students were assigned to work in pairs. Interaction between the members of the pairs took place. However, it did not last very long. The teacher then asked the

members of the pairs to take turns to ask their fellow students, then the teacher changed the rules again because this still did not seem to work effectively and he then acted as one of the members of the pair group directing the whole class/students (choral) to respond which they did. The task in the communicative practice for each pair of students' work was the same.

Perhaps because the students within their pair groups were encouraged to actively participate in the communicative activities the class became very noisy and the teacher had to encourage the class to focus on the task (termed *discipline*). The objective of this activity was to encourage the students to use the tenses being taught in the communicative activities and thus enhance their speaking fluency and also to raise their understanding of *functions* within their contexts. The topic selected for the communicative practice was regarded as *narrow* because it was familiar to the students.

In the *content control* only *teacher/text* was marked. The topic in the communicative practice was selected from texts by the teacher and the activity was controlled by teacher.

Listening and speaking skills were used most of the time during the course of the communicative practice. The students were asked to read as well as listen to the instructions from the teacher for the task. When the reading finished and the instruction was understood the students engaged in communicative activities. For the present simple and the simple progressive class the interruptions occurred several times.

Most of the time in the present simple and the simple progressive class was used for presentation, grammar explanation, grammar exercise, and correction and feedback that left only a little time for the communicative practice *episode*. This was because the grammar exercise was a bit too long. More time was needed to do it and also more time was required for the correction and feedback *episode*. Pairs of students did not seem to work effectively and the teacher repeated the instruction and encouraged them in many ways in order for them to actively participate in the communicative practice task.

The tasks for the present simple and the simple progressive class consisted of lists of instructions in sentences and thus have been classified as *minimal*. The *materials* are selected from *materials* specifically designed for second language teaching (Dean, 1993: 136-148).

4.3.2. Simple Past and Past Progressive Class (Table 4.4)

Presentation

During the presentation *activity* the *participant organisation* involved the teacher addressing the class and in order to save time the teacher read the handout to the class and students were asked to look at their handout at the same time. Teacher interaction with the class and individual work were equally involved in the presentation *activity*.

Listening and reading skills were involved for the bulk of the time in the *student modality*. In order to provide more time for the planned later communicative practice *episode* the teacher initiated reading the handout to the class

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Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme

Grade(s) Semester 1 Year 1

Observer:

Lesson (min.) 100 mins.

Visit No

Page

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In the *materials*, *extended* and *L2-NNS* are both marked. The examples of the simple past and past progressive usage in the presentation *activity* were given in contextual environments selected from Fotos, Hopman and Poel (1994: 36).

Grammar Explanation

In the *participant organisation* the activity was mainly led by the teacher - the teacher interacted with the class, read to the class the examples of the simple past and the past progressive and also explained the usage and the meanings they convey. Individual work was also involved.

Function was the language content involved in the grammar explanation *episode*. The teacher started the class by asking students to look at their handout (*procedure*) and assigned them to examine the examples of the simple past and the past progressive. The examples of the simple past and the past were *narrow*. The selection of the topic and the activity of the class was controlled by the teacher. The *student modalities* of listening and reading were equally involved.

The examples of the simple past and the past progressive were *minimal* and selected amongst *materials* specifically designed for second language teaching with the primary purpose of functional differentiation (Dean, 1993: 21; Fotos et al, 1994: 36).

Grammar Exercise

Individual work was the most common form of *participant organisation*. In this episode the teacher was only involved when explaining the procedure to the class. The students worked on their own until the time for the grammar exercise was over.

Form was the primary focus in the grammar exercise. *Function* was also involved. The examples were *extended* and selected amongst familiar events.

The selection of the task and the content of the grammar exercise was controlled solely by the teacher.

Listening was only involved when the teacher addressed the class about the *episode*.

Reading and writing were equally involved. It should be noted that writing in the grammar exercise *episode* only referred to writing the answers in the gap blanks.

The task for the simple past and the past progressive class was reduced to only one exercise in order to provide more time for communicative practice. The type of material was *extended*. The *materials* were selected from material specifically designed for second language teaching (Dean, 1993:23).

Correction/Feedback

T-S/C, *choral* and *same task* are marked. Individual work was not involved. Students and the teacher were equally involved in the simple past and past progressive class. The

whole class/students were asked to provide answers to the exercise and to comment on the answers.

Form is the main focus of language in the correction and feedback. The correction was made by students and the teacher. *Function* was also involved and the topic was *narrow*.

The text was selected by the teacher.

In *student modality* listening, speaking, and reading were equally involved in the class.

These skills were used during the whole course of the correction/feedback *episode*.

The exercise being corrected was *extended* and selected from *materials* specifically designed for second language teaching (Dean, 1993: 23).

Communicative Practice

T-S/C, *S-S/C*, and group with *same task* were marked. Teacher interaction was only involved when addressing the class. Pairs of students working on the *same task* was the primary activity in the communicative practice *episode*. For the simple past and the past progressive students didn't seem to need a lot of guidance with their tasks before and during the course of the communicative practice. The interaction between the members of the pairs went smoothly until the time was up.

Procedure, *discipline*, *function* and *narrow* are marked respectively. The teacher was involved in addressing procedurally during the communicative practice *episode*, that is,

to ask students to work in pairs and to encourage them to actively participate in the communicative activities as the *procedure*. The task in the communicative practice *episode* was to describe routines using the simple past and the past progressive and was adapted from Heaton (1992: 10).

The text and the primary source of the activity were selected and controlled by teacher.

Listening and speaking skills were used most of the time during the course of the communicative practice. Reading was only involved to understand the handout. The task selected for the simple past and the past progressive did encourage students to be involved in communicative activities. Students were actively using the simple past and the past progressive describing routines selected for the task. Students' communicative practice worked effectively and there were hardly any interruptions by the teacher during the course of the communicative practice *episode*. The communicative activities continued to occur until the time was over.

The type of material for the simple past and the past progressive class was *visual*. The material was selected from *materials* specifically designed for second language teaching (Heaton, 1992: 10).

4.3.3. Present Perfect and Present Perfect Progressive Class (Table 4.5)

Presentation

At the beginning of the Presentation *episode* the teacher led the class and interacted with the class, but eventually students worked on their own. Individual student work was mostly involved in relation to *participant organisation*.

Form was the main focus. Students looked at the examples of the present perfect and the present perfect progressive in the story of Vicar Peter Newman adapted from Liz and Soar (1996: 96-97). The main objective was to raise the students' consciousness of the *forms* and *functions* of the tenses being learnt. The topic is *narrow*.

The selection of the topic and the content as well as the activity of the class was controlled by the teacher.

In *content* listening and reading skills were involved, but the bulk of the time was used by students to read the text tentatively. Reading was the primary activity in the *student modality*.

The examples of the present perfect and the present perfect progressive usage were *extended* and selected from material specifically designed for second language teaching (Liz and Soar 1996: 96-97).

Table 4.5: COLT Part A Proforma, Present Perfect/Present Perfect Progressive Class, ACGM

ACGM

COLT PART A

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Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme

School D3 USU

Grade(s) Semester 1 Year 1

Observer

Teacher

Lesson (min.) 100 mins.

Visit No

Subject Pres-Perfect/ Perfect Prog. Date 02/10/96

Page

TIME	ACTIVITIES & EPISODES	PARTICIPANT ORGANISATION						CONTENT								CONTENT CONTROL			STUDENT MODALITY					MATERIALS								
		Class			Group		Indiv.	Manag.		Language				Other topics		Teacher/Text	Teacher/Text/Std.	Student	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Other	Type			Source					
		T→S/C	S→S/C	Choral	Same task	Different tasks	Same task	Different tasks	Procedure	Discipline	Form	Function	Discourse	Socialising	Narrow	Broad	Teacher/Text	Teacher/Text/Std.	Student	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Other	Minimal	Extended	Audio	Visual	L2-MNS	L2-MS	L2-MSA	Student-made
1	2	✓						✓		✓	✓			✓		✓	✓			✓	✓	✓				✓		✓				
12:38	Presentation	✓						✓		✓	✓			✓		✓	✓			✓	✓	✓				✓		✓				
12:47	Grammar Explanation	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓		✓		✓	✓	✓			✓	✓	✓				✓		✓				
01:00	Grammar Exercise	✓						✓		✓	✓			✓		✓	✓			✓	✓	✓				✓		✓				
01:15	Correction/Feedback	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓			✓		✓	✓			✓	✓	✓				✓		✓				
01:32	Communicative Practice	✓						✓		✓	✓			✓		✓	✓			✓	✓	✓				✓		✓				
02:00																																

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Grammar Explanation

The activity was mainly led by the teacher - the teacher interacted with the class, read to the class the examples of the present simple and the simple progressive and explained the usage and the meanings they conveyed. Individual work was involved, that is, when the teacher read and explained the examples of the tenses to the class, at the same time the students looked at their handout and read silently. Each student had the same task.

Function was the main focus in the content. The examples of present perfect and present perfect progressive were introduced in various contexts and the teacher explained the usage with regard to their contexts and the meanings they conveyed. The examples of present perfect and present perfect progressive were *narrow*.

The selection of the topic and content in the grammar explanation *episode* as well as the activity of the class was controlled by the teacher (Dean, 1993: 43).

Speaking was involved when students asked for further explanation about the tenses being learnt and responded to the teacher's explanation. However, listening and reading skills were far more involved in the grammar explanation.

The examples of the present perfect and the present perfect progressive were *minimal* and selected amongst *materials* specifically designed for second language teaching.

Grammar Exercise

Individual work was dominant in the course of the grammar exercise *episode*. The teacher was only involved when addressing the class. Students worked on their own until the time for the grammar exercise was over. Each student was assigned to do the same task.

Form was the primary focus. The teacher directed the class to do the exercise procedurally. The students did the exercise on their own. The topic was William Empson's work experience, adapted from Dean (1993: 47). The examples of the present perfect and the present perfect progressive were *narrow*.

The selection of the task and the content of the grammar exercise were controlled solely by the teacher.

Listening was only involved when the teacher directed the grammar *episode*. Reading and writing skills were equally used during the course of the grammar exercise. It should be noted that writing in the grammar exercise *episode* only referred to writing the answers in the gaps in the contextual exercise.

The task in the grammar exercise for the present perfect and the present perfect progressive consisted of one exercise only. It was *extended* and selected from *materials* specifically designed for second language teaching (Dean, 1993: 47).

Correction/Feedback

In the course of the correction/feedback students and the teacher were equally involved in the class. The activities basically were the same as in the simple past and past progressive class. The students were asked one by one to read their answers to the class. The class was asked by the teacher to comment on the answers uttered by their fellow students. The whole class/students commented on the answers instantly. When all the students could not give the correct answers the teacher then gave the correct answers and explained again to the class until they understood.

Form was the main focus. *Functions* were also exposed through contextual sentences/examples covered. The examples being corrected in the exercise were *narrow*.

The activities and the exercise being corrected in the correction and feedback *episode* was controlled by teacher. For the students listening, speaking, and reading skills were equally involved in the class. The students were asked one by one to read their answers to the class.

The examples in the exercise for the present perfect and present perfect progressive were *extended* and selected from *materials* specifically designed for second language teaching (Dean, 1993: 47).

Communicative Practice

Teacher interaction was only involved when organising the class. Pairs of students working interactively was the primary activity in the communicative practice *episode*. In

the course of the communicative practice students were given more opportunity to be involved in the class. For the present perfect and the present perfect progressive students did not seem to need a lot of guidance with their tasks during the course of the communicative practice. The interaction between the members of pairs did take place smoothly. Each pair was assigned the same task.

Function was the main focus in the content of language. The topic/activities selected for the task in the communicative practice *episode* were *narrow*.

The topic for the task in the communicative practice was selected from texts by the teacher. The primary source of the activity was controlled by the teacher.

Listening and speaking skills were used most the time during the course of the communicative practice. The students were asked to read as well as to listen the instructions from the teacher. The tasks selected for the present perfect and the present perfect progressive did encourage students to be actively involved in communicative activities. Some students were found to have extended their task to their own real activities. Overall, the communicative practice *episode* for the present perfect and the present perfect progressive seemed to work effectively. There were hardly any interruptions by the teacher during the course of the communicative practice *episode* with the communicative activities continuing to occur until the time for the class was over.

The type of material for this class episode was *visual*. The material was selected from *materials* specifically designed for second language teaching (Dean, 1993: 47).

4.4. Characteristics of the Current Method (CM)

To provide an independent assessment of the nature of teaching practice with CM 3 classes of this method in practice with the control group were taped; classes dealing with the present simple and the simple progressive, the simple past and the past progressive, and the present perfect and the present perfect progressive.

The current method classes were planned to include four sections of *activities/episodes* in the class:

- Presentation
- Grammar explanation
- Grammar exercise
- Correction/feedback

The class materials used can be viewed in Appendices 4.4 - 4.6. The activities/episodes are analysed using the COLT observation proforma (Part A).

4.4.1. Present Simple and Simple Progressive Class (Table 4.6)

Presentation

In the *participant organisation T-S/C* and *same task* are marked, but *same* and *individual* were the primary focus. In the presentation the teacher gave a handout to each student.

The teacher directed the students to look at the handout and asked them to observe how the present simple and the simple progressive were used in sentences. Speaking was involved when a student was not sure what to do during this *episode*, but this only occurred once. The teacher was involved in organising the class, but eventually students worked on their own - the students looked at the examples of the tenses being learnt in the handout.

In the *content*, *procedure*, *function*, and *narrow* were marked respectively, whilst *form* was the main focus. The teacher gave the procedural directions asking the students to take a look at their handout and drawing their attention to the underlined present simple and simple progressive forms in the isolated sentences. The objective was to introduce the examples so that the students noticed and raised their consciousness of the structural forms of the tenses. The examples selected were *narrow*.

In the *content control* only *teacher/text* was ticked. The selection of the topic and the *content* as well as the activity of the class were controlled by the teacher.

In the *student modality* only three skills were involved in the class. Although the primary focus of the presentation was to read the handout, a question was raised by a student regarding the answers in the task. There followed a short spontaneous exchange between the student and the teacher when the teacher explained what to do. In relation to that explanation listening and speaking skills were involved, but the bulk of the time was used by students to read the text tentatively.

Table 4.6: COLT Part A Proforma, Present Simple/Simple Progressive Class, CM

COLT PART A

Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme -

D3 US4

Grade(s) Semester 1 Year 1

Lesson (min.) 100 mins.

Date 24/9/96

Visit No.

Page.

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The examples of the present simple and simple progressive usage were *minimal* - given in isolated sentences. The material was selected from *materials* specifically designed for second language teaching (Murphy, 1985: 2 & 4).

Grammar Explanation

In the *participant organisation T-S/C* and *same task* for individual were marked. The teacher distributed a handout to each student and asked the students to look at it. The teacher read the handout to the class and explained the present simple and the simple progressive to the class whilst students looked at their handout and listened so *teacher to class interaction* as well as *individual work* was equally involved at the same time during the course of the presentation *episode*. The students did not raise any questions or demand further explanation regarding the tenses being learnt.

Whilst *procedure, form, function, narrow* are marked respectively under *content*.

Function was the prime focus in this part of the lesson for the class. The teacher started the grammar explanation *episode* by asking students to look at their handout (*procedure*) and assigned them to look at the examples of the present simple and the simple progressive in various different contexts and consider the meanings they conveyed. *Form* was also exposed to the students within the examples of the tenses being learnt. The examples covered various usage of the tenses in different contexts having different meanings. The sentences using the present simple and the simple progressive were *narrow* - they covered a familiar topic, community activities.

In *content control*, the selection of the task and the content for the grammar exercise was controlled by the teacher.

In *student modality* reading and writing skills were involved. These two skills were equally used during the course of grammar exercise. It should be noted that writing in the grammar exercise only referred to writing the answers in the blanks.

In the grammar exercise *episode*, the type of material for the present simple and the present progressive exercises were *minimal* and selected from materials specifically designed for second language teaching (Thomson and Martinet 1980: 8-9 and Dean 1993: 11)

Correction/Feedback

T-S/C, *S-S/C*, *choral* and *same task* are marked in the *participation organisation*. Teacher and students, individual students with the class, and the whole class was equally involved during the course of the correction and feedback. During the course of the correction and feedback *episode* the class was lively. Students used this *episode* as the medium to demonstrate their speaking competence in the present simple and the simple progressive class (e.g., commenting and arguing over their friends' answers). The topic being discussed and corrected in the correction/feedback *episode* was the same as the topic in the grammar exercise *episode*. The students were asked one by one to read their answers to the class. The class was asked by the teacher to comment on the answer uttered by their fellow students. The whole class/students commented on the answer instantly. When

all the students could not give the correct answer the teacher then gave the correct answer and explained again to the class until they understood.

Procedure, form, function, narrow are marked respectively. Each of them was equally involved. The teacher drew the attention of the students and explained what they should do as *procedure* and then had the students one by one read their answer to class. The correction given by the students and the teacher both covered *form* and *function*. The topic of discussion in the correction and feedback was about incorrect answers from the grammar exercise *episode*. The examples of the present simple and the simple progressive selected from familiar contexts were *narrow*.

In *content control* only *teacher/text* is marked. The primary control in the class was led by the teacher and the topic of the activity was also based on the text selected by the teacher.

In *student modality* three skills were involved in the present perfect and the present perfect progressive class. Listening, speaking, and reading were equally involved. Students were asked one by one to read their answers to the class and other students listened and commented to the class whether the answers were correct or incorrect. Students used the correction and feedback *episode* as the medium to demonstrate their speaking ability. They actively commented on their fellow students' answers.

Minimal, and *L2-NNS* are marked in the *materials*. The exercise for the present simple and the simple progressive were given in isolated sentences. The type of text used for the

present simple and the simple progressive class was *minimal* as the exercises only involved isolated sentences. The source of the material was selected from material specifically designed for second language teaching (Thomson and Martinet, 1980: 8-9; Dean, 1993: 11).

4.4.2. Simple Past and Past Progressive (Table 4.7)

Presentation

In the presentation the teacher distributed a handout to each student. The teacher read the sentences using the simple past and the past progressive to the class whilst students looked at their handout. *Teacher to class* interaction as well as *individual* work was equally involved.

Form was the primary focus. The teacher asked the students to look at their handout and assigned them to look at underlined words in the isolated sentences as the *procedure* to begin the class. The examples of the sentences using the tenses being learnt were *narrow*.

In *content control* the selection of the examples of tenses being learnt and the content as well as the activity of the class was determined by the teacher.

In *student modality* the primary skills involved were listening and reading skills. While the teacher read the handout students also tentatively looked at and read the handout silently. There were no questions raised by students.

The examples of the simple past and the past progressive were *minimal*. The source of the *materials* was from materials specifically designed for second language teaching (Dean 1993:21; Fotos 1994: 36).

Grammar Explanation

In *participant organisation* *T-S/C*, and *choral* were equally involved. The teacher read the handout and explained the simple past and the past progressive to the class whilst students looked at their handout. Students did take some part in the grammar explanation *episode* though, as they engaged in communication during the course of this *episode*. The explanation encouraged students to interact with the teacher. Students made contributions to the explanation several times.

Function was the prime focus in the simple past and the past progressive class. The teacher started the grammar explanation by asking students to look at the examples of the simple past and the past progressive with the various different contexts and the meanings they convey. The sentences using the simple past and the past progressive were *narrow*.

In *content* the examples and the content of grammar explanation were solely determined by the teacher.

In *student modality* listening, speaking, and reading skills were involved. Students read the handout silently and listened to the explanation from the teacher. Listening and reading were the primary skills involved.

The examples of the simple past and the past progressive were *minimal*. The content of the grammar explanation *episode* was selected from material specifically designed for second language teaching (Dean 1993:21).

Grammar Exercise

Individual work was dominant during the course of the grammar exercise *episode*. Teacher interaction only occurred in the class before the students started to do the exercises. Individual students worked on their own until the time for the grammar exercise was over. The task for each student was the *same*.

Form was the primary focus in the *content*. The teacher only directed the class to do the exercise and then left them to do the exercise on their own. The exercises for the simple past and the past progressive were *narrow*.

In *content control* the selection of the task and the content of the grammar exercise was controlled by the teacher.

In terms of *student modality* listening, speaking, reading, and writing were involved. However, reading and writing skills were involved most of the time. Listening was only involved when the teacher was addressing the class and when the teacher asked whether the students had finished with their work. Speaking was involved when the students responded to the teacher's remarks. Writing only refers to writing the answers in the blanks.

The exercises for the simple past and the past progressive were *minimal*. The *materials* were selected from *materials* specifically designed for second language teaching (Thomson and Martinet, 1980: 16; Dean, 1993: 23).

Correction/Feedback

T-S/C, S-S/C, choral and *same task* were involved in the participant organisation. In the course of the correction/feedback *episode* both the students and the teacher equally participated. The students used the correction and feedback *episode* as the medium to demonstrate their speaking ability in the simple past and the past progressive class. The students were asked one by one to read their answers to the class. The class was asked to comment on the answers uttered by their fellow students. The whole class/students commented on each answer instantly. When all the students could not give the correct answer the teacher then gave the correct answer and explained again to the class until they understood.

Form was the main focus in the *content*. The examples of the present perfect and the present perfect progressive were *narrow*.

In *content control* the teacher determined the topic of the task.

In *student modality* listening, speaking, and reading were equally involved. Students were very active in the correction and feedback *episode* and used this *episode* as the medium to demonstrate their spoken competence. The students argued that the answer was “stop” and said the teacher was wrong when he dealt with past progressive “stopping”. There

was a lively debate between students and teacher. Students were very active in commenting on their fellow students' answers. These activities continued for the whole course of correction/feedback.

The exercise for the simple past and the past progressive were *minimum*. The source of the *materials* was specifically designed for second language teaching (Thomson and Martinet, 1980: 16; Dean, 1993: 23).

4.4.3. Present Perfect and Present Perfect Progressive Class (Table 4.8)

The present perfect and present perfect progressive class was conducted in very much the same way as the previous classes within CM. The only difference was in the degree of the students' involvement/interaction in commenting on the answers to the exercises and the explanation of tenses being learnt. The procedure, activities, and the main focus of each phase are shown in Table 4.8.

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Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme -

USU D3

Semester 1 Year 1

Observer:

Teacher

Lesson (min.) 100 mins.

Visit No. _____

Subject Pres. Perfect/Pres. Perfect Prog. Date 02/10/96

Page.

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4.5. Conclusions

In many respects the two teaching methods were similar. There was a strong focus on the presentation and explanation of specific grammatical features in each of the classes analysed for each of the groups. In comparing the COLT analysis for both methods, it is clear that throughout there was a strong element of teacher control and direction in each. However, teaching in the current method was even more strongly teacher controlled and directed than the alternative communicative grammar method. In addition, there were small differences in relation to the text types, with the ACGM using some materials that used *extended* text types, and in *content* with *function* being more frequently part of the content for the ACGM than for the CM.

The main distinctive difference between the groups was the inclusion of the 'Communicative Practice' activities for the ACGM. This activity did not work particularly well in the first class analysed (see 4.3.1.) when the students were learning what was expected and the teacher had to intervene to demonstrate what was expected, but it was then more successful and led to spontaneous student to student interaction in the remaining two classes analysed (see 4.3.2. and 4.3.3.).

The Communicative Practice section of the class for the experimental ACGM group did facilitate communicative interactions between the students in that group. In particular, the visual tasks - routines and repairing an old house - selected for the simple past and the past progressive and the present perfect and present perfect progressive classes worked very well. In the present perfect and present perfect progressive class students extended

the task with their own real activities. Students actively interacted with their fellow students in their pair work during the course of this communicative practice episode and did not need a lot of assistance. However, in the task - whether or not to sack Mr Smith - for the present simple and present progressive class there were a lot of interruptions during the course of the communicative practice. Students needed a lot of help to work on the task. The communicative practice did not last very long. This might have to do with the instructions of the task or the task itself was too difficult. The teacher was involved several times in providing assistance for students to work on the task. Visual tasks seemed to be understood more easily by the students than written language-based instructions.

The alternative communicative grammar method did provide communicative activities where learners were given freedom to express their individuality in their responses within the activities. Nevertheless, the situations were artificial and the tasks were designed to focus on specific forms (tenses) to be mastered for productive use. In reflecting and reporting and what took place in the ACGM classes it is clear that what have been called 'communicative activities' did not fully conform to criteria for communicative language teaching (Littlewood 1981; Nunan 1989). In fact, what occurred are probably better described as 'pre-communicative' activities. This is because the tasks still focused very much on linguistic knowledge (tenses/aspects being learnt), and thus were primarily a means to provide an opportunity to train students with the linguistic knowledge that could be applied in later real communication outside the classroom. Even if understood in these terms the communicative practice activities undertaken in the ACGM by the experimental group represent a significant departure from the approach to teaching

grammar which was employed for the control group and which is in the current method (CM) used at this university.

An interesting observation to emerge from the COLT analysis is how the teacher unconsciously sought to encourage more spontaneous interaction within the class. He unconsciously extended the grammar explanation and the correction/feedback episodes by encouraging students to get involved in making comments and providing explanations. This was particularly noticeable for the CM group where the pressure of time in these episodes was not as great. As a result, CM students were involved in more spontaneous communication several times, and they made the most of their opportunity in grammar explanation and correction and feedback to develop their spoken competence. For the control group, the correction and feedback episode, in particular, took a longer period of time than for the experimental group. These spontaneous exchanges provided an alternative means for CM students to gain real-life communicative practice, but such opportunities were relatively restricted in terms of the number of students involved. The pair work undertaken by the ACGM group in the communicative practice activities provided a lengthier and more systematic opportunity for all students in the class to engage in meaningful exchanges in English.

CHAPTER 5

STUDENT PERFORMANCE WITH DIFFERENT TEACHING METHODS

An important aim of the research is to investigate whether and how the teaching methods have affected the performance of students on a range of tasks. As explained in Chapter 3 the tasks differ in terms of the level of explicit focus on grammatical constructions and the extent to which the language use being required is contextualised and spontaneous. In this chapter the performance of the two groups - the experimental group who were taught the grammar subject within their diploma course over 6 weeks using the Alternative Communicative Grammar Method and the control group who were taught the same topics in the same subject with the current method normally adopted at USU - is compared. In section 5.1 the achievements of each group are compared over the course of the research using means and standard deviations for each group at each of the four data collection times. In section 5.2 the extent of significant change in performance over time for each group is then examined and compared.

5.1 Differences in Achievement of the Experimental Group and the Control Group

This section describes the difference in terms of achievement between the experimental group and the control group. The analysis regarding the differences in their achievements are based on the results obtained from **discrete point tasks**, **cloze task**, **writing task**, and **speaking tasks** from the beginning of the teaching phase (T1), the middle of the teaching phase (T2) to the end of the teaching phase (T3) and four weeks after the teaching phase

(T4). The analysis on discrete point tasks was based on students’ performance obtained from a series of exercises dealing with present tense (simple, progressive, perfective and perfective progressive), past tense (simple, progressive, perfective and perfective progressive), future tense (will and going to), and past and present habitual aspect (used to and present simple). The analysis of cloze task performance is based on students’ performance in terms of use of the correct main verb, acceptable main verb, and alternative acceptable grammatical form as well as the total of acceptable usage. The analysis on speaking tasks performance was based on the rating of students’ performance in a free speaking and a guided speaking task.

5.1.1 Discrete Point Tasks

This section describes the performance of students on six kinds of contrasts involving aspect within specific tenses, and habitual aspect in past and present tenses. The performance of the experimental group and the control group is analysed using the mean scores and standard deviations obtained at each time for the given tasks. The scores for each individual are based on whether or not they have used the target form correctly. The comparison of differences regarding their performance is depicted both in tables and in the format of line graphs.

a. Present Tense (Simple and Progressive)

The mean scores for each group on the discrete point task dealing with simple vs progressive in present tense (see Table 5.1 and Fig. 5.1) indicate that the two groups performed virtually identically on the pre-test (T1). Overall the improvement in means

for the control group is more rapid than for the experimental group, which only shows an increase in mean from immediate post-test (T3) onwards. There are significant differences between the means of the two groups at T2 and T3, with performance of the control group being superior. The distribution of scores as indicated by the standard deviation is not completely comparable in the two groups. In particular, the scores for the control group are less dispersed than those of the experimental group at each time. However, the extent of dispersion in the experimental group also decreases over time, although not as much as that of the control group.

Table 5.1: Means and standard deviations for discrete point tasks - simple vs progressive in present tense

Test	Time 1		Time 2		Time 3		Time 4	
Group	x	SD	x	SD	x	SD	x	SD
Experimental	7.46	1.64	7.46	1.51	8.09	1.38	8.73	0.79
Control	7.40	1.43	8.90	0.88	9.10	0.57	9.10	0.10

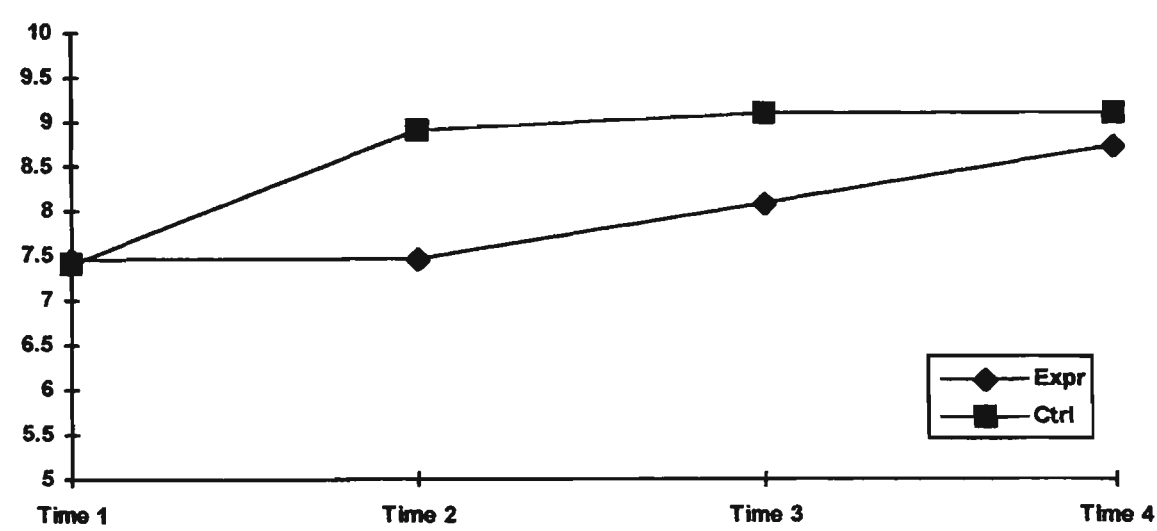


Fig. 5.1: Means for each group over time - simple vs progressive in present tense

There is no difference initially between the groups but the control group performs significantly better during the teaching phase (T2 and T3). However, the experimental group’s performance continues to improve after the teaching phase so that by 4 weeks after teaching the experimental group has almost caught up to the control group which has plateaued. Performance by the control group directly during the teaching phase is more consistent and better than for the experimental group.

b. Simple vs Progressive in Past Tense

As depicted in Table 5.2 and Fig. 5.2, both groups performed similarly on the pre-test (T1). The improvement in means for the experimental group is more salient than for the control group in the middle of the teaching phase (T2) with the control group actually having a marginally lower mean than it had at T1. However, the mean score for the experimental group has decreased by the end of the teaching phase (T3), while the mean score for the control group increases marginally by T3 and more substantially by T4. However, there are no significant differences at any of the times in terms of mean scores. The distribution of the scores in the two groups as shown by the standard deviation, is broadly comparable, although at T4 the experimental group’s scores are more dispersed. Whilst there is no significant difference between groups at any time by T4 the control group has a substantially higher mean and lower dispersion than the experimental group.

Table 5.2: Means and standard deviations for discrete point tasks - simple vs progressive in past tense

Test	Time 1		Time 2		Time 3		Time 4	
Group	x	SD	x	SD	x	SD	X	SD
Experimental	8.09	2.12	8.73	1.95	8.00	1.00	8.18	1.89
Control	8.10	2.28	8.00	2.00	8.20	1.40	9.10	1.10

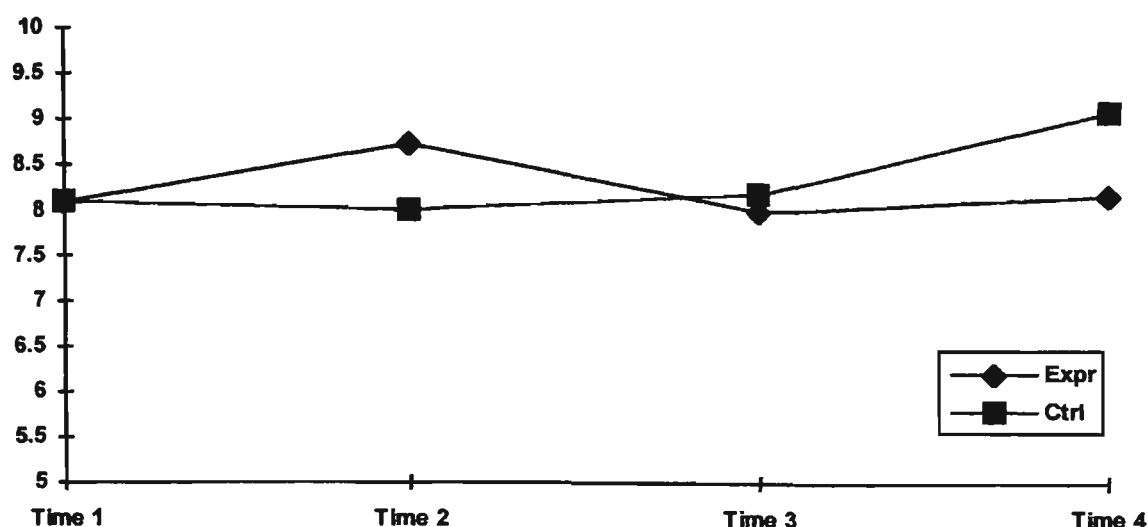


Fig. 5.2: Means for each group over time - simple vs progressive in past tense

In summary, at the beginning of the teaching phase (T1), there is almost no difference in means for both groups. The control group continues to improve from the middle of the teaching phase until the end of T4 and overall the improvement in means for the control group is greater than for the experimental group, although the difference is not statistically significant.

c. Discrete Point Tasks - Present Tense, Perfective vs Perfective Progressive

The experimental group performs better than the control group before the teaching phase (T1)(see Table 5.3 and Fig. 5.3), although there are no significant differences between the two groups at any of the times. Overall, the improvement in means for the experimental group is more steady than for the control group with the mean scores for the control group fluctuating over time. The standard deviation indicates that the distribution of scores within each group is broadly comparable. The scores for the experimental group

are less dispersed than those of the control group until T3. However, the dispersion for the control group, although it fluctuates, decreases over time.

Table 5.3: Means and standard deviation for discrete point tasks - present tense, perfective vs perfective progressive

Test	Time 1		Time 2		Time 3		Time 4	
Group	x	SD	X	SD	x	SD	x	SD
Experimental	6.46	1.97	7.56	1.21	7.27	1.34	7.56	2.02
Control	5.70	2.31	8.20	1.32	6.10	1.73	7.70	1.77

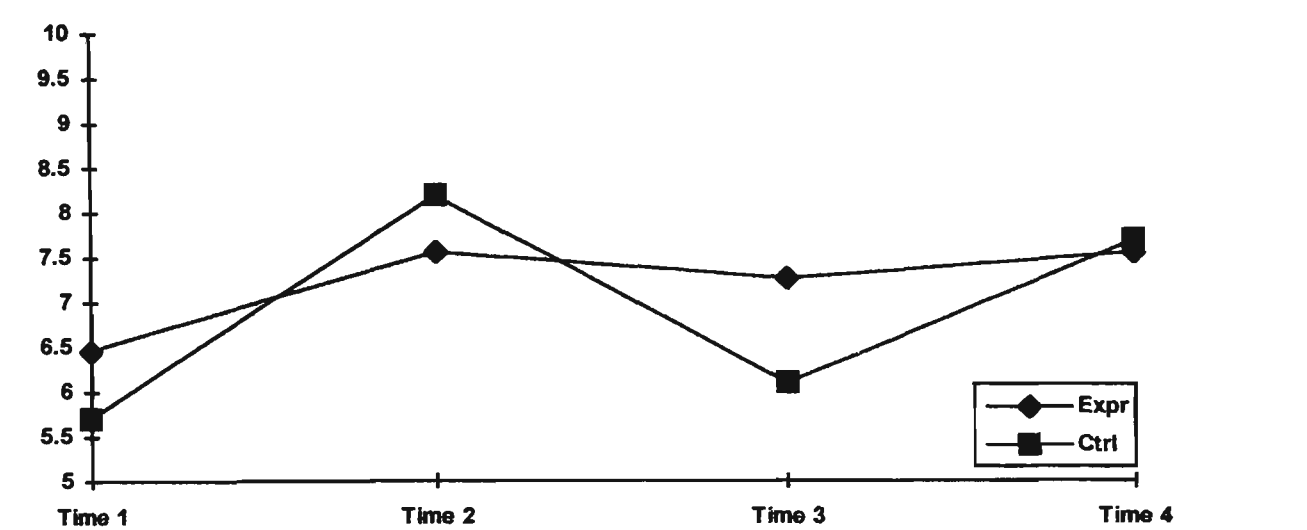


Fig. 5.3: Means for each group over time - present tense, perfective vs perfective progressive

The experimental group has a steadily improving performance over time (T1-T4), whilst the control group experiences considerable greater fluctuation in means. However, between T1 and T4 the control group has made a more marked improvement in means than the experimental group.

d. Past Tense - Perfective vs Progressive

The figures for mean scores for both groups on the discrete point task dealing with past perfect indicate that the two groups perform virtually identically at T1. As Table 5.4 and

Fig. 5.4 indicate, the fluctuations and overall improvement in means for the control group and the experimental group are almost the same over time and there is no significant difference in means between the two groups scores at any of the times. The figures for standard deviation indicate that the scores for the experimental group overall tend to be less dispersed than those of the control group, with the exception of mid-test (T2). The extent of dispersion, however, drops for both groups from T1 to T4.

There is hardly any difference initially in performance between the control group and the experimental group. Both groups continue to improve from the beginning of the teaching phase until the end of the teaching phase (T1-T3), but there is a considerable decline in means for the two groups on the delayed post-test (T4).

Table 5.4: Means and standard deviations for discrete point tasks - past tense, perfective vs progressive

Test	Time 1		Time 2		Time 3		Time 4	
Group	x	SD	X	SD	x	SD	x	SD
Experimental	7.27	2.10	7.55	1.75	8.91	1.14	7.82	1.17
Control	7.10	2.56	7.80	0.92	9.10	1.20	7.40	1.71

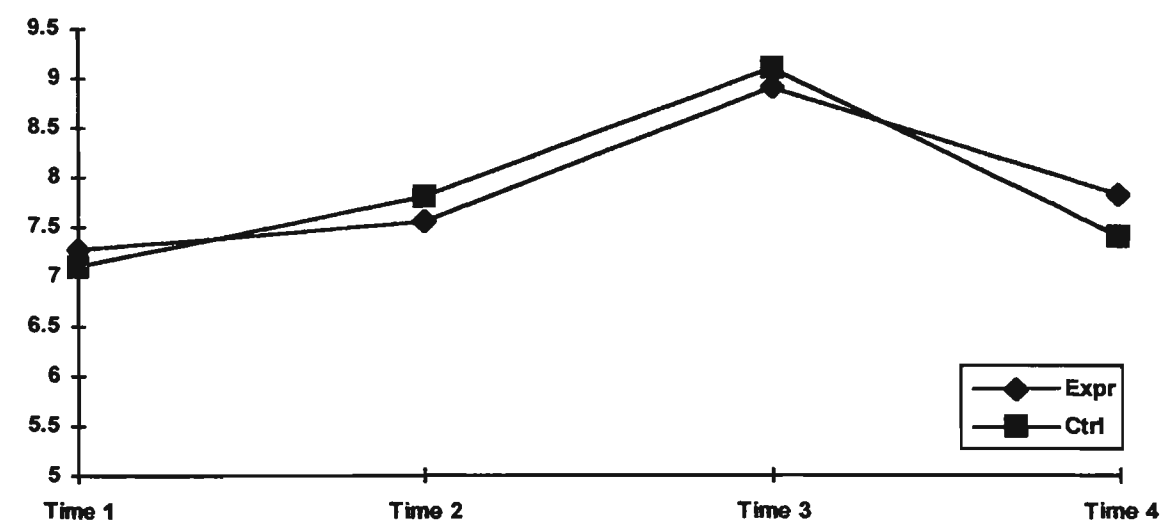


Fig. 5.4: Means for each group over time - past tense, perfective vs progressive

e. Future Tense

The means for both groups on the discrete point task regarding future tenses indicate that the control and experimental groups performed identically at T1 (see Table 5.5 and Fig. 5.5). Overall, the improvement in mean for the control group is faster than for the experimental group. However, there are no significant differences in the means of the two groups at any of the times, although the largest difference is at T2. The standard deviation shows that the distribution of scores for the control group is more dispersed than those of the experimental group at T1, but the standard deviation for this group steadily decreases over time in contrast to the experimental group.

Table 5.5: Means and standard deviations for discrete point tasks - future tense

Test	Time 1		Time 2		Time 3		Time 4	
Group	x	SD	x	SD	X	SD	x	SD
Experimental	6.55	1.81	6.18	2.40	8.00	1.79	7.82	1.89
Control	6.60	2.37	7.80	1.55	8.20	1.48	8.70	1.25

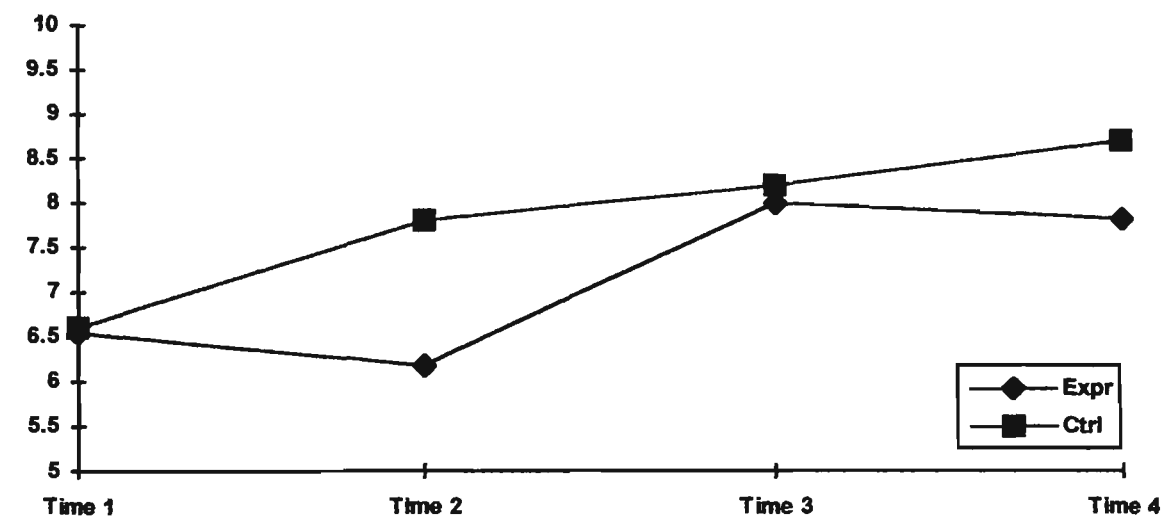


Fig. 5.5: Means for each group over time - future tense

There is no difference initially between the two groups, but the control group's performance improves steadily right through until the delayed post-test (T4). The experimental group regresses twice so that in the middle of the teaching phase (T2) and by four weeks after the teaching phase (T4), the control group's performance is superior to that of the experimental group.

f. Habitual - Past vs Present

The mean scores on the discrete point task on past and present indicate that the control group performed better at Time 1 with there being a significant difference between the mean scores. However, the mean scores for the control group then drop back from T2 and it performs virtually identically to the experimental group at T2. The mean scores for each group continue to increase from T3 to T4. Yet, there are no significant differences in means for the two groups other than T1. Overall, the improvement in means for the experimental group is quite considerable over time and the means increase more steadily than for the control group. The figures for standard deviation show that the distribution of scores within the control group is less dispersed than that of the experimental group, although the difference is less marked at T4 than at T1.

Table 5.6: Means and standard deviations for discrete point tasks - Habitual - Past vs Present

Test	Time 1		Time 2		Time 3		Time 4	
Group	x	SD	x	SD	x	SD	X	SD
Experimental	5.36	2.98	5.82	2.99	7.64	2.98	9.00	1.90
Control	7.60	1.43	5.90	2.23	7.90	2.13	8.30	1.49

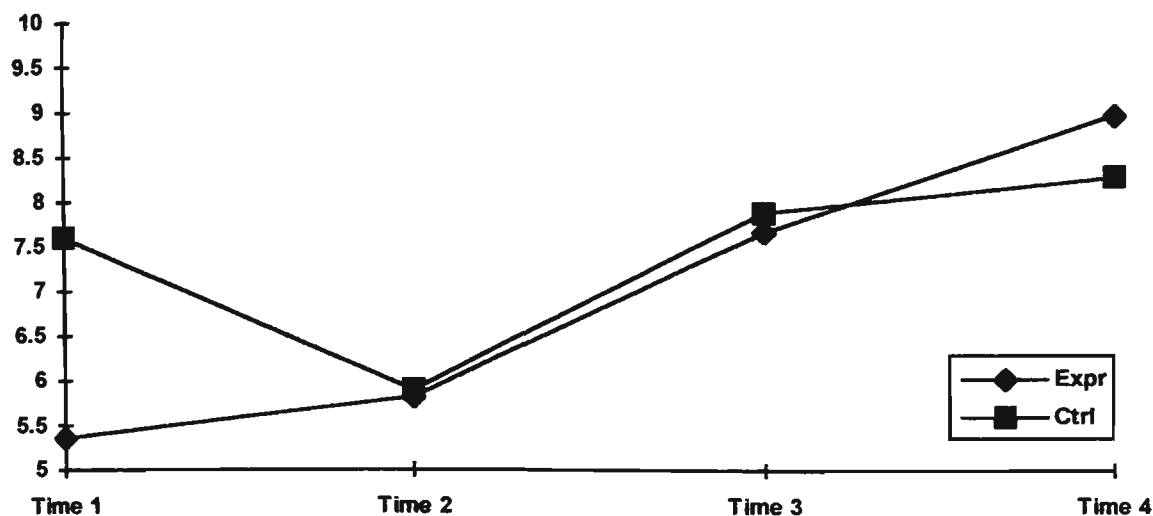


Fig. 5.6 Means for each group over time - Habitual - Past vs Present

To sum up, initially, there is a significant difference in performance between the two groups with the control group performing better than the experimental group on the pre-test (T1). However, there is a decline in the performance of the control group so that the two groups perform virtually identically in the middle and at the end of the teaching phase (T2 & T3). Both groups continue to improve, but the experimental group makes greater progress than the control group from T3 to T4.

5.1.2. Cloze Task

The performance of students on the cloze tasks is based on the answers put in the blanks and is analysed in terms of three main categories of responses: **correct main verb** (the target-like intended verb as per the original passage), **acceptable main verb**, and **alternative correct grammatical form**. **Acceptable main verb** means a different main verb has been used but in terms of the meaning it still remains acceptable within the

passage, whilst **alternative correct grammatical form** refers to an answer using another grammatical form, which is nevertheless acceptable in terms of the meaning within the context. By means of these three categories the results are compared at each of the times to see the differences in the performance of the two groups. The total of these score (effectively all usage that is acceptable in the contexts) is also considered.

The scores of the students on the cloze task were consistently low. Most students found this task extremely difficult and the level of acceptable usage of any type was very low.

a. Correct Main Verb

Very few students in each group successfully completed any correct main verbs. The mean scores on the cloze task for correct use of main verb indicate that the control group performs slightly better than the experimental group initially (T1) and the control group continues to perform better in the middle of the teaching phase (T2) (see Table 5.7 and Fig. 5.7). The performance of both groups declines during the teaching phase (to T3). The performance of the two groups improves marginally by four weeks after the teaching phase (T4). However, there is no significant difference in mean at any of the times. The distribution of scores for the experimental group is less dispersed most of the times and the extent of the dispersion tends to decrease over time.

Table 5.7: Means and standard deviations for cloze tasks - correct main verb

Test	Time 1		Time 2		Time 3		Time 4	
Group	x	SD	x	SD	x	SD	x	SD
Experimental	0.36	0.51	0.27	0.65	0.18	0.41	0.27	0.47
Control	0.70	0.82	0.60	0.70	0.10	0.32	0.40	0.52

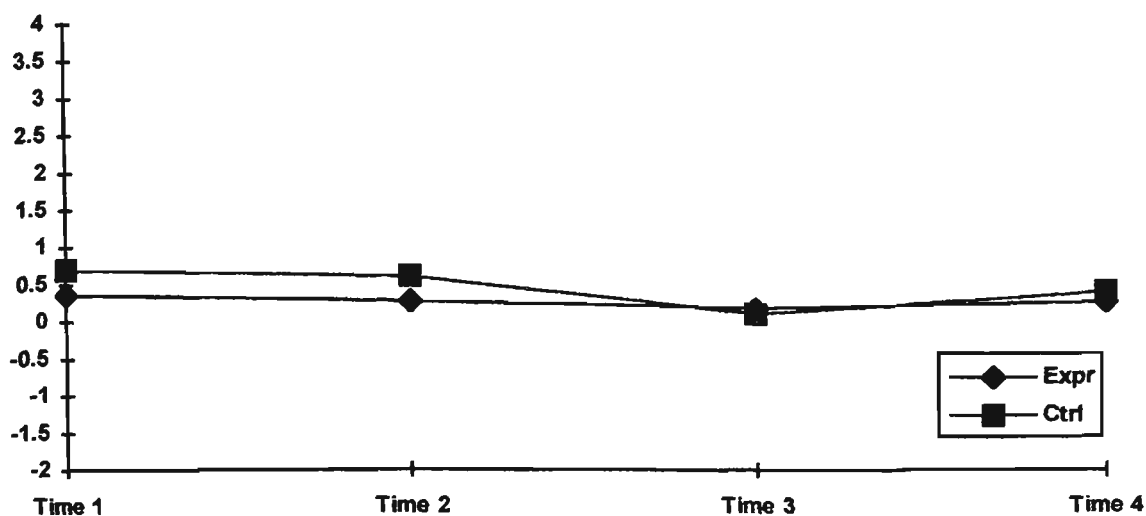


Fig. 5.7 Means for each group over time - correct main verb

b. Acceptable Main Verb

As shown in Table 5.8 (also Fig. 5.8), the means for the cloze task in terms of correct use of an acceptable main verb show that initially the control group has better performance than the experimental group. The level of acceptable usage for both groups is very low, however, there is a significant difference in means between the scores of the two groups on the pre-test (T1). The control group continues to have better performance on the mid-test (T2), whilst the experimental group has a small but steady improvement and continues to improve during the teaching phase (T1 - T3) so that at T3 and by four weeks after the teaching phase (T4) the experimental group performs better than the control group. The distribution of scores for the experimental group becomes more dispersed over time but not as much as that of the control group.

Table 5.8: Means and standard deviations for cloze tasks - acceptable main verb

Test	Time 1		Time 2		Time 3		Time 4	
Group	x	SD	x	SD	x	SD	x	SD
Experimental	0.09	0.30	0.18	0.41	0.27	0.47	0.55	0.52
Control	0.60	0.52	0.40	0.52	0.20	0.63	0.40	0.52

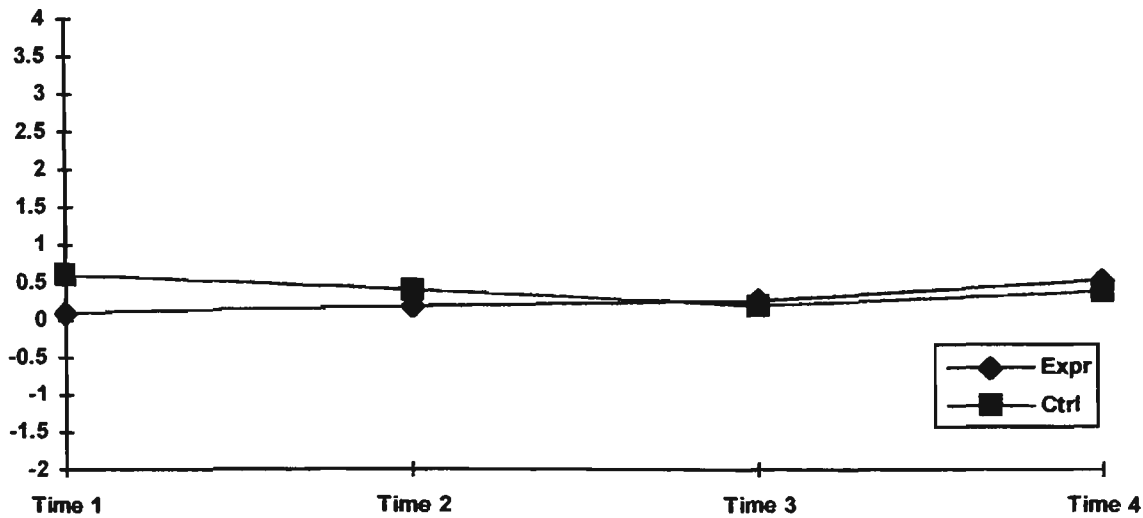


Fig. 5.8 Means for each group over time - acceptable main verb

There is a difference in performance between the two groups initially. However, the performance of the experimental group tends to steadily increase by small degrees over time and the distribution of scores for the experimental group is less dispersed than that of the control group.

c. Alternative Acceptable Grammatical Form

The performance of each group fluctuates somewhat over time and each has a low overall mean. The means for each group on alternative acceptable grammatical form (refer Table 5.9 and Fig. 5.9) indicate that initially the control group performs better than the experimental group. The performance of the two groups declines on the mid-test, but

the performance of the control group still remains better than the performance of the experimental group. Both groups improve slightly on the post-test (T3), however the improvement of the experimental group is a little greater than the improvement of the control group. By four weeks after the teaching phase the performance of the control group declines, but not as much as that of the experimental group. The distribution of scores for the experimental group is less dispersed than that of the control group over time. The extent of the dispersion decreases over time for the control group, whilst for the control group the extent increases over time. None of the differences between the groups are statistically significant.

Table 5.9: Means and standard deviations for cloze tasks - alternative acceptable grammatical form

Test	Time 1		Time 2		Time 3		Time 4	
Group	x	SD	x	SD	x	SD	x	SD
Experimental	0.36	0.67	0.18	0.41	0.82	0.41	0.09	0.30
Control	0.80	0.92	0.40	0.52	0.60	0.52	0.40	0.97

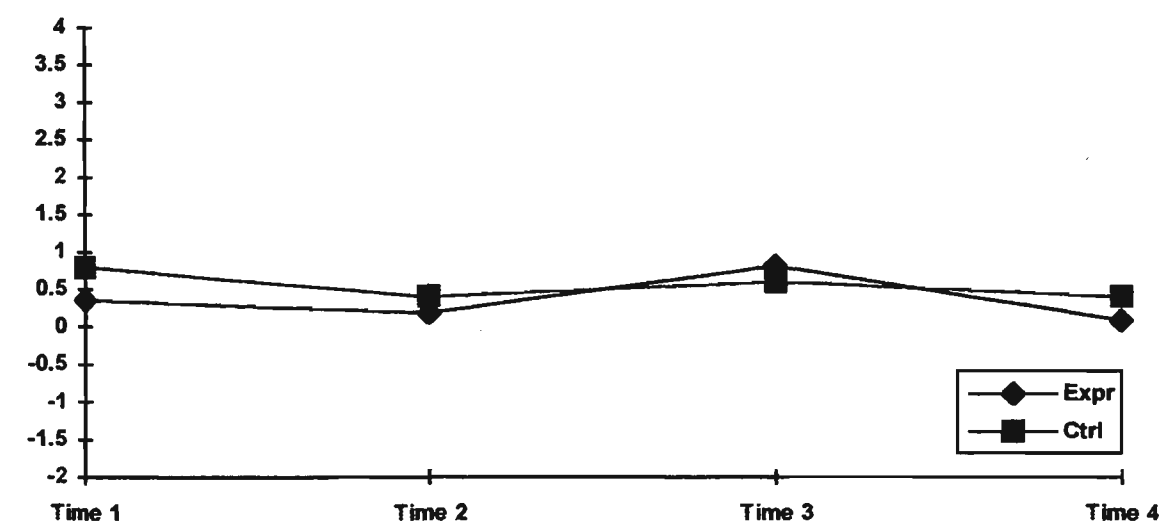


Fig. 5.9 Means for each group over time - alternative acceptable grammatical form

Overall, the control group has marginally better performance than the experimental group. However, in terms of the distribution of scores the experimental group’s scores are less dispersed than the control group’s.

d. Total Scores for Cloze Task

Table 5.10 (also Fig. 5.10) indicates that the control group’s performance is better than that of the experimental group at most of the times. There is a significant difference between the two groups’ performance on the pre-test (T1). However, the performance of the groups is almost the same at the end of the teaching phase (T3) and by four weeks after the teaching phase (T4). The performance of the experimental group is slightly better at T3 but a little bit lower than that of the control group at T4. The distribution of scores fluctuates over time for both of the groups, but the experimental group’s distribution is less dispersed most of the times.

Table 5.10: Means and standard deviations for total score for cloze tasks

Test	Time 1		Time 2		Time 3		Time 4	
Group	x	SD	x	SD	x	SD	x	SD
Experimental	0.82	0.98	0.64	1.12	1.27	0.65	0.91	0.70
Control	2.10	1.20	1.40	0.84	0.90	0.88	1.20	1.03

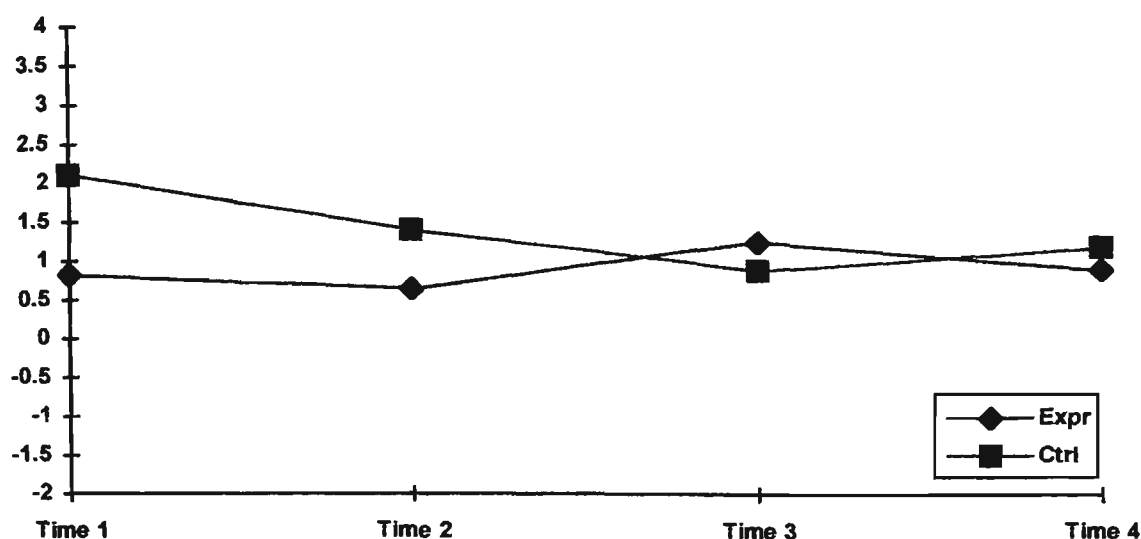


Fig. 5.10: Means over time for each group - total score for cloze task

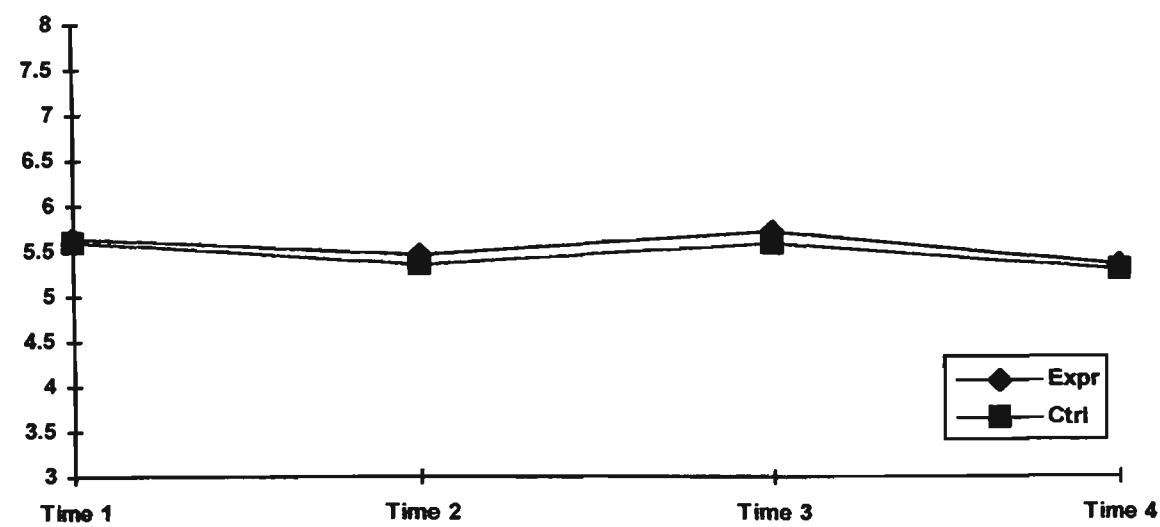
Initially, the control group has better performance than the experimental group (at T1 and T2), but on the post-test and on the delayed post-test their performance is almost the same.

5.1.3 Writing Task

The performance on writing tasks is only based on the average rating of each student's writing derived from the rating of two experienced ESL teachers and student assessors. The tasks given to students in both groups at each time are selected from the most common topics. Based on these topics the mean rating scores and the standard deviations for each group are compared to see the differences in terms of their performance from Time 1 to Time 4. The performance of the two groups is shown in the following table (5.11) and graph (Fig. 5.11).

Table 5.11: Means and standard deviation for writing task

Test	Time 1		Time 2		Time 3		Time 4	
Group	x	SD	x	SD	x	SD	x	SD
Experimental	5.64	0.45	5.46	0.47	5.73	0.47	5.36	0.60
Control	5.60	0.52	5.35	0.41	5.60	0.46	5.30	0.35



The fluctuations in mean scores for the experimental group parallel those of the control group. The mean scores for the two groups on the writing task are virtually identical and there is no difference between the means of the two groups at any of the times. The figures for standard deviation display the distribution of scores and these, too, are virtually identical.

There is no difference in the performance of the two groups and the patterns of fluctuations in performance are similar over time.

5.1.4 Speaking Tasks

The speaking tasks consist of two separate tasks, guided speaking and free speaking. The performance of the control group and the experimental group in both tasks is analysed at each of the times in terms of the groups’ mean scores and standard deviation scores to see if there are significant differences in achievement between the control group and the experimental group. Each individual's score is derived from the mean rating of their spoken production derived from the independent rating of their speech by two experienced ESL teachers and assessors/raters.

a. Speaking Tasks - Guided Speaking

The mean scores on the guided speaking task indicate that both groups perform similarly at T1 (refer Table 5.12 and Fig. 5.12). Overall, the means for the experimental group are similar to those of the control group, although showing a marginal improvement from T1 - T4, whereas the control group’s scores show a decline from T1 - T4. There are no significant differences between the means of the two groups at each of the times. The distribution of the scores as displayed by the standard deviation indicates that the scores for the experimental group tend to be a little less dispersed than the scores for the control group (exception is T4).

Table 5.12: Means and standard deviations for guided speaking

Test	Time 1		Time 2		Time 3		Time 4	
Group	x	SD	x	SD	X	SD	x	SD
Experimental	5.27	0.47	5.41	0.58	5.32	0.64	5.46	0.72
Control	5.43	0.71	5.65	0.71	5.40	0.74	4.90	0.62

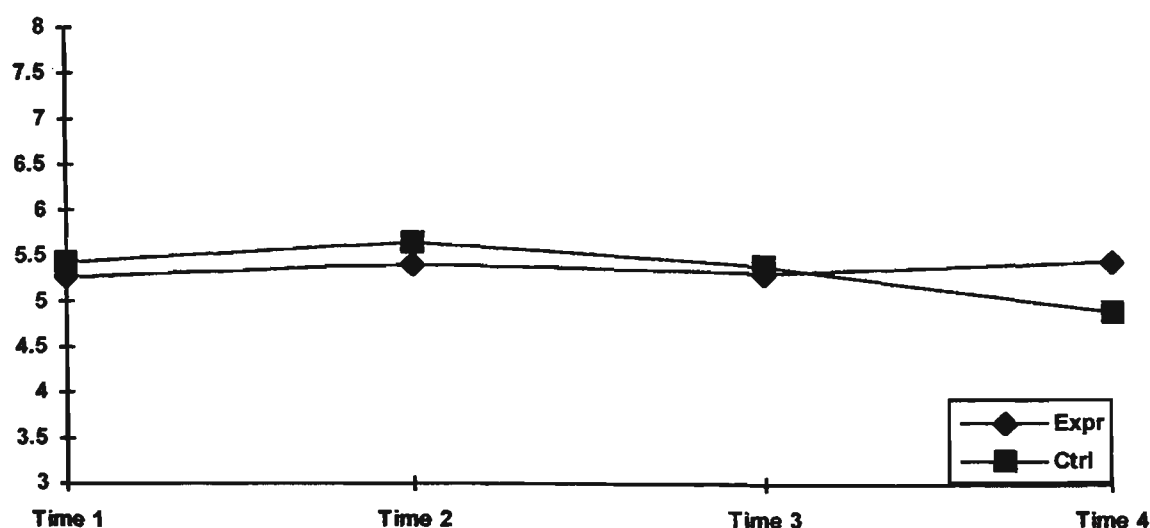


Fig. 5.12 Means for each group over time - guided speaking

Initially, the control group’s performance is marginally better than that of the experimental group. However, the control group’s performance declines after the teaching phase so that on the delayed post test (T4) the experimental group’s performance is better than that of the control group.

b. Speaking Tasks - Free Speaking

The data in the table (5.13 and Fig. 5.13) indicate that the means for the experimental group remain steady over time whereas the control group marginally declines. Both groups have comparable means at T1 with the control group mean being marginally higher. The mean scores for the control group whilst increasing at T2 then drop over time. There are no difference between the means of the two groups at any of the times. The standard deviations show that the distribution of the scores for experimental group is

consistently a little less dispersed than for the control group. The extent of the dispersion for both groups tends to increase a little over time.

Table 5.13: Means and standard deviations for free speaking

Test	Time 1		Time 2		Time 3		Time 4	
Group	x	SD	x	SD	X	SD	x	SD
Experimental	5.27	0.47	5.27	0.47	5.32	0.72	5.27	0.68
Control	5.48	0.65	5.70	0.68	5.20	0.92	5.10	0.81

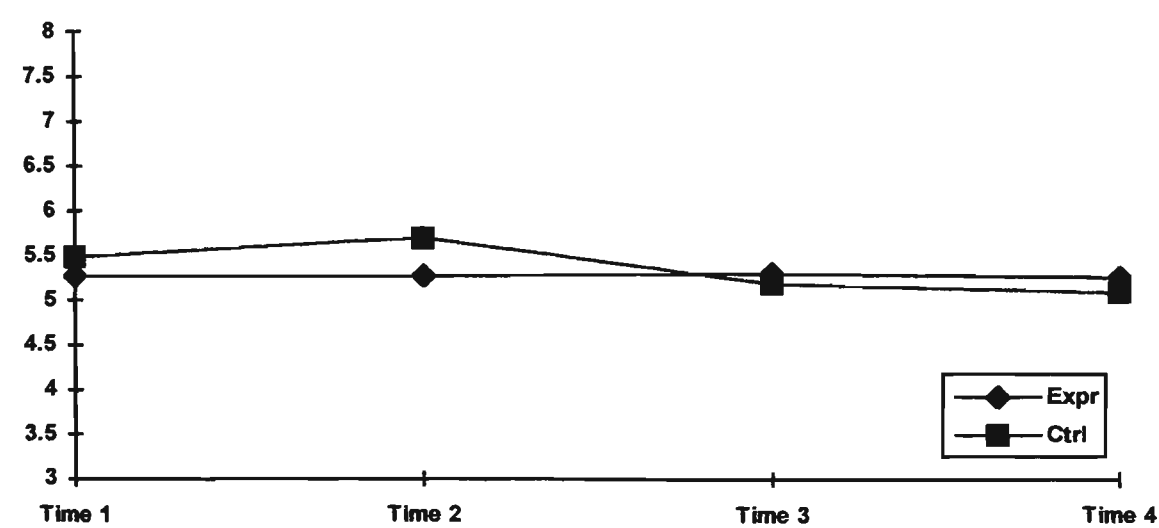


Fig. 5.13 Means for each group over time - free speaking

There is only a slight difference in the performance between the two groups on the pre-test. The control group’s performance is better and continues to be marginally better than that of the experimental group which seems to be static. However, the control group’s performance drops on the post-test (T3) and keeps on declining so that at T3 and T4 the experimental group performs marginally better than the control group.

5.1.5. Discussion

Overall, in the discrete point tasks the experimental group and the control group progress during the teaching phase and continue to improve by four weeks after the teaching phase. Each group has a higher mean at T4 for each subtask than at T1. The experimental group and the control group perform virtually identically on the pre-test (T1) with the exception of the task contrasting habitual - past vs. present tenses (significant difference) and the task for the present tense, perfective vs perfective progressive (where there is a fairly large but not statistically significant difference in the means). In each case where the mean is higher at T1 it is the control group with the superior performance prior to the teaching commencing. After the teaching commences though the only significant difference in means between the two groups is for present tense - simple vs progressive at T2 and T3 where the mean for the control group is significantly higher. So whilst the control group may have had slightly superior performance to the experimental group initially or during and immediately at the conclusion of the teaching phase (eg. present tense - simple vs. progressive) any advantage of that group was not sustained and by Time 4 both groups were performing to an equivalent level and with the mean for the experimental group in some cases actually being higher than for the control group. This means that in general the two groups are at the same level of proficiency after the teaching phase regardless of their teaching method.

However, whilst the differences do not normally reach the level required to be statistically significant it is noticeable that the control group seemingly generally has a higher level of performance than the experimental group on the mid-test (T2) with their

mean in three cases (present tense - simple vs. progressive, present tense - perfective vs perfective progressive, future tense) being well above that for the experimental group. It is only in simple vs progressive in past tense that the experimental group has a somewhat higher mean at T2. This might be because the control group is encouraged to focus on the usage of grammatical features and to practice these in discrete point exercises, whilst the experimental group is encouraged to undertake more contextualised communicative practice. This makes the experimental group's performance on the discrete point tasks a little less strong than the control group's specifically in the middle of the teaching phase (T2). However, the experimental group generally continues to improve until the end of the teaching program (T3), and the two groups perform very similarly on present tense - simple vs progressive, present perfective, past perfective at Time 4. At Time 4 the control group still has substantially higher means for simple vs progressive in past tense, and future tense, whereas the experimental group's mean is quite a bit higher than the control group's for habitual - past vs. present tense.

With respect to the discrete point tasks, it is difficult to argue that one approach is better than the other as, in general, the two groups improve over time and significant differences between them are few. The only noticeable difference is in the pace of improvement for the experimental group which may be a little behind that of the control group during the teaching phase. In general, the students in the control group (current method) seem to progress a little more quickly during the teaching phase as compared to the experimental group (alternative communicative grammar method). In contrast, whilst the alternative communicative grammar method does not result in such rapid improvement, it may eventually aid learners to improve continuously or better maintain their learning.

As for the discrete point tasks the performance of the experimental and control groups on the cloze task does not indicate much difference between the groups over time. In general the performance of the students in both groups is quite poor on the cloze task, with relatively few correct or acceptable attempts on average. However, initially (T1) the control group has a higher mean on each of the aspects being measured - correct main verb, acceptable main verb and alternative acceptable grammatical form - suggesting that the control group had superior capacity to complete the cloze task prior to the teaching phase. At T1 the difference in means between the two groups for acceptable main verb was statistically significant. After Time 1 the performance of the two groups is comparable. There is no evidence for one method leading to superior outcomes, although given their means at T1 it could possibly be argued that the experimental group's performance from T2-T4 was marginally superior comparatively to that of the control group. However, it is extremely difficult to compare the performance of the two groups over time as the difference in means for the three categories on the cloze task is fairly marginal, and the actual scores very low.

With respect to the writing task and the speaking tasks the performance of the experimental and control groups in terms of the means does not show any significant differences between the groups. On the writing task the experimental group and the control group perform fairly similarly at each time from the beginning of the teaching phase (T1) until by four weeks after the teaching phase (T4). The performance of the two groups for the speaking tasks does not differ a lot at any of the times. Initially, the control group performs marginally better than that of the experimental group for guided and free

speaking tasks, but the control group's means decline over time, whereas those for the experimental group remain steady or marginally improve (guided speaking). At Time 4 for guided speaking the experimental group has a higher (although not statistically significantly higher) mean than the control group.

It appears that the proficiency rating method used to assess student performance on these writing and speaking tasks has meant that variations are quite small. The proficiency rating approach adopts a range of criteria to assess student proficiency meaning that differences in usage in one specific area of grammar (tense/aspect), even if present, are not likely to have a major impact on the overall assessment. What the results for these tasks do indicate is that the experimental group have not been disadvantaged by their teaching method. However, likewise, there is no evidence that they gained any significant advantage. Nevertheless, the data for the speaking tasks, especially for guided speaking, is suggestive of the possibility that students exposed to a more communicative approach may gain some small benefit over time in their proficiency rating. The expression of tense and aspect by each group in the speaking tasks will be considered in greater depth in the next chapter (Chapter 6), and this should enable a much more thorough examination of how students' performance on these tasks may have been affected by the teaching method.

Finally, it should be said that the nature and scale of these findings need to be considered in relation to the nature and amount of difference between the two methods and the length of time students were exposed to these differences in relation to their total teaching time. Trends in differences which are not significant in this study may yield more

noticeable and larger effects if the differences in teaching methodology are more substantial and sustained throughout all subjects within the teaching program over a longer duration.

5.2 Progress Over Time Within Each Group

The progress of each group varies over time. In this section the progress for each of the two groups over time is analysed using the scores of each group at each time and paired t-tests (two-tail). Table 5.14 summarises the significant differences from time to time for each group on these t-tests.

From Table 5.14 it is evident that the groups have an identical number of significant increases over time (14 each). However, for the experimental group six of these fourteen significant increases are highly significant (indicating a larger degree of change) whereas for the control group only four out of fourteen are highly significant. When significant decreases are considered there is a small difference between the groups. The experimental group has only 3 significant decreases in means over time. All of these are decreases from Time 3 at the end of the teaching phase to Time 4 four weeks after the teaching phase. In contrast, the control group has 5 significant decreases. Only one of these increases is from T3 to T4. Another indicates regression over all (from T1 to T4), whereas the other three involve a significant decrease from during the teaching phase (T2) to either the end (T3) or some time after the teaching has concluded (T4).

Table 5.14: Significant differences in performance of each group over time for each task (based on results of paired t-tests (two-tailed))

Task	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	Significant Increase	Significant Decrease	Significant Increase	Significant Decrease
Discrete Point Tasks				
Present Tense - simple vs progressive	T1 - T4 ** T2 - T4 *		T1 - T2 * T1 - T3 ** T1 - T4 **	
Past Tense - simple vs progressive			T3 - T4 *	
Present - perfective and perfective progressive			T1 - T2 * T1 - T4 *	
Past - perfective and perfective progressive	T1 - T3 * T2 - T3 **	T3 - T4 *	T1 - T3 * T2 - T3 *	
Future Tense	T1 - T3 * T1 - T4 * T2 - T3 ** T2 - T4 *		T1 - T3 * T1 - T4 * T2 - T3 * T3 - T4 **	
Habitual - past vs present	T1 - T4 ** T2 - T3 * T2 - T4 ** T3 - T4 *		T2 - T3 * T2 - T4 **	
Cloze Tasks				
Correct Main Verb				T2 - T3 *
Acceptable Main Verb	T1 - T4 *			
Alternative Acceptable Grammatical Form	T2 - T3 **	T3 - T4 **		
Writing Tasks		T3 - T4 *		T1 - T4 *
Speaking Tasks				
Guided Speaking				T2 - T4 * T3 - T4 *
Free Speaking				T2 - T3 *

** indicates $p > 0.01$

* indicates $p > 0.05$

In the discrete point tasks there is evidence of a greater amount of positive change over time for the control group. The experimental group does not have as many significant increases as the control group on the discrete point tasks (12 vs 14) and the control group has also made at least one significant improvement over time in each of the aspectual or tense contrasts, whereas the experimental group has only made significant increases in four out of six subtasks (not perfective vs perfective progressive in either past or present

tenses). In addition, for the control group all the significant changes are increases, whereas for the experimental group there is one significant decrease - after end of teaching phase (T3 -T4) in past - perfective vs perfective progressive.

In contrast to the discrete point tasks there is evidence of slightly superior improvement of the experimental group on the cloze tasks with a significant increase for this group in acceptable main verb (T1 - T4) and alternative acceptable grammatical form (T2 - T3) .

The only change in performance of the control group on the cloze tasks during the teaching phase is a significant decrease in correct main verb T2 - T3. The experimental group's use of alternative acceptable grammatical forms does also significantly decrease after the end of the teaching phase (T3 - T4). As in 5.1.5 the low overall scores for the cloze task and relatively small amount of change over time make it difficult to come to strong conclusions on the change in performance over time on this task.

Despite the limitations of the proficiency rating method (as previously discussed in 5.1.5) there is also some evidence to suggest that the control group performed worse on speaking tasks than the experimental group. In both free and guided speaking tasks there is a significant decrease from teaching phase to either T3 or T4 in the control group's mean scores, whereas those of the experimental group do not change significantly either way.

In the Writing Task the only significant changes for either group are decreases. In the case of the experimental group there is a significant decrease from T3 to T4, whereas for the control group the significant decrease is an overall one from T1 to T4.

When all of the above is taken into consideration it can be concluded that in terms of significant change over time in mean scores the experimental group has slightly superior performance to the control group with a net of 11 (14 - 3) significant increases (and more that are highly significant) to only 9 for the control group. In addition, there is some evidence to support the less generalised benefits of learning for the control group in comparison to the experimental group. All the significant increases for the control group are in the form-focussed single sentence discrete point tasks. There is no evidence of significant improvement over time for the control group on any of the other tasks, and, in fact, the control group has five significant decreases on the other tasks. Whilst the significant increases for the experimental group in the discrete point tasks are not as numerous, and that group actually also records one significant decrease in the past perfect subtask, it does make significant improvements in two of the features within the cloze task, and has no significant decreases in the most spontaneous tasks, the speaking tasks.

5.3 Conclusions

The data on student performance across a range of tasks indicates that prior to the teaching intervention the control group was marginally stronger than the experimental group and had on average higher mean scores. Yet any advantage this group had prior to the teaching intervention is no longer evident by Time 4 where there are no significant differences between the groups and, in some cases, the experimental group has higher mean scores. Clearly, the experimental group has not been disadvantaged by their exposure to the alternative communicative grammar teaching method.

When the data on the change over time in the mean scores for each group is considered this suggests that the experimental group has actually made marginally more improvement over time than the control group overall, and specifically has performed better than the control group in relation to the less form-focussed and more contextualised and/or spontaneous language tasks. In contrast to this the significant improvements over time for the control group have been restricted to the discrete point tasks which have been the only focus of their classroom exercises, explanations and discussion.

Whilst these findings must be treated with caution for a number of reasons, including some possible deficiencies with the use of proficiency ratings for writing and speaking tasks, the very low scores at all times for the cloze task and the overall group size, they do suggest that the alternative communicative grammar method yielded superior outcomes overall, and that the implicit and/or automatised knowledge of the learners in the experimental group was marginally greater. It appears that the learning that took place in the experimental method (ACGM) was better able to be applied in more spontaneous and less form-focussed contexts, ie those contexts which are more genuinely communicative. Given the relatively small amount of time devoted to the ACGM (one subject for only 6 weeks out of the total syllabus) these very small differences in outcomes may well point to the possibility of achieving much more marked differences in student performance with a communicative language teaching methodology (in comparison with current methods) in contexts where the innovative teaching method can be adopted across a whole course over a sustained period.

CHAPTER 6

QUALITATIVE DIFFERENCES IN THE USE OF TENSE AND ASPECT IN ENGLISH

The focus of the previous chapter, Chapter 5, was on comparing the performance of the two groups of students across a range of tasks. The analysis of performance on these tasks was in terms of their responses being either correct or acceptable forms for the discrete point and cloze task, and proficiency rating scores for the speaking and writing tasks.

In this chapter, the aim is to examine in much greater detail what tense and aspect forms are produced by the learners in each group in contexts requiring the spontaneous production of utterances. Because of this interest in whether there is evidence of difference between the students in the two groups in more spontaneous contexts, it was decided to focus specifically on the spoken output of the students in the two types of tasks that were used: the guided speaking task and the free speaking task. As is explained in greater detail in Chapter 3 the nature of the tasks used for guided speaking were designed to encourage the use of past tenses and those for the free speaking task were expected to generate more output from students in the present tenses.

The analysis in this chapter is broken up into three major sections. First of all a frequency analysis is presented. This focuses on describing and comparing the actual finite verb phrase forms produced by the students in each group for each task type. Then in section 6.2 a more detailed analysis is presented of the patterns of usage for each group of the

most commonly used tenses and aspects within the guided speaking task. This analysis concentrates on the functional acceptability of the tense/aspect choice/s of the students in each group as well as commenting on the most common formal errors. At the end of 6.2 (Section 6.2.3) there is further consideration about the similarities and differences in how each group performed on the guided speaking task. Section 6.3 follows a similar format to Section 6.2, but for the Free Speaking Task.

6.1. Frequency Analysis - Forms Used by Each Group over Time

The first approach to analysing the actual spoken production of the students in detail was to undertake a frequency analysis. This involved identifying all the finite verb phrase (VP) forms produced by each student and then categorising these based on the actual structure produced (irrespective of its acceptability/target-like use within the context). A frequency analysis provides a benchmark of the actual range of structures being used within a student's or a group of students' second language production (sometimes, also referred to as 'interlanguage' (IL)) and thus enables the forms within that/those English L2s to be documented. A summary of the findings of this analysis for the students in each group can be found in Table 6.1 for the Guided Speaking Task and in Table 6.2 for the Free Speaking Task.

In the Guided Speaking Task (Table 6.1) at Time 1 the experimental group produces on average a larger number of finite VPs, but by Times 2 and 3 the control group has a higher average. At Time 4 both groups have a similar average number, although the experimental group is slightly ahead. This task explicitly encouraged learners to provide

Table 6.1: Percentage Use of Each Verb Form for Each Group - Guided Speaking Task

Time	Av. Finite Verbs/ Subject	Base V V-es				V-ing PP		BE+V-ing		Past		AUX +V		BE+Other		BE+V		Mod + V		HAVE + V		Adj	Other
		1	2	3	4	5a	5b	6a	6b	7a	7b	8a	8b	9a	9b	10a	10b	11a	11b	12	13		
T1 Exp. Ctrl	29.8	32.9	6.4	2.4	0.0	1.8	3.4	3.4	12.8	1.2	0.9	12.8	16.2	0.6	0.0	1.5	0.9	0.3	0.0	1.5	0.9		
	23.9	40.6	5.9	1.3	0.0	1.3	0.4	12.1	9.6	0.8	0.0	17.2	1.7	1.7	0.0	1.3	0.0	1.3	0.0	1.3	3.8		
T2 Exp. Ctrl	31.5	22.8	1.4	0.9	0.6	0.9	8.4	10.1	20.2	0.0	4.6	4.9	15.6	0.6	3.2	0.9	1.4	0.6	0.0	1.4	1.4		
	35.6	29.8	1.7	1.7	0.6	1.7	5.1	7.0	19.4	2.2	3.4	11.5	9.0	1.1	1.1	1.7	0.6	0.8	0.6	0.8	0.3		
T3 Exp. Ctrl	32.8	37.1	0.6	3.3	0.6	0.0	8.3	4.7	13.6	0.6	3.0	5.0	9.4	2.2	1.7	3.3	1.9	1.7	1.9	0.6	0.6		
	36.7	33.2	11.4	0.0	0.5	0.3	5.4	7.1	13.1	0.3	3.0	9.5	7.9	0.3	1.1	1.1	1.9	1.4	1.6	0.0	0.8		
T4 Exp. Ctrl	39.7	30.9	2.7	1.4	0.5	2.1	5.0	9.4	13.3	0.9	0.9	11.2	9.2	0.5	0.9	2.3	0.9	2.7	2.7	2.1	0.5		
	38.9	38.0	2.1	1.3	1.0	1.3	1.8	5.7	9.8	0.8	1.0	12.9	5.4	1.8	0.8	4.6	0.8	3.3	3.9	1.3	2.6		

a narrative in the past, meaning that unmarked verb (Base V) was not acceptable in many contexts (as the later analysis discusses - see section 6.2). The experimental group use less Base V at Times 1, 2 and 4, but slightly more at Time 3. For both groups from Time 1 to Time 2 there is increased use of irregular past, but then this diminishes Time 2 - Time 3. The experimental group has close to a third of finite VPs with BE+ Other (some form of predicate, eg. NP, Adj, Adv.) at Time 1 with more than half of these being marked for tense. In contrast, the control group has little use of past BE + Other at Time 1, but this increases to Time 2.

From Table 6.2 it is evident that at Time 1 the experimental group is on average producing a larger number of finite VPs (19.0 vs 15.2), although this difference is not maintained at Time 2 and is lesser at Time 3. At Time 4 the experimental group is once again producing on average a large number of finite VPs. For the Free Speaking Task it is noticeable that both groups have a high proportion of unmarked Verb (Base V) at Time 1, although this diminishes to be just over a third of finite VPs by Time 2 for each group. Initially at Time 1 the use of Base V by the experimental group is higher than for the control group (perhaps contributing to their marginally lower proficiency rating). From Time 1 to Time 2 there is a noticeable increase in the use of BE + Other (ie predicate) in the present tense for both groups, although this increase is more rapid initially for the control group and more sustained for the experimental group. Both groups use a broader range of forms over time.

Table 6.2: Percentage Use of Each Verb Form for Each Group - Free Speaking Task

Time	Av. Finite Verbs/ Subject	Base V		V-ing		PP		BE+V-ing		Past		AUX +V		BE+Other		BE+V		Mod + V		HAVE + V		Adj		Other
		1	2	3	4	5a	5b	6a	6b	7a	7b	8a	8b	9a	9b	10a	10b	11a	11b	12	13			
T1 Exp. Ctrl	19.0	66.5	0.5	3.3	0.0	3.3	0.0	0.0	1.0	3.8	1.0	10.5	1.0	0.0	0.0	6.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.4	1.0		
	15.2	57.2	1.3	5.9	0.0	5.3	0.0	0.7	0.7	4.6	0.0	11.8	0.0	0.7	0.0	3.9	2.0	0.7	0.0	0.7	0.7	4.6		
T2 Exp. Ctrl	22.2	36.9	2.0	0.8	0.0	5.3	1.2	1.2	2.9	1.6	0.4	29.9	4.9	0.0	0.0	3.3	0.0	2.5	0.4	1.6	4.9			
	22.4	38.4	3.6	0.4	0.0	2.7	0.0	0.4	1.8	1.3	0.0	38.4	0.4	1.8	0.4	2.7	0.0	2.7	0.0	0.9	4.0			
T3 Exp. Ctrl	21.1	34.9	0.9	0.0	0.0	2.2	0.0	2.2	3.4	3.0	0.4	31.9	0.0	2.6	0.4	11.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.6	4.3			
	19.7	38.1	1.5	0.0	0.0	2.5	0.5	0.5	1.5	2.5	0.5	38.6	0.0	2.5	0.0	4.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	3.0			
T4 Exp. Ctrl	25.5	36.4	2.1	0.7	0.0	0.4	0.0	2.5	2.1	2.5	0.0	36.8	1.1	0.4	0.0	8.9	0.4	1.1	0.4	1.4	2.9			
	22.2	39.2	0.9	0.5	1.4	0.0	0.5	0.0	1.8	1.4	1.4	31.1	0.5	6.8	0.0	7.2	0.9	1.4	0.0	2.3	3.2			

Tables 6.3 and 6.4 combine data from the frequency analysis to enable comparison of the marking of tense and within each of these of aspectual marking by each group. In Guided Speaking (Table 6.3) there is a much higher proportion of past tense marking as a result of the task. Despite this there is still a large proportion of *Base V/simple present*. The total usage of present is higher for the control group, and the experimental group makes more advance over time in the proportion of past marking. There is a noticeable increase in the marking of past tense from Time 1-Time 2 for both groups with each having an increase of more than 20% in the number of finite VPs with past marking. However, this past marking declines more or less steeply from Time 2-Time 3 and Time 3-Time 4. In both groups the level of past marking at Time 4 is only about 5% higher than at Time 1. Most of the gain in improvement over time in marking for tense is in the complex tenses - continuous, perfective and modal.

In the Free Speaking Tasks (see Table 6.4) both groups use present/unmarked tense a very high proportion of the time (over 90% at Time 1). However, the experimental group at Time 2 and Time 3 has a lesser proportion of present/unmarked and marks more past, primarily simple past. At Time 2 the experimental group is marking more not just for tense, but also for aspect (continuous and perfective). By Time 4 the two groups have a similar proportion of marking tense as past/non-past, but the experimental group uses a higher proportion of modals.

Table 6.3: Summary of Proportional Use of Main Categories of Tense and Aspect - Guided Speaking Task

Time	Av. Finite Verbs/ Subject	Present Tense				Past Tense			
		Simple/ Base V	Contin	Perf	Modal	Simple/ Base V	Contin	Perf	Modal
T1 Exp. Ctrl	29.8	55.5	4.3	0.3	1.5	33.2	3.4	0.0	0.9
	23.9	67.4	2.5	1.3	1.3	23.4	0.4	0.0	0.0
T2 Exp. Ctrl	31.5	31.2	1.7	0.6	0.9	53.8	8.4	0.0	1.4
	35.6	47.2	3.4	0.8	1.7	39.9	5.1	0.6	0.6
T3 Exp. Ctrl	32.8	46.0	3.3	1.7	3.3	32.4	8.3	1.9	1.9
	36.7	54.8	0.3	1.4	1.1	32.2	5.4	1.6	1.9
T4 Exp. Ctrl	39.7	48.3	3.4	2.7	2.3	33.6	5.0	2.7	0.9
	38.9	56.8	2.6	3.3	4.6	22.6	1.8	3.9	0.8

Table 6.4: Summary of Proportional Use of Main Categories of Tense and Aspect - Free Speaking Task

Time	Av. Finite Verbs/ Subject	Present Tense				Past Tense			
		Simple/ Base V	Contin	Perf	Modal	Simple/ Base V	Contin	Perf	Modal
T1 Exp. Ctrl	19.0	82.8	6.7	0.0	6.7	2.9	0.0	0.0	0.0
	15.2	76.3	11.2	0.7	3.9	1.3	0.0	0.0	2.0
T2 Exp. Ctrl	22.2	72.1	6.1	2.5	3.3	9.4	1.2	0.4	0.0
	22.4	84.4	3.1	2.7	2.7	3.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
T3 Exp. Ctrl	21.1	75.9	2.2	0.0	11.2	6.5	0.0	0.0	0.0
	19.7	84.3	2.5	1.0	4.1	2.5	0.5	1.0	1.0
T4 Exp. Ctrl	25.5	79.6	1.1	1.1	8.9	5.7	0.0	0.4	0.4
	22.2	81.5	0.5	1.4	7.2	3.6	0.5	0.0	0.9

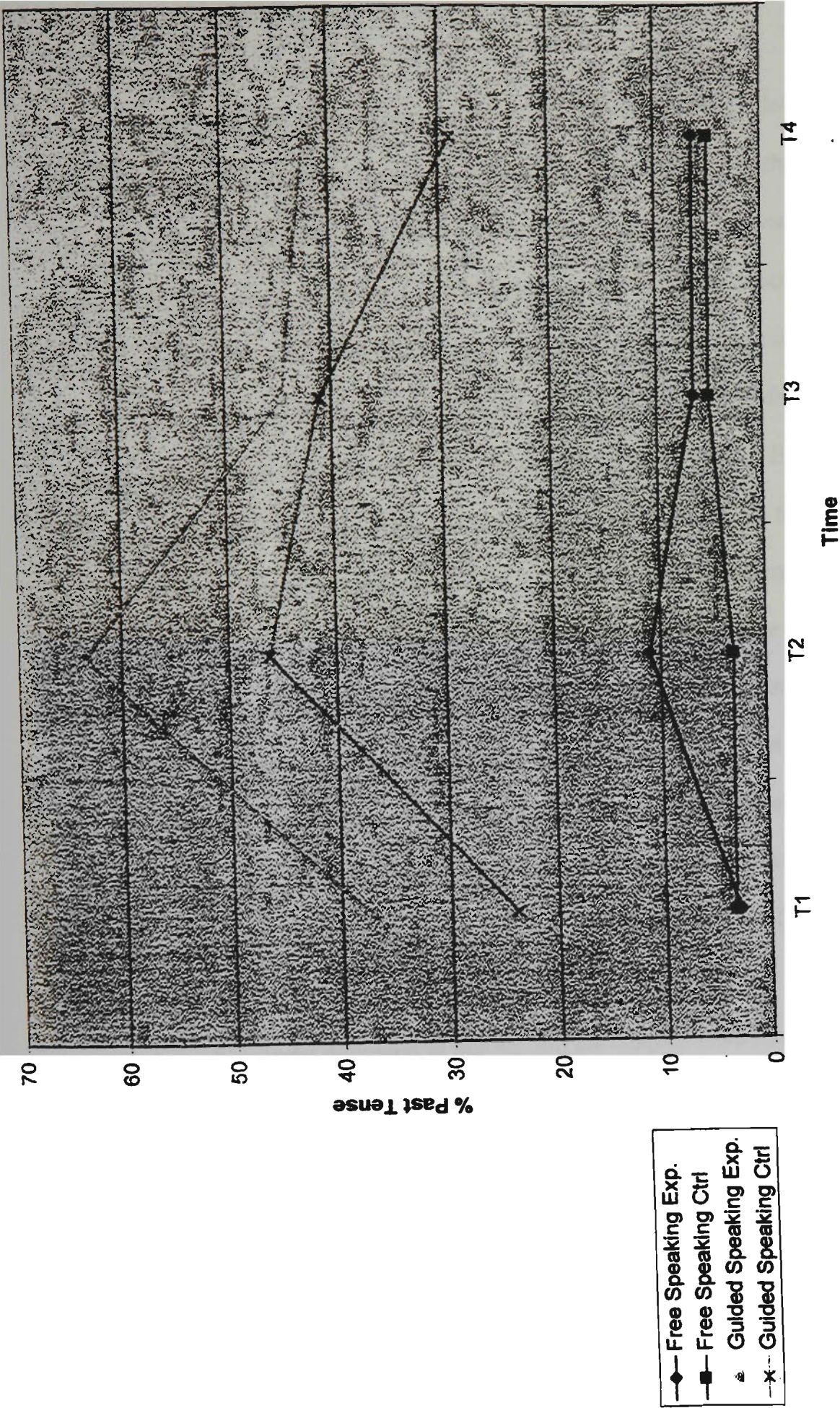
If we specifically compare the proportion of past tense marking for each group for each task (see Table 6.5 and Figure 6.1), it is evident that in the guided speaking task the experimental group marks for past tense consistently more than the control group. However, this difference between the groups is evident prior to the teaching phase at Time 1. There is a considerable increase in past tense marking at Time 2 for both groups, but the increase is higher for the experimental group than the control group, even though the base the experimental group has started from is higher. Both groups use less past tense marking at Time 3 with a particularly noticeable decrease for the experimental group. Whilst this decrease continues from Time 3 to Time 4, it is much more marked for the control group. By Time 4 in each group the level of past tense marking is only approximately 5% higher than at Time 1, suggesting that much of the learning during the teaching phase is not maintained by either group.

Data from the free speaking task indicates a low level of past tense marking consistent with the nature of the task. It is evident that the teaching phase encourages the experimental group to use more past tense marking, especially at Time 2.

Table 6.5: Summary of Proportional Use of Past Tense Marking

Time	Free Speaking		Guided Speaking	
	Exp.	Ctrl	Exp.	Ctrl
T1	2.9	3.3	37.5	23.8
T2	11.1	3.1	63.6	46.1
T3	6.5	5.1	44.6	41.1
T4	6.4	5.0	42.3	29.0

Figure 6.1: Proportional Use of Past Tense Marking for Each Task and Group



6.2. Patterns of Usage in the Guided Speaking Tasks

The analysis of the learners' usage of various tenses and aspects in the guided and free speaking tasks focuses first on the functional acceptability/appropriacy of the tense/aspect produced within its context. The analysis in section 6.1 of frequencies of various forms in the language of the learners in each group highlights aspects of their transitional, yet developing competence, such as use of V-ing without AUX in the progressive, and use of Base V. In this section the formal acceptability of forms used is not considered in calculating proportions as the determination of a feature being non-target like is based on the functional acceptability of the choice of tense/aspect combination. So for example, both 'She is going' and 'She going' are both categorised as progressive forms (present/base). If present progressive is an acceptable choice of tense/aspect in the given context then each would be counted as target-like. If within the context created by the speaker the choice of tense/aspect should be something different (eg. past progressive, simple past, simple present), then it would be classified as non-target like. For each tense/aspect then examples of non-target like usage are categorised. This includes consideration of the types of errors, particularly those in the formation of the tense.

The guided speaking tasks discussed in this section are adapted from Fletcher and Birt (1994). Whilst the tasks were originally designed to enable students to practise their usage of *simple past* and *past progressive*, the nature of the tasks also make it possible to use other tenses, and, particularly, it was hoped, other past tenses such as *past perfect* and *past perfect progressive*. This all depends on the level of learners' grammatical knowledge, and their capacity to flexibly use their knowledge of the language to generate

a narrative with appropriate tense/aspect choices in relation to time reference and viewpoint.

6.2.1. Control group

In the guided speaking task learners in the control group demonstrate the capacity to use a range of tenses and aspects. When *progressive* and *perfective* aspects are used they largely indicate *progressive* and *perfective* aspect and meaning. However, *past* usage (eg. *simple past*, *past progressive*, *past perfect*) is still problematic. There is great confusion between *past* and *present* tenses. Some learners start with *past*, but change to *present* in the middle and switch to *past* or *present* at the end of the task. Others begin with *present* then in the middle of the task start using *past tense* and end the task with either *present* or *past tenses*. In fact, *present simple/Base V* is the second most frequently used *tense/aspect* over time in guided speaking tasks.

With regard to the contexts, *past tense* was more appropriate to narrate the activities in each guided speaking task, and learners were expected to use *past tense* most of the time in each task. However, *present simple/Base V* is acceptable in some contexts, for example, when dealing with direct speech, such as 'I think', 'you know', 'we can see that', 'it means' etc. Yet, *present simple/Base V* is still used widely by these learners in each guided speaking task over time. The distribution of use of *present simple/Base V* is presented in Table 6.6. There is actually an increase of use of *present simple/Base V* over time, and the proportion of non-target like usage also increases and is particularly high at Times 2 and 3.

Table: 6.6: Usage of Present Simple/Base V - Control Group, Guided Speaking

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1 - 4	
Subject	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target
07	17	0%	12	100%	4	100%	17	0%	48	33%
09	8	100%	12	67%	18	83%	22	91%	59	85%
11	9	100%	13	46%	17	71%	13	75%	49	74%
13	21	95%	7	86%	17	88%	30	0%	75	55%
17	25	0%	20	0%	7	29%	5	75%	53	9%
25	16	0%	39	0%	29	48%	33	0%	115	12%
37	21	0%	25	0%	30	0%	46	0%	116	0%
41	15	87%	17	100%	19	100%	16	100%	63	100%
51	18	0%	19	95%	13	100%	26	0%	72	43%
55	15	0%	7	100%	12	0%	21	0%	55	13%
All	165	30%	171	44%	166	57%	229	21%	728	37%

The use of *present simple/Base V* outnumbers other tenses, particularly at Time 1. There are likely three main factors that result in greater than anticipated usage of *present simple/Base V* in the guided speaking tasks. Firstly, some learners base their narrative around events that are viewed as being in the present (eg. subjects 7, 17 and 37 at Time 1). Secondly, *past*, *progressive*, *perfective*, and *future* have not yet been formally taught at Time 1 and some learners are adopting a strategy of using uninflected verb forms (eg. Subject 13). Thirdly, many learners are not yet able to consistently use *past tense* (eg. Subject 13 at Time 1). In other words, it is still beyond their capability to control the consistency of using *past tense* - when they are engaged in this speaking task. Direct speech using expressions such as 'I think', 'you know' and 'we can see', is another contributor to *present simple/Base V* use in the guided speaking task.

However, after the introduction of other tenses and aspects - *past*, *progressive*, *perfective*, and *future* -the use of *present simple/Base V* decreases slightly with some learners (07, 13, 17, 37, 51, 55) at Time 2. The use of *present tense* by subject 07, in fact, consistently lessens until Time 4 when it increases again at Time 4 and remains the same as at Time 1. Three subjects (07,17, 51) continue using less *present simple/Base V* until Time 3, and five subjects (07, 13, 17, 37,55) can only maintain the low of usage until Time 2. At Time 4 the use of *present simple/Base V* increases again. It is noticeable that during the teaching phase and immediately after it, there is a higher level of non-target usage of *present simple/Base Verb* overall. This results particularly from the usage of subjects 07 and 51 and seems to reflect difficulties in sustaining the use of *past* tense consistently within a *past* narrative.

Examples of use of *present simple/Base V* are as follows:

- He get some food and soft drink from the servant (stewardess) (07/T1)
- He is in the aeroplane (25/T1)
- He doesn't see anything in front of him (55/T2)
- They bring guns (37/T3)
- They are very surprised (51/T4)

Non-target like formation of *present simple/Base V* exhibits the following errors:

- omission of person marking for third person singular (Verb root only)
(eg. The old man go to the travel, 07/T1, He have a mistake, 07/1)
- omission of BE for passive with root verb only(eg. Someone which invite by Mr. Smith, 37/T4)

- confusion in person/number marking with BE (eg. There is robbers in the bank, 51/T3)
- confusion between noun and verb (eg. ... who robbes the bank, 17/T2)
- combination of BE+Verb (eg. The letter is address to 11/1)
- omission of BE (copula) (eg. He very glad (25/T1); The dog angry with him (17/T2))

In relation to omission of Copula - BE the teaching phase seems to produce a significant change. Five subjects omit Copula - BE on a total of seven occasions at Time 1, whereas only two subjects omit BE on four occasions at Time 2 and one subject on one occasion at Time 3. However, this learning does not generally seem to be retained as at Time 4 as seven out of eight subjects who have omitted BE in previous times omit BE at Time 4 on a total of 11 occasions. Only one subject who omits BE at Time 1 (subject 41) does not omit BE at later times, including Time 4. There are only two learners (55, 13) who do not omit BE at any of the four times.

The use of *simple past* (refer to Table 6.7) increases over time for six subjects (09, 11, 17, 41, 51, 55). The amount of use of past tense is very high at Time 2 - in fact, the highest amongst all guided speaking tasks for students in the control group, except for subject 17. This could have been related to the introduction of *simple past* after Time 1. However, the higher quantity of past tense usage is generally not retained for the following times, and the usage declines at Time 3. Perhaps this might have also been influenced by the introduction of other tenses between Time 2 and Time 3, and their increased usage at Time 3. The usage of *simple past* for subjects 09, 25, 41 and 55 slightly increases from

Time 3 to Time 4, whilst for some subjects (07, 11, 17, 37,51) the use of *simple past* continues to decrease. For the group overall the proportion of non-target-like usage increases after the end of the teaching phase, but not all subjects follow this pattern. For example, subject 09 shows a definite and sustained development towards target like usage, if the performance across times is compared. Both the number of simple past forms being used increases dramatically after the teaching commences, and all usage from Time 2 onwards is target-like. In contrast, for some subjects there is no evidence of development in terms of improved target like output or increased amount of use (eg. Subject 37).

Table 6.7: Usage of Simple Past - Control Group, Guided Speaking

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Subject	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target
07	-	-	14	0%	10	0%	7	100%	31	23%
09	4	100%	22	0%	12	0%	16	0%	54	7%
11	5	0%	31	0%	22	0%	19	0%	77	0%
13	3	0%	16	0%	2	0%	-	-	21	0%
17	5	100%	5	100%	10	0%	9	0%	29	35%
25	2	100%	5	100%	30	0%	1	100%	38	21%
37	1	100%	8	100%	3	100%	1	100%	13	100%
41	12	0%	22	0%	16	0%	20	0%	70	0%
51	3	100%	12	0%	8	0%	5	100%	28	29%
55	4	100%	9	0%	5	100%	12	100%	30	70%
All	39	49%	144	13%	118	7%	90	29%	391	18%

Examples of use of *simple past* include:

- Suddenly the woman cried (13/T1)
- He thought the lady was his daughter (17/T1)

- He didn't care about them (51/T2)
- They were very confused (09/T3)
- Before the guest came to his house (55/T4)

Non-target like formation and/or usage of *simple past* had the following characteristics:

- overgeneralisation (eg. He buyed ticket, 51/T1; He feeled unlucky, 25/T2)
- confusion between past and past participle (eg. The dog bitten his hand, 37/T2; He done it with fastly 41/T4)
- confusion between noun and verb (eg. They hostaged people, 09/T3)
- confusion between passive and active (eg. The cat was stolen their fish, 51/T4)
- combination of BE +Verb (eg. He was run, he was still run, 41/T2)
- confusion between past and progressive (eg. They didn't realising 17/T3)
- confusion of person markers (eg. They was drinking and laughing, 51/T3; Mr. Smith were really busy, 11/T4)

Simple progressive/ V-ing was not generally very appropriate in the guided speaking task.

This is because the nature of the task encouraged reference to past activities/events.

However, *simple progressive* is still used by some learners over time, by two at Time 1, four at Time 2, two at Time 3, and four at Time 4, and some of this usage is target-like within the contexts expressed (particularly at Times 1 and 4). The distribution of use of *simple progressive/V-ing* over time is shown in Table 6.8.

Table 6.8: Usage of Simple Progressive/V-ing - Control Group, Guided Speaking

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Subject	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target
07	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
09	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
11	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	100%	2	100%
13	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
17	-	-	1	0%	-	-	-	-	1	0%
25	-	-	2	0%	-	-	4	0%	6	0%
37	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
41	1	0%	-	-	1	100%	-	-	2	50%
51	-	-	4	0%	-	-	1	0%	5	0%
55	5	0%	5	100%	1	0%	3	0%	14	36%
All	6	0%	12	42%	2	50%	10	20%	30	27%

Whilst only on the part of two subjects, the use of *simple progressive* at Time 1 is consistently target like. At Time 2 subjects 17, 25 and 51 all use *simple progressive* in a target like way, but subject 55 appears to be in a confused state and is using *simple progressive* in a consistently non target like way (in contrast to this subject's usage at Time 1). The understanding of appropriate use *simple progressive* appears to have improved at Time 3, with the extent of usage dropping dramatically. The increase of use of *simple progressive* to four subjects (11, 25, 51, 55) at Time 4 suggests a willingness to use a variety of tenses, and it is important to note that the proportion of usage that is target like has increased significantly, in comparison with Times 2 and 3.

Some examples of use of *simple progressive* are as follows:

- Both these men *are hugging* (55/T1)
- When he *is jogging* (25/T2)

- They *are laughing* (55/T2)
- While they *are waiting* for the guests (11/T4)
- His wife *cooking* for the dinner (25/T4)

Formal errors in the use of *simple progressive* include:

- Omission of AUX (BE) (eg. His wife *cooking* for dinner (25/T4)
- choice of verb (eg. The police and this woman *are realising* now, 55/T1)

It is interesting to note that the omission of AUX (BE) is not particularly prevalent, but occurs most at Time 1 and Time 4 and not at all at Time 3.

Past progressive was acceptable in many contexts in the guiding speaking tasks, as the narrative refers *past* activities. When used *past progressive* is used in a target-like way most of the times to express *progressive* aspect in the *past*, the exception being once by subject 11 and once by subject 41 at Time 3. On both these occasions the progressive was not acceptable as the action was one that from the point of view of the speaker was completed (eg. After the bandit was going out (41/T3). The distribution of use of *past progressive* is shown in Table 6.9 below.

Table 6.9: Usage of Past Progressive - Control Group, Guided Speaking

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Subject	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target
07	-	-	1	0%	1	0%	-	-	2	0%
09	-	-	3	0%	1	0%	-	-	4	0%
11	-	-	2	0%	10	10%	4	0%	16	6%
13	-	-	4	0%	-	-	-	-	4	0%
17	-	-	-	-	1	0%	1	0%	2	0%
25	-	-	-	-	1	0%	-	-	1	0%
37	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
41	1	0%	3	0%	1	0%	2	0%	6	0%
51	-	-	-	-	3	0%	-	-	3	0%
55	-	-	5	0%	4	50%	-	-	9	22%
All	1	0%	18	0%	20	15%	7	0%	46	6%

Past progressive is hardly used at Time 1 with only one subject using this tense/aspect combination then. At Time 2 the number of students who use *past progressive* increases to 6 (07, 09, 11, 13, 41, 55). The increase use of *past progressive* at Time 2 might have a strong connection to the introduction of *progressive* aspect which made learners aware and conscious of the use of *past progressive* in the guided speaking at Time 2. By Time 3 eight subjects are using the *past progressive* and there is only one student overall who has not attempted to use the tense. However, the number of learners that use *past progressive* decreases back to three (11, 17, 41) at Time 4, suggesting that many students do not retain their learning after the conclusion of the explicit teaching phase.

Examples of use of *past progressive* usage include:

- He *was looking for* his friend (41/T1)

- It *was raining* (11/T2)
- They *were watching* the robbers' action (25/T3)
- The robbers *were enjoying* the money with the girls (55/T3)
- Mrs. Robins was cooking in the kitchen (41/T4)

In some cases the *progressive aspect* and *meaning* are appropriate and acceptable, but the form is not grammatically target like. The types of formal errors can be categorised as:

- confusion of *was* and *were* (eg. They *was having* a very nice time on the beach: 11/T3, They *was drinking* and laughing: 51/T3)
- confusion of *passive* and *progressive* (eg. They *was looking for* by the police: 51/T3, They *were filming* by the camera: 07/T3)
- in appropriate choice of verbs (nuance) (eg. A camera *was detecting* them: 11/T3)
- confusion in choosing progressive form (eg. The *raining was falling*: 41/T2)

Present perfect is not very appropriate in guided speaking tasks because all the activities expected to be reported were presented as happening in the past and having no connection to the present time. However, *present perfect* was still used by all but two of the learners at some stage over the four test times. In all cases the use of present perfect is not considered acceptable in terms of its functional appropriacy in context even though in most cases the tense was formed correctly. More appropriate and acceptable tenses would have been usually either past perfect or simple past. The distribution of use of *present perfect* is shown in Table 6.10.

Table 6.10: Usage of Present Perfect - Control Group, Guided Speaking

Time	1		2		3		4		Total	
Subject	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target
07	-	-	-	-	2	100%	2	100%	4	100%
09	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
11	-	-	-	-	1	100%	2	100%	3	100%
13	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100%	1	100%
17	1	100%	1	100%	-	-	-	-	2	100%
25	-	-	2	100%	2	100%	3	100%	7	100%
37	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
41	1	100%	-	-	-	-	3	100%	4	100%
51	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	100%	2	100%
55	1	100%	1	100%	-	-	-	-	2	100%
All	3	100%	4	100%	5	100%	13	100%	25	100%

At Time 1 *present perfect* is hardly used. At this stage, learners have not yet been introduced to the *present perfect* in their classes, which may contribute to why only two subjects (17,55) use *present perfect* at Time 1. The use of *present perfect* remains infrequent at Time 2 after its formal introduction, with only three subjects (17, 25, 55) using the tense/aspect combination. Although other subjects (07, 11) begin to use *present perfect* at Time 3 the number of students that use *present perfect* remains the same because subjects 17 and 55 use *present perfect* only until Time 2. The nature of the tasks does not encourage learners to use *perfective*, yet the formal teaching of the tense does seem to encourage the students to attempt to use it. Whilst they may form the tense appropriately their usage indicates a lack of understanding of the functional contexts in which the tense is appropriate. In particular, it is noticeable that for subject 25 the teaching leads to ongoing, but inappropriate usage of the tense. By the end of Time 4 all

but two of the learners have used the tense at least once, but none of these attempts have been target-like in terms of their functional appropriacy. Some examples of *present perfect* usage include:

- The father has make mistake (17/T1)
- has decided not to follow (25/T2)
- The pictures they have had (11/T3)
- It has eaten the fish (13/T4)

Categories of non-target-like usage in terms of grammatical forms are as follows:

- Use of Base Verb instead of past participle (eg. They have search, 25/T3, They have cook, 17/T4)
- confusion between *present perfect* and *passive voice* (eg. has been hide, 41/T4, has been arrange, 41/T4)
- confusion between *verb* and *adjective* (eg. The fish has been disappeared, 25/T4, The fish has gone: 17/T4)

Past perfect was potentially acceptable for the guided speaking tasks. However, at Time 1 it was not used at all, and at Time 2 only once by one learner and in a non-target like way functionally. What is evident though is that *past perfect* starts to be used by three subjects (09, 11, 17) by Time 3 on all occasions in a target like way, and by one additional learner (41) as well as these three at Time 4. In the case of one of these learners, 17, by Time the level of usage has increased to 10 occurrences, but with 40% non-target-like. The distribution of use of *past perfect* is shown in Table 6.11.

Table 6.11: Usage of Past Perfect - Control Group, Guided Speaking

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Subject	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target
07										
09					1	0%	1	0%	2	0%
11					2	0%	2	0%	4	0%
13										
17					3	0%	10	40%	13	31%
25			1	100%					1	100%
37										
41							3	0%	3	0%
51										
55										
All			1	100%	6	0%	16	25%	23	17%

Some examples of use of past perfect are:

- The robbers who *had stolen* Unity Bank (17/T3)
- After they *had finished* to cook (09/T4)
- Mr and Mrs Smith *had arranged* the table in the dining room (17/T4)

Categories of incorrect formation of *past perfect* are:

- Use of Base V instead of past participle (eg. ... a camera that *had record* their action. 17/T3, when they *had finish* to dress, 41/T4)
- omission of *been* for *passive voice* (eg. They *had reported* by a camera, 09/T3)

Present Modal (eg. can, has to, must) should normally have been in past tense. However, under certain circumstances *present modal* may have been acceptable, for example in

direct speech when learners comment or give ideas on the tasks. The first analysis is dealing with non target-like usage of present modal (Table 6.12). Three subjects (13, 17, 51) use *present modal* at Time 1, but all this usage is non-target like. Subject 51 continues to use *present modal* at Times 3 and 4, and all usage is non-target like. Subject 09 uses *present modal* twice at Time 2 with all usage being non-target like also. In contrast, two other learners (11 and 37) use the tense on two occasions and in the majority of their usage is target-like. For subject 37, in particular, there is a large amount of usage most of which is target-like.

Table 6.12: Usage of Present Modal - Control Group, Guided Speaking

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Subject	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target
07	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
09	-	-	2	100%	-	-	-	-	2	100%
11	-		3	33%	2	50%	-	-	5	40%
13	1	100%	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100%
17	1	100%	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100%
25	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
37	-	-	-	-	1	0%	14	7%	15	7%
41	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
51	1	100%	1	100%	-	-	2	100%	4	100%
55	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
All	3	100%	6	67%	3	33%	16	19%	28	39%

Some of use of *present modal* include:

- Because she can meet his grand child (13/T1)
- I can't imagine (11/T2)
- We can see the policeman or officer come to their house (37/T3)

- Finally they can enjoy their dinner party (51/T4)

The one example of incorrect formation of *present modal* involved confusion of verb and noun with the noun 'sport' being used as a verb (eg. He must sport: 51/T4).

The use of *past modal* was acceptable for all guided speaking tasks and, whilst it is very little used, it is noticeable that when it is used the usage is target-like. The distribution of use of *past modal* is shown in Table 6.13.

Table 6.13: Usage of Past Modal - Control Group Guided Speaking

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Subject	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target
07										
09										
11			1	0%	3	0%	2	0%	6	0%
13										
17										
25					1	0%			1	0%
37										
41					1	0%			1	0%
51					1	0%	1	0%	2	0%
55										
All			1	0%	6	0%	3	0%	10	0%

The usage of *past modal* is very uncommon both in terms of number of uses and numbers of learners who use it over time. The peak of use of *past modal* is at Time 3, when four learners in all use it, always in a target-like way. At Time 1 prior to the teaching phase *past modal* does not occur at all. Even after the introduction of past tense the use of *past*

modal has not yet appeared at Time 2 for all but one learner (subject 11). Only two learners (11 and 51) continue to use the *past modal* at the delayed post-test (Time 4).

Some examples of use of *past modal* are:

- Could be really regret (11/T2)
- They couldn't run away (25/T3)
- They couldn't do anything (41/T3)
- They would like to cook (11/T4)

There was only one example of non-target like formation of *past modal*, 11/T2 above ('Could be really regret') in which there was confusion of *Verb* and *adjective*, with 'regret' being treated as an adjective requiring Copula - BE.

6.2.2. Experimental group

Present simple/Base V is used extensively in the guided speaking tasks over time. The distribution of use of *Present simple/Base V* is presented in Table 6.14.

Table 6.14: Usage of *Present simple/Base V* - Experimental Group, Guided Speaking

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Subject	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target
06	18	94%	12	92%	17	0%	32	0%	79	35%
16	17	88%	10	80%	12	92%	18	0%	50	60%
20	15	93%	2	100%	21	0%	25	96%	63	63%
22	14	0%	6	18%	13	92%	12	75%	45	47%
26	18	0%	11	82%	18	61%	27	63%	74	47%
32	18	94%	18	94%	20	95%	40	0%	96	55%
36	21	100%	17	100%	13	100%	19	0%	69	74%
48	21	0%	17	71%	15	93%	18	94%	71	61%
52	21	0%	9	89%%	20	0%	10	80%	60	27%
54	16	0%	8	63%	6	83%	9	100%	39	49%
58	13	97%	1	100%	12	92%	7	86%	33	91%
All	194	50%	111	77%	167	64%	217	42%	687	55%

However, after such other *tenses* as *past tense*, *progressive*, *perfective*, and *future* have been introduced, the usage of *Present simple/Base V* decreases at Time 2. In fact, all subjects have less use of this tense at Time 2, except subject 32, and in some cases the amount of use is dramatically less (egs. subject, 20, 22, 52 and 12). There are three main factors which result in the amount of usage of *Present simple/Base V* in these tasks.

Firstly, some learners have viewed the activities in the tasks as activities taking place in the present (eg. at Time 1, subjects 22, 26, 48, 52, 54). Secondly, learners are not yet able to consistently use past tense when it should be past tense, and revert to use of *Base Verb*.

The use of direct speech in expressions, such as 'I think', 'you know', 'we can see', is another contributor to *present simple/Base V* use in each guided speaking task.

Some examples of *Present simple/Base V* are:

- He look at a girl (20/T1)
- The man run continuously (48/T2)
- The police succeed to capture them (06/T3)
- There is a big fish in the middle of the table (54/T4)

Categories of non-target like usage in terms of grammatical forms are as follows:

- Uninflected Base V only (eg. She speak loudly: 20/T1, Mrs. Smith cook the food: 32/T4)
- confusion of BE for 3rd person *singular* and *plural* (eg. There are a woman, 36/T1; There are a couple 52/T2)
- confusion between *Verb* and *noun* (eg. ... that he mistake, 06/T1)
- confusion between *passive* and *active* (eg. His foot to be bit and blood, 26/T2, Finally they take in a car of policemen, 26/T3)
- Base verb only for *passive* (Their record is investigate, 26/T3; ... which is use to identify, 16/T3)
- combination of BE+Verb (eg. They are apologise each other, 20/T4)
Why is happen to my best dinner, 06/T4)

Omission of COPULA - BE occurs in the language produced by all but two of the 11 learners at one time or another. Four subjects omit BE on a total of six occasions at Time 1. At Time 2 five subjects, including two from Time 1, omit the copula on a total of eight occasions. At Time 3, there is a noticeable drop in copula omission, with only two subjects omitting COP - BE on only three occasions altogether. However, there is then a large increase in the omission of COP-BE at Time 4 with seven subjects omitting the copula on a total of 11 occasions. For the experimental group the omission of copula is

twice as common at Time 4 as at Time 1. This constitutes almost a doubling in real terms given that the total occurrence of *simple present/Base V* for the group is only 186 to 206. We can conclude that whilst there is evidence of a possible short term beneficial effect of the teaching phase on the use of copula for the students in this group, that learning does not become automatised and is lost. There is actually a decline in accuracy in using the copula from Times 1 and 2 to Time 4.

The distribution of use of *simple past* is presented in Table 6.15. Seven subjects (06, 16, 20, 32, 36, 54, 12) use *simple past* at Time 1. Those using the tense most frequently also consistently use it in a target like way, whereas those with a small amount of usage (36, 52, 54) have 100% non-target like usage. The amount of usage of *simple past* increases more than threefold from Time 1 to Time 2, and at Time 2 there are only two instances of non-target like usage from a functional perspective in almost 200 finite Verb phrases using *simple past*.

The amount of usage of *simple past* decreases for most subjects at Time 3, and in the case of three of these (06, 20 and 52) all the usage is non-target like. By the completion of the teaching phase, Time 3, a wider range of tenses have been introduced. For some subjects this seems to lead to problems with appropriate choice of tense and consistency in use of tenses (eg. subject 06). At Time 4 the usage of the tense has increased again - not to the level at Time 2, but it is nevertheless more than twice the level at Time 1. All but two (06, 16) of the subjects use the tense quite frequently and in a target like way consistently.

Table 6.15 Usage of Simple Past - Experimental Group, Guided Speaking

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Subject	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target
06	8	0%	12	0%	8	100%	5	100%	33	39%
16	4	0%	15	0%	7	0%	25	100%	51	49%
20	21	0%	16	0%	8	100%	21	0%	66	12%
22	-	-	11	0%	5	0%	11	0%	27	0%
26	-	-	15	0%	13	0%	7	0%	35	0%
32	17	0%	34	0%	20	0%	1	0%	72	0%
36	3	100%	20	0%	10	0%	9	0%	42	7%
48	-	-	14	0%	8	0%	15	0%	37	0%
52	1	100%	17	6%	2	100%	28	0%	48	8%
54	1	100%	17	0%	25	0%	16	0%	59	2%
58	13	0%	21	0%	11	0%	10	0%	55	0%
All	63	8%	192	1%	117	15%	148	20%	520	10%

Some examples of use of *simple past* include:

- He thought she was his daughter (58/T1)
- He made many people laughing (20/T2)
- After they got the money from the cashier, they went out (32/T3)
- Tony rushed out from his house (52/T4)

The main categories of incorrect use of *simple past* in terms of grammatical forms are as follows:

- combination of BE+Verb (eg. He was feel so cold, 26/T2; They were succeed in robbing the bank, 06/T3)
- confusion of BE for 3rd pers. *singular* and *plural* (eg. The cashier were afraid, 32/T3)
- overgeneralisation (eg. He weared his dress, 26/T2; He bringed to his home, 16/T4)

- confusion between *past* and *past participle* (eg. The dog bitten his hand, 58/T2)
- confusion between *passive* and *active* (eg. It was bitten his leg, 20/T2)
- mixing of *past tense* and *present perfect* (eg. They didn't have seen for a long time: 32/T1)
- confusion between *verb* and *adjective* (eg. He didn't happy with that, 32/T2)

Usage of *progressive* aspect was appropriate and acceptable in the guided speaking task, but was more likely to be appropriate in *past tense*. In other words, *Simple progressive/V-ing* was generally not likely to be target like because the task in each case was expected to refer to past activities. However, *Simple progressive/V-ing* usage still occurs in experimental group in guided speaking tasks over time and is outlined in Table 6.16. In the case of V-ing without AUX - BE there is no specific marking of tense.

Five subjects (16, 36, 48, 52,54) use *Simple progressive/V-ing* at Time 1 and on all occasions the usage is target like. In contrast, the usage of *Simple progressive/V-ing* at Time 2 is less, and in the case of some subjects also non-target like (32, 52, 54). At Time 3 the usage of *Simple progressive/V-ing* increases and is once again consistently target-like for all six subjects using the form. However, at Time 4 whilst the amount of usage continues to increase and is equivalent to Time 1, two of the five subjects using the tense have examples of non target like usage (20, 26). There are two subjects (22, 58) who do not use *Simple progressive/V-ing* at any time. Both these subjects use *Past progressive* in a target like way from Time 2 onwards.

Table 6.16: Usage of Simple Progressive/ V-ing - Experimental Group, Guided Speaking

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Subject	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target
06	-	-	1	0%	4	0%	4	0%	9	0%
16	3	0%	1	0%	1	0%	-	-	5	0%
20	-	-	-	-	1	0%	3	100%	4	75%
22	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
26	-	-	1	0%	1	0%	5	60%	7	43%
32	-	-	1	100%	2	0%	-	-	3	33%
36	2	0%	-	-	-	-	1	0%	3	0%
48	2	0%	-	-	2	0%	2	0%	6	0%
52	3	0%	1	100%	-	-	-	-	4	25%
54	4	0%	1	100%	-	-	-	-	5	0%
58	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
All	14	0%	6	33%	11	0%	15	40%	46	17%

Some examples of *Simple progressive/V-ing* are as follows:

- He walking down the plane (14/T1)
- He is being served by the stewardess (54/T1)
- The rain is falling (52/2)
- I am telling you what happen with the fat man (54/T2)
- Smith is inviting his colleague through telephone (06/T4)

Categories of non-target like usage of *Simple progressive/V-ing* are as follows:

- Omission of AUX - BE (eg. 'He jogging in the morning' (25/T2))
- Choice of verb (eg. semantically inappropriate use of *progressive* as in 'He very very missing to her' (48/T1)).

- verb selection and/or structure (eg. 'The rain is falling' (52/T2) where 'It's raining' would be more appropriate; 'An old man seeing a picture in his hand' (54/T1) where 'looking at' a picture may have been more appropriate in this context; 'The husband is lightening on the candle (20/T3) instead of 'The husband is lighting the candle')

The most common category of non-target like usage in terms of the formation of progressive tense is the omission of AUX -BE. Four subjects (16, 36, 48, 54,) use only *V-ing* at Time 1, but this decreases at Time 2 to only three subjects (06, 20, 26), all of whom did not use progressive at all at Time 1. Use of *V-ing* without AUX-BE occurs for seven subjects (06, 16, 20, 22, 26, 32, 48) on some occasions at Time 3, including two who had made this error at Time 1 and all who had done so at Time 2. The problem seems to still remain at Time 4, but its incidence decreases to four subjects (06, 26, 36, 48) after the teaching phase is completed.

Most of the times *past progressive* was use in the guided speaking tasks reflects *progressive* aspect and meaning appropriately over time as well as correctly reflecting the tense(see Table 6.17). From Time 1 to Time 4 most of the subjects use the *past progressive* in a target like way when they use it. The main difference over time is in the number of learners attempting to use the tense. Before the teaching phase the use of past progressive is very limited. In fact, only two subjects (06 and 20) use *past progressive* at Time 1 with subject 20 using the tense/aspect combination extensively and consistently in a target-like way. The usage of *past progressive* increases dramatically at Time 2 with all learners using the tense at least once, and some using it on several occasions. Whilst two

of the subjects do not continue to use the tense at Time 3, its use is nevertheless quite widespread and the number of occurrences similar to Time 2. However, by a few weeks after the completion of the teaching phase at Time 4 there has been a noticeable drop in the use of *past progressive* and only four subjects (20, 52, 54, 58) use the tense. Given that subject 20 was already using *past progressive* consistently in a target-like way from before the teaching phase, only two other subjects (54, 58) seem to have acquired *past progressive* as a result of the teaching phase in a way that has enabled them to maintain their learning and continue to use the tense consistently and regularly.

Table 6.17: Usage of Past Progressive - Experimental Group, Guided Speaking Task

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Subject	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target
06	1	0%	5	0%	4	100%	-	-	10	40%
16	-	-	2	0%	-	-	-	-	2	0%
20	10	0%	8	0%	4	100%	12	0%	34	12%
22	-	-	3	0%	5	0%	-	-	8	0%
26	-	-	1	0%	5	0%	-	-	6	0%
32	-	-	1	0%	3	0%	-	-	4	0%
36	-	-	2	0%	4	0%	-	-	6	0%
48	-	-	1	0%	1	0%	-	-	2	0%
52	-	-	1	0%	-	-	1	0%	2	0%
54	-	-	3	0%	3	0%	4	0%	10	0%
58	-	-	2	0%	1	0%	5	0%	8	0%
All	11	0%	29	0%	30	27%	22	0%	92	9%

Some examples of *past progressive* usage include:

- He *was watching* the in flight movie on the way: (06/T1)
- He was crying (48/T2)
- ... and while they *err* they were robbing (06/T3)
- Tony was washing the plates (52/T4)

The main categories of non target like usage in terms of the formation of *past progressive* include:

- Choice of verb (nuance). Within the broad context *progressive* aspect is appropriate, but the specific choice of the verb is inappropriate. For example, 'He was seeing his body at the mirror' ('looking at') (06/T2); 'What the monitor was getting' ('recording') (54/T3).
- Confusion in singular/plural marking of BE (was/were). For example, 'They was preparing' (58/T4); 'They was welcoming' (58/4).
- Use of *active* instead of *passive* voice. For example, 'They were taking to the police office with car' ('were being taken' or 'the police were taking them') (06/T2).
- Mixing of *simple past* and *progressive*. For example, 'Because he was ashamed to many people he didn't running again ('was not running again') (20/T2).
- Omission of preposition in prepositional/phrasal verbs. For example, 'He looking the movie TV'(16/T1); 'He *looking* his grand daughter' (16/T1).

Present perfect was generally not appropriate in the guided speaking tasks. This is because the activities in guided speaking tasks were past activities and had no connection to the moment of speaking. However, learners still used *present perfect* in the task over time. The distribution of use of *present perfect* is shown in Table 6.18. *Present perfect* occurs once only at Times 1 and 2, on each occasion in a way that is acceptable in the context. In contrast at Time 3 it is used by four subjects (16, 20, 26, 32) on 6 occasions, and for three of these learners their usage is non-target like. At Time 4 it is used 12 times by six different learners (20, 22, 32, 48, 52 and 56) and for all but one of these the usage is consistently non-target like. This suggests that the teaching of *perfective* leads to many of the learners attempting to use the *present perfect* tense, but few use it appropriately and there is a lot of confusion about how to use it. Much of this confusion relates to the marking of *past* tense, as in many of the examples of non-target like usage the choice of *perfective* may be acceptable, but the actual tense ought to have been *past perfect*.

Some examples of use of *present perfect* are:

- He hasn't met her for a long time (54/T1)
- Because he have done the exercise (26/T2)
- Two policemen have arrived in this bank (20/T3)
- .. they have finish their dinner (32/T4)

Table 6.18: Usage of Present Perfect - Experimental Group, Guided Speaking Task

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Subject	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target
06	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
16	-	-	-	-	1	100%	-	-	1	100%
20	-	-	-	-	3	0%	2	100%	5	40%
22	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	100%	2	100%
26	-	-	-	-	1	100%	-	-	1	100%
32	-	-	-	-	1	100%	2	0%	3	33%
36	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
48	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100%	1	100%
52	-	-	1	0%	-	-	3	100%	4	75%
54	1	0%	-	-	-	-	2	100%	3	67%
58	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
All	1	0%	1	0%	6	50%	12	83%	20	65%

The main types of errors in the formation of *present perfect* were in the formation of the verbal participle, and lack of third person marking on the auxiliary HAVE (see eg. of 26/T2 above). In relation to the verbal participle, in some cases Base Verb was used in conjunction with HAVE (eg. 32/T4 above).

Past perfect was acceptable in many contexts within the guided speaking tasks (for usage see Table 6.19). At Time 1 and Time 2 *past perfect* was not used by any of the learners. The use of *past perfect* only occurs first at Time 3 (4 subjects - 29, 22, 32, 54) and expands to more learners at Time 4. In fact at Time 4, six subjects use the *past perfect* and all usage is target-like. The use of *past perfect* has inherent *perfective* aspect and meaning. Only one subject at Time 3 (subject 20) uses the tense three times in a non-target like way.

Table 6.19: Usage of Past Perfect - Experimental Group, Guided Speaking

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Subject	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target
06	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
16	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
20	-	-	-	-	3	100%	1	0%	4	75%
22	-	-	-	-	1	0%	4	0%	5	0%
26	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	0%	2	0%
32	-	-	-	-	1	0%	-	-	1	0%
36	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
48	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0%	1	0%
52	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
54	-	-	-	-	2	0%	1	0%	3	0%
58	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0%	1	0%
All	-	-	-	-	7	43%	10	0%	17	18%

Some examples of use of *past perfect* at Times 3 and 4 are:

- Suddenly the two policemen had arrived (20/T3)
- They had given all the money (54/T3)
- They had eaten the food (22/T4)
- After they had arranged the table (48/T4)

The most common type of non-target like usage in terms of grammatical form was the use of Base Verb instead of verbal participle (eg. They had prepare some food: 22/T4, Somebody had take their food: 26/T4). This occurred in more than a third of the sentences (6 occasions) (eg. pictures that had recorded by the camera: 22/T3).

The distribution of use of *present modal* is shown in Table 6.20. *Present modal* was not widely use by learners, but the usage did increase over time from three subjects at Time 1, and 2 subjects at Time 2, to 4 subjects at Time 3, and 7 subjects at Time 4. With regard to events/activities in guided speaking tasks *present tense* was not normally appropriate. However, under certain circumstances, such as direct speech, (eg. 'I can see an old man' (54/T1)) it was acceptable. It should be noted that all acceptable use of *present modal* in the tasks is *direct speech* from learners.

Table 6.20: Usage of Present Modal - Experimental Group, Guided Speaking

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Subject	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target
06	-	-	1	0%	-	-	-	-	1	0%
16	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0%	1	0%
20	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0%	1	0%
22	2	0%	1	0%	1	0%	1	0%	5	0%
26	-	-	-	-	3	100%	2	0%	5	60%
32	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0%	1	0%
36	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
48	1	0%	-	-	2	0%	1	0%	4	0%
52	-	-	-	-	6	0%	2	100%	8	25%
54	2	0%	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	0%
58	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
All	5	0%	2	0%	12	25%	9	22%	28	18%

Some examples of *present modal* include:

- We *can* see the old man (48/T1)
- We *can* see blood here (06/T2)
- The police *cannot* enter the room (52/3)

- We *can look* someone who... (20/4)

The use of *past modal* was acceptable for all guided speaking tasks in certain contexts.

The distribution of use of *past modal* is shown in Table 6.21 below. The use of *past modal* was very infrequent both in terms of numbers of use and numbers of learners who use it over time. At Time 1 *past modal* was used only once by a learner (subject 22). At Time 2 - *past modal* is used by four subjects (06, 20, 32, 54), but decreases to only three subjects at Time 3 (20, 32, 52) and further to only one subject (22) at Time 4. Six of the learners (16, 26, 36, 48, 52, 58) do not use *past modal* at all. It is notable that two of these (36, 58) do not use any modals in present either, whilst three others (16, 26 and 42) only start using *present modal* at Time 3 or Time 4.

Some examples of use of *past modal* include:

- He could phone his grand daughter (22/1)
- ... that could lose his weight (45/2)
- They could recognise the robbers (54/3)
- They could eat the fish with their friend in the dining room (22/4)

In terms of grammatical formation, the only noticeable non-target like form was the omission of the main verb, eg. 'They could about them' (32/2).

Table 6.21: Usage of Past Modal - Experimental Group, Guided Speaking

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Subject	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target
06	-	-	1	100%	-	-	-	-	1	100%
16	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
20	-	-	1	0%	2	100%	-	-	3	67%
22	1	0%	-	-	-	-	3	0%	4	0%
26	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
32	-	-	1	0%	1	0%	-	-	2	0%
36	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
48	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
52	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
54	-	-	2	0%	3	0%	-	-	5	0%
58	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
All	1	0%	5	20%	6	33%	3	0%	15	20%

6.2.3 Summary of Differences - Guided Speaking Task

Quantity and Range of Tenses Used

Students in the experimental group on average produced a greater number of finite Verb forms at Time 1 (see Table 6.22) than the control group, and also had a lesser proportion of these finite verbs that are in *present simple/Base V* form. During the teaching phase the control group increases the quantity of finite verbs produced more dramatically than the experimental group, but the experimental group has a sharper decrease in the proportion of verb forms that are in *present simple/Base V* to Time 2. At Time 3 the two groups are very similar in both the quantity of finite verb forms being produced and the proportion of these that are in *present simple/Base V* form. But the results at Time 4 indicate that the level of usage of *present simple/Base V* has not increased after the teaching phase for the

experimental group and their quantity of verb forms has increased further. In contrast, whilst the average quantity of verb forms has also increased for the control group, the proportion of these forms that are in *present simple/Base V* form has also increased considerably. This suggests that the control group has not maintained their willingness to use tense marking as well as the experimental group.

Table 6.22: Use *present simple/Base V* in guided speaking tasks in relation to total finite verb clauses, Control group vs Experimental group

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
	Present Simple	Total Clauses	Present Simple	Total Clauses	Present Simple	Total Clauses	Present Simple	Total Clauses	Present Simple	Total Clauses
Control Group										
Total	158	210	167	353	165	325	218	373	705	1261
% clauses Pres Simple	77%		47%		51%		59%		56%	
Mean No.	15.8	21.0	16.7	35.3	16.5	32.5	21.8	37.3	70.5	126.1
Experiment-al Group										
Total	186	281	103	338	164	353	206	425	659	1397
% Pres Simple	66%		31%		47%		49%		47%	
Mean No.	16.9	25.6	9.4	30.7	14.9	32.1	18.7	38.6	59.9	127

The data presented in Table 6.23 confirms that the experimental group is using a greater range of tenses. In particular, it is evident that the experimental group is using more past tense, both in simple and progressive. This is particularly evident at Times 1, 2 and, importantly, at Time 4, after the teaching phase has concluded. Most of the other differences are very small, although the control group does appear to use more perfect tenses (especially past perfect) and a larger increase in the use of present modal over time.

Table 6.23: Quantity and Average Usage of Tenses over time in guided speaking task for each group

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Group	Exp. Group	Ctrl Group	Exp. Group	Ctrl Group	Exp. Group	Ctrl Group	Exp. Group	Ctrl Group	Exp. Group	Ctrl Group
Total Attempt	281	210	338	353	353	325	425	373	1397	1261
Average	25.5	21.0	30.7	35.3	32.1	32.5	38.6	37.3	127	126
Present Simple	186	158	103	167	164	165	206	218	659	705
Average	16.9	15.8	9.4	16.7	14.9	16.5	18.7	21.8	59.9	70.1
Simple Prog.	14	6	6	12	11	2	15	10	46	30
Average	1.3	0.6	0.6	1.2	1.0	0.2	1.4	1.0	4.2	3.0
Simple Past	63	39	192	144	117	118	148	90	520	391
Average	5.7	3.9	17.5	14.4	10.6	11.8	13.5	9.0	47.3	39.1
Past Prog.	11	1	29	18	30	20	22	7	92	46
Average	1.0	0.1	2.6	1.8	2.7	2.0	2.0	0.7	8.4	4.6
Present Perfect	1	3	1	4	6	5	12	13	20	25
Average	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.4	0.6	0.5	1.1	1.3	1.8	2.5
Past Perfect	-	-	-	1	7	6	10	16	17	23
Average	-	-	-	0.1	0.6	0.6	0.9	1.6	1.6	2.3
Present Modal	5	5	2	6	12	3	9	16	28	28
Average	0.5	0.5	0.2	0.6	1.1	0.3	0.8	1.6	2.6	2.8
Past Modal	1	-	5	1	6	6	3	3	15	10
Average	0.1	-	0.5	0.1	0.6	0.6	0.3	0.3	1.4	1.0

Accuracy

Table 6.24 summarises the incidence of non-target like usage across the main tenses used in the guided speaking task for each group. Despite the students in the experimental group producing a larger average number of finite verb forms at Time 1, the proportion of non-target like usage for the 2 groups is virtually identical at Time 1. At Time 2 the

experimental group has a lower level of non-target like usage than the control group, but this then reverses at Time 3 and 4 with the experimental group having a lower level of accuracy in usage of tenses. Both groups exhibit improved levels of accuracy at Time 4 in comparison with prior to the teaching phase (Time 1), but the improvement in accuracy is superior for the control group.

Table 6.24: Incidence of non target-like usage across main tenses in the guided speaking task for both groups

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Group	Exp. Group	Ctrl Group	Exp. Group	Ctrl Group	Exp. Group	Ctrl Group	Exp. Group	Ctrl Group	Exp. Group	Ctrl Group
Present Simple	97	51	86	74	107	94	91	48	381	267
Simple Prog.	0	0	2	5	0	1	6	2	8	8
Simple Past	5	19	2	19	18	8	30	26	55	72
Past Prog.	0	0	0	0	8	3	0	0	8	3
Present Perfect	0	3	0	4	3	5	10	13	13	25
Past Perfect	-	-	-	1	3	0	0	4	3	5
Present Modal	0	3	0	4	3	1	2	3	5	11
TOTAL	102	76	90	107	142	112	139	96	473	391
Av.	9.3	7.6	8.2	10.7	12.9	11.2	12.6	9.6	43	39.1
% non-target of total verb forms	36.5%	36.2%	26.7%	30.3%	40.2%	34.5%	32.6%	25.7%	33.9%	31.0%

This brief summary of the differences between the groups suggests that students studying the Alternative Communication Grammar Method (the experimental group) are more adventurous and attempt to use a wider range of forms, and particularly, more past tense forms in the guided speaking task. However, whilst at Time 2 this group appears to use the tenses with a superior level of accuracy than the control group, this advantage is not

maintained. By the end of the teaching phase this group's tense/aspect usage is not as consistently target-like as that of the students studying with the Current Method (the control group) and they have a lower level of accuracy in appropriate usage of tenses.

6.3. Patterns of Usage in Free Speaking Task

In the free speaking tasks learners demonstrate the capacity to use a range of tenses and aspects, including *present simple/Base V*, *simple progressive/V-ing*, *present perfect*, *future*, and *simple past*. However, *present simple/Base V* is far and away the most favoured choice, at least partly as a result of the nature of the task, for which the learners were required to describe aspects of their life and experience. *Simple progressive/V-ing* and *simple past* were also used quite frequently.

This analysis of use of these tenses and aspects will mainly focus on the *main verbal constituent of the verb phrase* (verbs in *finite clauses* - both *main* and *subordinate clauses*). The figures depicted in the tables indicate the number of attempts for each learner to use that specific tense over time, together with the percentage of the usage that was non-target like. The basis of the categorisation of the usage being non-target like relates to whether the tense was used in a way that was functionally appropriate within the context that it was used. There may nevertheless have been formal errors in the formation of the tense. The nature of such errors is categorised and described separately as part of the discussion of usage of the tense, and is also evident in the frequency analysis included in section 6.1 of this chapter.

6.3.1. Control Group

Present simple/Base V is by far the most favoured choice of tense. Given that only the third person singular in *present simple* differs in form from the base form of the verb, these forms are treated together, but the use of this form is only accepted as target like in contexts in which *present simple* tense is acceptable.

The use of *present simple* outnumbers other tenses on each task consistently (see Table 6.25). In the majority of cases this usage was considered target like, indicating that the nature of the tasks permitted and fostered use of *present simple/Base V*. The use of the *simple present/Base V* increases for almost every subject from Time 1 to Time 2. This increase may relate to increased confidence in using verbs as a result of the introduction of the teaching phase. Both *present simple* and *simple past* tenses had been introduced before Time 2. Only one subject (13) uses less *present simple* at Time 2. At Time 3 the use of *present simple/Base V* decreases in some subjects (07, 25, 41, 55), whereas it continues to increase substantially for two subjects (37, 51). The decrease is partly offset by the increase in usage of a larger range of other tenses. A few weeks after the teaching phase is completed the use of *present simple/Base V* has increased further for 5 subjects (07, 09, 17, 25, 55).

At Time 1 all usage by all learners is target like. From Time 2 onwards there is a small amount of non-target like usage, but this constitutes a very small proportion of total usage for all four learners who have some non-target like usage. Indeed the only time at which the non-target like usage is greater than 10% is for subject 09 at Time 3, and this is the only occasion that subject 09 uses the tense in a non target like way. Overall, it can be

concluded that all learners use *present simple/Base V* appropriately and that many significantly increase the number of finite verb clauses using this tense over time.

Whilst the highest amount of usage on average is at Time 2 (during the teaching phase), Time 4 has the second highest amount of usage overall. There are differences between subjects particularly in the growth in number of verb phrases produced. Some subjects steadily and very significantly increase their output (eg. 51), whilst others do not increase their usage greatly (eg. 07) or actually decrease (eg. 13).

Table 6.25: Usage of Simple Present/Base V - Control Group, Free Speaking

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Subject	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target
07	16	0%	18	0%	15	0%	20	0%	69	0%
09	8	0%	26	0%	20	20%	27	0%	81	5%
11	21	0%	30	3%	33	0%	19	0%	103	1%
13	12	0%	10	0%	11	0%	11	0%	49	0%
17	5	0%	9	0%	8	0%	15	0%	37	0%
25	12	0%	36	0%	10	10%	23	0%	81	1%
37	9	0%	16	0%	22	9%	22	23%	79	9%
41	11	0%	24	0%	15	0%	7	0%	57	0%
51	3	0%	12	0%	21	0%	20	0%	56	0%
55	14	0%	15	0%	8	0%	11	0%	48	0%
All	116	0%	196	1%	163	4%	175	3%	650	2%

Some examples of use of *Simple present/Base V* are as follows:

- I go to take a bath (41/T1)
- My father works in one company in Lok Sumawe (51/T2)
- I think this is the good place to study (07/T3)
- We are in the Faculty of Letters (11/T3)

- My country has also many indigenous tribes (55/T4)

Categories of non-target like usage of *Present simple/Base V* in terms of form are mainly as follows:

- omission of *-e/s* third person marking. (eg. My father always *listen* to us 51/T2, My father *give* rules that 41/T2, Our campus *have* a large yard 17/T3, Indonesia *have* the big sea..... 51/T4).
- omission of BE copula (eg. ... the youngest child always like that 11/T2)
- use of BE + Verb. (eg., ... this campus *is look* not so busy 11/T3, My parents *are live* in Pematang Siantar 25/T2).

Whilst seven of the ten learners have at least one instance of omission of Copula BE, making this the most common formal error, there are only about 4-5 examples of omission across the group of learners at any one time, and only 17 clauses with copula BE omitted in total.

Simple progressive/V-ing is not frequently used in free speaking tasks, and is used most at Time 1. *Simple progressive/V-ing* usage gradually lessens through the following tasks. The use of *Simple progressive/V-ing* over time is shown in Table 6.26. A noticeable aspect of learners' usage is the contrast between Time 1 and the later times in terms of acceptability of usage. At Time 1 all four subjects (17, 37, 41, 55) who use *Simple progressive/V-ing* use it consistently in a non-target like way, whereas at all the later times the usage for all subjects, including 41, 55 who used it at Time 1, is target-like.

Table 6.26: Usage of Simple Progressive/V-ing - Control Group, Free Speaking

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Subject	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	%Non Target
07	-	-	-	-	1	0%	-	-	1	0%
09	-	-	4	0%	2	0%	-	-	6	0%
11	-	-	-	-	2	0%	1	0%	3	0%
13	-	-	1	0%	-	-	-	-	1	0%
17	8	100%	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	100%
25	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
37	3	100%	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	100%
41	3	100%	-	-	1	0%	-	-	4	75%
51	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
55	3	67%	2	0%	1	0%	-	-	5	40%
All	17	94%	7	0%	7	0%	1	0%	32	50%

Some examples of use of *Simple progressive/V-ing* are as follows:

- He is studying at Methodist University (09/T2)
- My oldest brother is working in Aceh now (13/T2)
- If we are talking about campus (11/T3)

Categories of non target-like usage of *Simple progressive/V-ing* tense/aspect in terms of grammatical formation are:

- inconsistency of using tense (eg. I usually read a book and *watching* television 55/T1, I usually play football and *swimming* 55/T1).
- omission of AUX - BE. (eg. I *watching* television 41/T1, They *might wondering* about Indonesia 11/T4)
- incorrect use of progressive (eg. In my spare time I *am watching* TV(17/T1))

The attempts to use *progressive*, in fact, also includes the use of non-finite progressive V-ing with progressive aspectual meaning as a gerund or verbal complement after *by*, *like*, *with*, *after*, *besides*, *before*, *for* and verbs following finite verbs, such as *go* and *like*. For example, with instances of activity:

- I spend my free time *by watching* television, *listening* to the music (09/T1).
- Besides *swimming*, ... and After *going* home(55/T1).
- I am cooking special food *for watching* a special program in the TV(17/T1).

This suggests that many of the learners have a broad understanding of progressive aspect and are able to use it in a range of relevant contexts.

Simple past is used by a small, but increasing number of learners over time (see Table 6.27). At Time 1 *simple past* was used only once by one subject (55). *Simple past* is used by an increasingly large number of subjects from Time 2 onwards (three subjects (09, 25, 37) at Time 2, four (09, 11, 51, 55) at Time 3 and 6 (07, 09, 37, 41, 51, 55) at Time 4).

However, much of the usage of *simple past* is non-target like. Most non-target examples of *simple past* were more appropriate in *present simple*. Looking at the pattern of usage of the various learners there is little evidence of a pattern of more consistently target like usage over time by learners who use the tense more than once. However, for the group overall, it is noticeable that the lowest level of non-target like usage is at Time 3, immediately after the end of the teaching phase.

Table 6.27: Usage of Simple Past - Control Group, Free Speaking Task

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Subject	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target
07	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	60%	5	60%
09	-	-	1	0%	1	100%	1	100%	3	67%
11	-	-	-	-	1	0%	-	-	1	0%
13	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
17	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
25	-	-	2	50%	-	-	-	-	2	50%
37	-	-	5	80%	-	-	3	67%	8	75%
41	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100%	1	100%
51	-	-	-	-	3	0%	1	100%	4	25%
55	1	100%	-	-	1	0%	1	100%	3	67%
All	1	100%	8	63%	6	17%	12	75%	27	59%

Some examples of use of *simple past* are:

- I usually play football and swimming if I *had* money (55/T1).
- I always thought that my family is very big (37/T2).
- I *didn't choose* it wrong to study here (51/T3).
- I was so proud with my country (41/T4).

The main categories of non target-like usage of *simple past* is terms of grammatical forms include:

- confusion of *adjective* and *verb* (eg. I *didn't satisfied* to enter this campus, 09/T3)
- confusion of past and infinitive (I am (fortunate) because I can *entered* this campus, 51/T3, ... because many student want to *entered* to this campus, 51/T3).

Table 6.28 shows the distribution of usage of *present perfect* by the learners over time.

The *present perfect* is not widely used by these learners over time, with the only notable amount of usage being at Time 2, when 6 subjects (09, 11, 17, 29, 37, 41) use the tense on a total of 10 occasions. When all times are included then all but three (07, 13, 51) of the subjects have used the *present perfect* at least once at one of the times. When *present perfect* is used the usage is uniformly target like suggesting that learners attempt to use the tense only in contexts in which they are confident of its appropriateness. The increased use of *present perfect* at Time 2 might be related to the nature of the task.

However, the intervention of teaching activities might also have enriched the learners' understanding of acceptable use of *present perfect* in terms of function, and fostered the use of the tense. *Present perfect* was used largely with a small number of common verbs such as *marry*, *get*, *decide*, *grow*, *spread*, *teach*, and *do*. For example, *marry* is used 5 times and *get* is used 3 times.

Table 6.28: Usage of the Present Perfect - Control Group, Free Speaking

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Subject	No.	%Non Target	No.	%Non Target	No.	%Non Target	No.	%Non Target	No.	%Non Target
07	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
09	-	-	1	0%	-	-	3	0%	4	0%
11	-	-	2	0%	-	-	-	-	2	0%
13	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
17	-	-	2	0%	-	-	-	-	2	0%
25	-	-	3	0%	-	-	-	-	3	0%
37	-	-	1	0%	-	-	-	-	1	0%
41	-	-	1	0%	1	0%	-	-	2	0%
51	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
55	1	0%	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0%
All	1	0%	10	0%	1	0%	3	0%	15	0%

Some examples of use of *present perfect* include:

- Today I try one program, that is, Lotus 2.4 ... and the result is I've *done* it well (55/T1)
- My father *has decided* ... that my sister and I have to back before seven o'clock at noon (17/T2).
- I like the friend that I've *got* (41/T3).
- ... it's made the tourism ("tourists") want to invite ("visit") and made and made the income for our country (09/T4).

Categories of non target-like usage of *present perfect* in terms of grammatical formation was mainly as follows:

- omission of perfective marking on verb (eg. We have been grow up and spread ... 25/T2)
- confusion between passive and active (eg. We have been grow up and spread ... 25/T2)
- confusion of past tense and perfective (eg. eg. My brother *has got* a job on Jakarta my brother *got* job on Jakarta ... 37/T2)

Future is also used by subjects in the free speaking tasks only to a limited extent (see Table 6.29). All of the attempts to use future are target-like. Future is only used by five subjects over time, two (11,37) at Time 1, one (51) at Time 2, two (09,51) at Time 3, and three (07, 09, 51) at Time 4. In fact, only two subjects (07 and 51) use *future* more than once over time. The limited use of *present future* over time appears primarily to be the result of the nature of the tasks. The intervention of teaching phase does not seem to facilitate the increase in the production of the future overall, but for two subjects (09 and

61) the use of future commences during (T2) or by the end of the teaching phase (T3) and continues, and may have been fostered by learning that took place during the teaching phase.

Table 6.29: Usage of Future - Control Group, Free Speaking

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Subject	No.	%Non Target	No.	%Non Target	No.	%Non Target	No.	%Non Target	No.	%Non Target
07	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0%	1	0%
09	-	-	-	-	1	0%	1	0%	2	0%
11	1	0%	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0%
13	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
17	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
25	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
37	1	0%	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0%
41	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
51	-	-	1	0%	2	0%	1	0%	4	0%
55	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
All	2	0%	1	0%	3	0%	3	0%	9	0%

Some examples of usage of *future tense* are as follows:

- I *am not going to* pass it just like that (11/T1).
- I can't do it but I'll try it (37/T1).
- I think my family *will* move to Medan (51/T2).
- I *will* study hard to get my ambition (51/T3).
- I *will* tell you about the Indonesian ... my country Indonesian (07/T4).

The only instances of non target-like formation of the tense involve confusion among *passive*, *future*, and *the verb marking* (eg. ...the people *will be make* against ...). However, with regard to function in its context *future* is acceptable.

Present modal is used by most learners, but infrequently over time (see Table 6.30 below). The use of *present modal* is in a target-like way most of the time. In fact, the only occurrence of non-target like usage is at Time 3 by one subject (41) on one occasion. The number of subjects using *present modal* increases gradually over time (2 subjects (13, 17) at Time 1, three subjects (11, 41, 51) at Time 2, four subjects (09, 25, 41, 51) at Time 3 and 5 subjects (09, 37, 41, 51, 55) at Time 4. In addition, the amount of usage also increases, although the largest increase in occurrence is from Times 1-3 and Time 4, where across the learners *present modal* is used on 12 occasions. With regard to the usage of *present modal* it is difficult to argue that the nature of the task contributes to the increase and decrease of the use of the *present modal* over time. However, it is possible that the teaching intervention widened the range of tenses that the learners attempted to use.

Table 6.30: Usage of Present Modal - Control Group, Free Speaking

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Subject	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	%Non Target
07	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
09	-	-	-	-	1	0%	2	0%	3	0%
11	-	-	1	0%	-	-	-	-	1	0%
13	3	0%	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	0%
17	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
25	-	-	-	-	1	0%	-	-	1	0%
37	1	0%	-	-	-	-	2	0%	3	0%
41	-	-	1	0%	2	50%	1	0%	4	25%
51	-	-	2	0%	1	0%	4	0%	7	0%
55	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	0%	3	0%
All	4	0%	4	0%	5	20%	12	0%	25	4%

Some examples of usage of *present modal* are:

- But for this time I can't do it (37/T1)
- We don't have to wonder about it (11/T2)
- ... that the Faculty of Letters must have language laboratory (09/T3)
- We can buy it freely (55/T4)

Modals are also used in the *past* tense by subject 11 three times at Time 1 and once at Time 3 and twice at Time 4 by subject 37 (refer Table 6.31). All the attempts to use *past modal* were target-like except once at Time 1. With regard to the tense (*past*) the limited use of *past modal* was largely the result of the nature of the task, but also relates to the level of proficiency of the learners, as the use of *past modal* in the context of the free speaking task has the nuance of referring to the mildness of possibility and has an overtone of particular politeness (Murphy, 1985: 54, Liz & Soars, 1996: 148)..

Table 6.31: Usage of Past Modal - Control Group, Free Speaking

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Subject	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target
07	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
09	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
11	3	33%	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	33%
13	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
17	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
25	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
37	-	-	-	-	1	0%	2	0%	3	0%
41	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
51	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
55	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
All	3	33%	-	-	1	0%	2	0%	6	17%

Some examples of use of *past modal* are as follows:

- Because it could be useful for our relationship (11/1)
- I would like to follow the exam to pass the government university (37/T3)
- We should know ... how to be a good Indonesian (37/T4)

6.3.2. Experimental Group in Free Speaking

Present simple/Base V is largely used by learners in the experimental group over time (refer to Table 6.32). In the overwhelming majority of cases this usage was considered target-like, indicating that the nature of the tasks permitted and fostered use of *present simple/Base V*. The level of usage of *Present simple/Base V* for the group overall remains very similar from Time 1 to Time 3, but increases a little at Time 4. All learners are using finite verbs in *Present simple/Base V*. They do differ, however, in the quantum of this usage (eg. contrast between four learners who each have less than 10 usages at Time 1, and three who have more than 20 usages (one actually over 30)). There are also differences between learners in the extent to which their usage of the tense changes over time. Some learners reduce their usage of the tense once the teaching phase has commenced (eg. subjects 06 and 52), whereas others increase (eg. 32), and yet others fluctuate quite dramatically from one time to the next, most characteristically with higher usage at Time 2 (eg. 36, 54).

Virtually on all occasions the use of *present simple* is target-like both in terms of form and function. However, there are some verb phrases which would have been more acceptable in another tense due to the context or the environment of the clause.

Table 6.32: Usage of Present Simple/Base V - Experimental Group, Free Speaking

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Subject	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target
06	13	0%	9	0%	6	100%	7	0%	35	18%
16	29	0%	27	11%	27	0%	46	0%	129	3%
20	23	0%	15	0%	20	0%	28	0%	86	0%
22	7	0%	7	0%	4	0%	26	29%	42	18%
26	10	0%	8	0%	23	0%	24	0%	65	0%
32	9	0%	12	0%	24	0%	13	0%	56	0%
36	14	0%	32	0%	17	0%	13	0%	77	0%
48	15	0%	9	0%	16	0%	18	0%	59	0%
52	33	0%	27	0%	19	16%	19	0%	98	3%
54	18	0%	29	0%	18	0%	12	0%	77	0%
58	5	0%	5	0%	7	0%	23	0%	40	0%
All	176	0%	180	2%	182	5%	229	3%	767	3%

Some selected examples of use of *present simple/Base V* are as follows:

- I like watching TV (06/T1)
- I always listen to the radio (61/T1)
- I live with my parents in Medan (20/T2)
- But there is no laboratory in this campus (36/T3)

The only categories of non target-like use of *present simple/Base V* in terms of its grammatical form are:

- Failure to mark for third person singular on verb (eg. Indonesia have many many archipelago 22/T1, Now he work for Pertamina at Pangkalan Berandan 36/T2)

- Omission of copula BE (egs. That all (07/T1); Because my house on the corner on my block (17/T2); Because they interested to see Indonesia (07/4).

Omission of Copula BE is the most common formal error and occurs at least once for all, but one of the learners. Its incidence increases over time, Time 1(3 occurrences) -Time 3 (13 occurrences), and then is a little less at Time 4 (10 occurrences).

Simple progressive/V-ing is the second most favoured choice of tense used by learners in the experimental group in the free speaking task. Table 6.33 shows the distribution of usage of *simple progressive/V-ing* over time.

Table 6.33: Usage of Simple Progressive/V-ing - Experimental Group, Free Speaking

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Subject	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target
06	2	50%	1	0%	-	-	-	-	3	33%
16	3	100%	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	100%
20	1	100%	1	0%	-	-	-	-	2	50%
22	1	100%	3	33%	-	-	-	-	4	50%
26	1	100%	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100%
32	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
36	3	100%	-	-	2	0%	-	-	5	60%
48	3	100%	3	0%	1	100%	3	100%	10	50%
52	-	-	1	0%	-	-	-	-	1	0%
54	3	100%	6	0%	2	0%	-	-	11	27%
58	-	-	1	0%	-	-	-	-	1	0%
All	17	94%	16	6%	5	20%	3	25%	41	46%

The peak use of *simple progressive/V-ing* is at Times 1 and 2, where all learners but subject 32 use the tense at least once. *Simple progressive/V-ing* is used on 17 occasions by 8 learners at Time 1 and on 16 occasions by seven learners at Time 2. What is noticeable is that at Time 1 all the usage, except on one occasion by subject 06, is non-target like in terms of its context. This non-target like usage largely involves using *simple progressive/V-ing* when *present simple* is appropriate. In contrast, at Time 2 the opposite is the case - all usage other than on one occasion (subject 22) is target like. This suggests that the teaching phase has assisted learners in using the tense in a functionally appropriate way.

The usage of *simple progressive/V-ing* is infrequent at Times 3 and 4 suggesting that the learners are preferring some of the other tenses they have learnt and possibly also that the nature of the tasks does not provide a lot of need for the tense. However, it is evident that for all but one learner (subject 48) this usage continues to be consistently target like. Subject 48 seems to be an example of a learner who has not retained learning that appeared to have been acquired during the teaching phase at Time 2, as this learner continues to use *simple progressive/V-ing* at Times 3 and 4, but reverts to using it in a functionally inappropriate way (as for this learner also at Time 1).

Some examples of use of *simple progressive/V-ing* are as follows:

- I wake up at nine o'clock ... I am washing my dress and (16/T1).
- After I finish them I *am taking* a bath (20/T1).
- My oldest sister *is working* in a college (06/T2).
- I ... am studying English at Diploma 3 (36/T3).

In terms of its formation non target-like use of *simple progressive* can be categorised as:

- omission of AUX - BE with progressive (eg. I *watching* television, I also *playing* with my young sister).
- confusion between *simple progressive* and *-ing* marking for adjective (eg. I am feeling boring because nobody come to my house 48/T1)

Simple past is the second most favoured choice of tense used by these learners in the free speaking task (see Table 6.34). Simple past is used by all learners at least once over time, but most of the attempts are not target-like in terms of their acceptability within the context they are used. The lowest level of usage of *simple past* is at Time 1 when only four learners use the tense on a total of 6 occasions, all but one of which is non-target like. The usage of *simple past* increases dramatically at Time 2, when eight learners (06, 16, 20, 22, 26, 52, 54) use the tense on 24 occasions, and 75% of this usage is non target like. One learner (16) overuses *simple past*, using it on 10 occasions in total. The high usage of *simple past* at Time 2 may have to do with the introduction of simple past in the teaching phase. The usage decreases at Time 3 with only 7 learners using the tense on 15 occasions. Whilst three of these learners use the *simple past* consistently in contexts in which it is target like, the other four learners still have entirely non target like usage. At Time 4 the usage increases again with eight learners (16, 22, 26, 32, 36, 48, 52, 58) using the tense a total of 20 times, and with the proportion of non target like usage increasing to 90%, higher even than at Time 1.

By the end of the teaching phase and beyond, it is only possible to say that 3 learners from the group have acquired the capacity to use *simple past* in a target like way. These

are subjects 06, 22 and 54. Some subjects (eg. 36, 58) seem to have gone backwards in their learning as they have better target like performance at earlier times than at Times 3 or 4. Others (eg. subject 52) appear to be improving their level of target like usage across the teaching phase, but then relapse at Time 4.

Overall we can conclude that the teaching intervention seems to bring about an increase in the production of *simple past*. However, for the majority of learners the teaching intervention has not yet led to target-like production. There is still confusion between the use of *past tense* and *present tense*, and *simple past* is not used in a target-like way most of the times in terms of functions. The main cause of non target-like use is confusion between the use of *past simple* and *present simple* in relation to a truth that started in the past and is valid until the moment of speaking, and, perhaps, will still be valid until some time in the future. (eg. 'In my family I was the oldest child' 26/2).

Some examples of use of *simple past* are as follows:

- I didn't stay with my parents.(52/T1).
- At the first time I *came* to this campus is very happy (52/T3).
- I entered this campus in 1995 (58/T3).
- I *wanted* to introduce Indonesia to the world (36/T4).

Table 6.34: Usage of Simple Past - Experimental Group, Free Speaking

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Subject	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target
06	-	-	1	100%	3	0%	-	-	4	25%
16	3	100%	10	90%	4	100%	2	100%	19	95%
20	1	100%	4	75%	3	100%	-	-	8	88%
22	-	-	1	100%	-	-	2	0%	3	33%
26	-	-	2	100%	-	-	2	100%	4	100%
32	-	-	-	-	1	100%	1	100%	2	100%
36	-	-	1	0%	1	100%	3	100%	5	80%
48	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	100%	2	100%
52	1	100%	4	50%	1	0%	6	100%	12	75%
54	-	-	1	0%	-	-	-	-	1	0%
58	1	0%	-	-	2	0%	2	100%	5	40%
All	6	83%	24	75%	15	60%	20	90%	65	77%

Present perfect is used infrequently by the experimental group in the free speaking task (see Table 6.35 below). In fact, *present perfect* is mainly used at Time 2 (by 3 learners - subjects 16, 26, 36), but is also used at Time 4 by 2 learners (16, 54). Most of the time when used the *present perfect* is target like within the context. However, only 2 (subjects 36 and 54) of the four learners demonstrate a capacity to use the tense consistently in a target like way.

The small amount of usage of *present perfect* may have been contributed to by a number of factors. Most important of these was the nature of tasks, which did not provide contexts in which *present perfect* was required. In addition, when speaking very few

learners chose to view or were able to view things as *perfective* activities. Some example of use of *present perfect* are:

- In a big city in my country “gotong royong” has gone (16/T2).
- There are so many natural resources. Several have been done (54/T4).
- ... and several haven’t yet (54/T4).

Table 6.35: Usage of Present perfect - Experimental Group, Free Speaking

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Subject	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target
06	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
16	-	-	1	0%	-	-	1	100%	2	50%
20	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
22	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
26	-	-	1	100%	-	-	-	-	1	100%
32	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
36	-	-	6	0%	-	-	-	-	6	0%
48	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
52	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
54	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	0%	2	0%
58	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
All	-	-	8	13%	-	-	3	33%	11	17%

The main categories of non target like use of present perfective in terms of grammatical forms are:

- omission of regular and irregular past participle marking (eg. They have *live* at my home town Samosir 26/T2)

- confusion about 3rd person singular marking of HAVE (eg. My youngest brother has ... have *graduate* for college 36/T2)

Present future is not used by these learners very often in this task. In fact, instances of its use only occur at Times 1, 3 and 4 (refer Table 6.36). However, the *present future* is used consistently in a target-like way by six (20, 22, 32, 36, 54, 58) of the seven learners who use it. Only subject 06 shows evidence of non target like usage in terms of the appropriacy of the form in its context on both occasions when the tense is used. Most noticeable is the absence of use by any learners of *present future* at Time 2, possibly the result of the strong focus on the usage of other tenses in the first part of the teaching phase. Also, there is no evidence of a large increase in *future* production after the teaching phase is completed (Time 3). But at Time 4, a few weeks after the teaching phase is completed, the use of present future increases to 8 occurrences by three learners who have not used it previously.

Some examples of use of *present future* include:

- If I have much money maybe I'll go to see a movie in city (36/T1).
- This is the place where I *am going to* study (06/T3).
- We must study hard and we *will* (20/T3).
- And they *will try* to keep the peace as long as they can (58/T4).

Table 6.36: Usage of Present future - Experimental Group, Free Speaking

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Subject	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target
06	1	100%			1	100%			2	100%
16										
20							1	0%	1	0%
22	1	0%							2	0%
26										
32					1	0%			1	0%
36	2	0%							2	0%
48										
52										
54							4	0%	4	0%
58	2	0%					3	0%	5	0%
All	6	17%			2	50%	8	0%	16	13%

Present modal is used by learners an increasing amount and by an increasing number of the learners over time (see Table 6.37). Significantly, when used the *present modal* is used consistently in a target like way by all learners. The number of subjects (4 - 16. 20. 52, 54) who use *present modal* remains the same at Time 2, but the amount of usage increases slightly. At Time 3 there is a dramatic increase both in the number of learners using the tense (from 4 to 9 - subjects 16,20, 22, 26, 32, 36, 48, 52, 54) and in the amount of their usage, although particularly in the case of one learner (54), who uses *present modal* 8 times. At Time 4 the use of *present modal* decreases slightly to 18 times and it is also less diverse, although, nevertheless, seven subjects still use the *present modal* at least once. When using modals within the free speaking task the learners show a clear preference for *present modal*, most likely because of the nature of the tasks they have

been asked to engage in. In contrast, *past modal* occurs only twice at Time 4 (subjects 22 and 52 - both target-like).

Table 6.37: Usage of Present Modal - Experimental Group, Free Speaking

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Subject	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target	No.	% Non Target
06	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
16	3	0%	2	0%	1	0%	5	0%	11	0%
20	-	-	3	0%	1	0%	1	0%	5	0%
22	-	-	-	-	2	0%	2	0%	4	0%
26	1	0%	-	-	1	0%	4	0%	6	0%
32	-	-	-	-	3	0%	-	-	3	0%
36	-	-	-	-	3	0%	-	-	3	0%
48	-	-	-	-	1	0%	1	0%	2	0%
52	3	0%	2	0%	2	0%	1	0%	8	0%
54	1	0%	4	0%	8	0%	-	-	13	0%
58	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	0%	4	0%
All	8	0%	11	0%	22	0%	18	0%	59	0%

Some learners in the experimental group show evidence of quite adventurous choices of tense/aspect at times within the free speaking task. *Past progressive, past perfective, present perfective progressive* are amongst the tenses used by some of these learners over time, which have not been presented in the analysis above.

Present perfective progressive occurs twice, once by subject 22 at Time 2, and once by subject 54 at Time 3, and on both occasions used in a target like way:

- My young sister is studying at Junior High School. She *has been studying* there since 1995 (22/T2).

- I *have been studying* in my ... *studying* English in my campus for about one year (54/T3).

Past progressive is only used by one learner (16) on a number of occasions at Time 2, for example:

- because he was working now at Pekan Baru (16/T2).
- My youngest brother ... he was studying at Senior High School (16/T2).

In fact, the use of *past progressive* here is not appropriate in terms of the choice of tense (which should be *present*), although the usage of *progressive* aspect is acceptable within the contexts.

Past perfect is used by two learners, one at Time 2 and one at Time 4. Here are the examples:

- Bengkalis is famous place and many many visitors *had came* there (22/T4).
- In Medan I *had live* with my family my relatives (26/2).

In both these examples *present simple* would have been the most appropriate tense because the inherent action that conveys the aspect/meaning of the sentence is not yet completed. The action started in the past, but continues to the moment of speaking and has no limit in continuing into the future.

6.3.3 Summary of Differences - Free Speaking Task

Quantity and Range of Tenses Used

The average production for all attempts in the free speaking task for the experimental group is higher than for the control group most of the times. The only exception is at Time 2 (see Table 6.38) where the average production for the control group is higher than

for the experimental group. For the experimental group the proportion of use of the *simple present/Base V* declines after the teaching phase is introduced and increases slightly at the end of the teaching phase, whilst for the control group the proportion of use of the *simple present/Base V* increases during and immediately after the teaching phase. A few weeks after the teaching phase is completed, at Time 4, the usage of the *simple present/Base V* is still lower for the experimental group than for the control group. This means that the range of use of other tense/aspect combinations in the experimental group is greater than in control group. It appears from this that the ACGM used in experimental group produced a gradually increasing amount of output within the experimental group with learners using a greater variety of tense/aspect combinations. This suggests that the learners in the ACGM were more confident about expressing themselves and more adventurous in experimenting with tense and aspect in their spoken production. As some of the earlier data has indicated not all this usage of other tenses and aspects was target-like (see for example, the section on usage of *simple past*), so the accuracy level was not necessarily superior for the experimental group.

Table 6.38: Use *present simple/Base V* in free speaking tasks in relation to total finite verb clauses, Control group vs Experimental group

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
	Present Simple	Total Clauses	Present Simple	Total Clauses	Present Simple	Total Clauses	Present Simple	Total Clauses	Present Simple	Total Clauses
Control Group										
Total	112	146	193	231	167	194	177	217	649	788
% clauses Pres Simple	77%		84%		86%		82%		82%	
Mean No.		14.6		23.1		19.4		21.7		78.8
Experimental Group										
Total	174	214	171	245	168	231	230	284	743	974
% Pres Simple	81%		70%		73%		81%		76%	
Mean No.		19.5		22.3		21.0		25.8		88.5

The introduction of the grammatical features in context, as well as written activities and communicative practices assigned during the teaching phase (Time 1 - Time 2) in the experimental group, created a lively class and made the learners more active than those in the control group. For the experimental group this resulted in highly motivated learners and also in the lessening of what in the normal Indonesian approach to classroom teaching (as in the current method for the control group) is a very formal interpersonal relationship between learners and instructor in the class. A less formal atmosphere in the class, in fact, encouraged learners to be involved and participate more actively.

Learners in the experimental group are more productive than learners in control group across virtually all of tense/aspect combinations over time (see Table 6.39). *Present perfect* and *Past Modal* are exceptional as the average usage in the control group is slightly higher than in the experimental group. Learners in the experimental group were more productive in terms of the average number of finite verb phrases even before the teaching phase commenced. What is evident is that the control group has a very large increase in their usage of verb phrases and tense/aspects from Time 1 to Time 2, but do not manage to maintain this level of usage, slipping back at Time 3 and then only marginally increasing again at Time 4. This suggests that whilst the current method showed greater benefits in terms of immediate productivity, the learning that took place was not able to be built on very well over the longer term. In contrast, the experimental group makes a smaller increase in usage from Time 1 to Time 2 and also decreases a little at Time 3, but then increases substantially again to Time 4. They seem better able to benefit from their learning after the end of the teaching phase, and are more productive in the longer term than the control group.

In addition, learners in the Experimental Group are more adventurous in the range of tenses that they attempt to use. This group uses a much larger number of *present modals* and a larger number per learner of *simple progressive* and *simple past* as well as a number of examples of other tense/aspect combinations, especially at Time 2.

Table 6.39: Quantity and Average Usage of Tenses over time in free speaking task for each group

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Group	Exp. Group	Ctrl Group	Exp. Group	Ctrl Group	Exp. Group	Ctrl Group	Exp. group	Ctrl Group	Exp. Group	Ctrl Group
Total Attempt	214	146	245	231	231	194	284	217	974	788
Average	19.5	14.6	22.3	23.1	21.0	19.4	25.8	21.7	88.5	78.8
Present Simple	174	112	171	193	168	167	230	177	743	649
Average	15.8	11.2	15.6	19.3	15.3	16.7	20.9	17.7	67.6	64.9
Simple Prog.	16	16	17	8	5	7	5	2	43	33
Average	1.5	1.6	1.6	0.8	0.5	0.7	0.5	0.2	3.9	3.3
Simple Past	6	2	23	8	16	5	18	10	63	25
Average	0.6	0.2	2.1	0.8	1.5	0.5	1.6	1.0	5.7	2.5
Present future	7	2	-	1	2	3	7	3	16	9
Average	0.6	0.2	-	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.3	1.5	0.9
Present Perfect	1	1	9	10	-	1	2	3	12	15
Average	0.1	0.1	0.8	1.0	-	0.1	0.2	0.3	1.1	1.5
Present Modal	8	4	11	1	22	5	18	12	59	22
Average	0.7	0.4	1.0	0.1	2.0	0.5	1.6	1.2	5.4	2.2
Past Modal	-	3	-	-	-	1	2	2	2	6
Average	-	0.3	-	-	-	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.6
Others	-	-	6	-	1	-	1	-	8	-
Average	-	-	0.6	-	0.1	-	0.1	-	0.7	-

Structural Accuracy

The 3rd person singular in *simple present* is not used frequently by the students in the free speaking task over time in either group (see Table 6.40). However, the use of 3rd person singular verb contexts is marginally greater in the experimental group than in the control group. What is noticeable is that the experimental has a consistently lower rate of marking 3rd person singular (normally -s/-es). Prior to the teaching phase there is a marked difference between the groups in that the control group marks for 3rd person 100% of the time whereas the experimental group students only mark 3rd person -s/-es 17% of the time. For the control group there is a notable deterioration in 3rd person marking after Time 1, dropping back to about 50% of the time. The experimental group continues to mark for 3rd person less than 20% of the time at Time 2, but then gradually the level of 3rd person marking increases from Time 3 and through to Time 4. In terms of structural accuracy in a frequently noticed feature of English morphology, which is considered late acquired, the control group exhibits a higher level of accuracy in their production. In contrast, the experimental group are more productive in terms of the number of 3rd person clauses produced, but their focus is less on accuracy and accuracy only starts to slowly develop over time.

Table 6.40: Proportion (%) of use of -e/s for 3rd person singular marking in present simple (eg. He goes, She calls) in free speaking tasks for each group

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
-e/s marking	Use of -e/s	use of 3rd person	use of -e/s	use of 3rd person	use of -e/s	Use of 3rd person	use of -e/s	use of 3rd person	use of -e/s	use of 3rd person
Control Group										
Total	4	4	9	17	4	8	4	8	21	37
% 3 rd pers marking	100%		53%		50%		50%		57%	
Mean No.		0.4		1.7		0.8		0.8		3.7
Experimental Group										
Total	1	6	4	22	1	3	6	15	12	46
% 3 rd pers marking	17%		18%		33%		40%		26%	
Mean No.		0.6		2.0		0.3		1.4		4.2

When the functional appropriacy of choice of tenses is considered it is similarly evident that the control group is more accurate than the experimental group over time. Table 6.41 shows the incidence of non target like usage of the main tenses used for both groups.

Whilst the two groups are comparable at Time 1 in terms of the average incidence of non target like usage, from Time 2 onwards the level of non target like usage in the Experimental Group is double or greater than that of the Control Group. In particular, the Experimental Group has a high level of non target like usage of the simple past tense, in comparison with the Control Group. Both groups have a high incidence of non target like usage of simple progressive at Time 1, but the teaching phase in both methods seems to make a dramatic difference to the learners' understanding of the appropriate usage of this tense. For the control group there is no non target like usage from Times 2-4, and for the Experimental Group just a minimal amount of non target like usage.

Table 6.41: Incidence of non target-like usage across main tenses in the free speaking task for both groups

Time	1		2		3		4		Total 1-4	
Group	Exp. Group	Ctrl Group	Exp. group	Ctrl Group	Exp. Group	Ctrl Group	Exp. Group	Ctrl Group	Exp. Group	Ctrl Group
Present Simple	-	-	3	1	9	7	6	5	18	13
Simple prog.	13	15	1	-	1	-	3	-	18	15
Simple past	5	2	18	4	9	1	16	7	48	14
Present future	1	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	2	-
Present Perfect	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	2	-
TOTAL	20	17	23	5	20	8	25	12	88	42
Av.	1.8	1.7	2.1	0.5	1.8	0.8	2.3	1.2	8.0	4.2

The Alternative Communicative Grammar Method appears to enrich the opportunities for learners to engage in the use of the grammar rules and this appears to have resulted in these learners being more productive, both in terms of the quantity of finite verb phrases produced and in the range of tenses used in free speaking. It is evident that learners in the current method, who have more controlled practice of grammar rules, acquire a greater level of accuracy in their use of tenses in the free speaking task, but their output is not as plentiful. It appears also that some of the benefits they may have attained in accuracy and increase in productivity during the teaching phase are gradually lost after the teaching phase has been completed, and thus, that their learning is not as well able to be maintained and built upon.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS

7.1 The Two Teaching Methods

The data collected using the COLT observation proforma indicated that both classes participated well in the classes analysed. The differences between the methods in action were not as great as had been intended and assumed by the researcher. This may partly have resulted from the large class size (up to 30), and the difficulty in establishing a different classroom dynamic given the sort of teaching approach the students were used to. There was a strong element of teacher directed control of the classroom and of the structure of activities and interactions in both methods. However, in the alternative communicative grammar method there was somewhat less direct teacher control and more opportunity for student to student interaction. There was also greater use of extended text types and focus on function in language usage. In addition, the experimental group (ACGM) participated in specially designed *communicative practice* activities. Whilst it took some time for students to learn how to participate in such activities by the second and third lessons analysed they enthusiastically participated in student to student interactions designed to enable this more spontaneous practice.

Yet even in the control group, which was not specifically provided with communicative practice, unconsciously the teacher encouraged active participation in discussion relating to tenses being learnt (both in grammar explanation episode and correction/feedback

episode) leading to a different type of communication, which was nevertheless spontaneous. An important difference, however, was that the group exposed to the current teaching method did not get as many contextualised examples of the grammar features being taught and did not have opportunity for practice in extended text types, being restricted to practice only in discrete point tasks. Students in the current method did spend longer on grammar explanation and feedback and correction, meaning that they could be assumed to have greater explicit knowledge of the grammatical forms they were being taught.

In discussing the findings of the classroom analysis it can be concluded that the activities used in teaching the alternative communicative grammar teaching method are probably best categorised as 'precommunicative' because they still very much focussed on linguistic knowledge and the situation was somewhat artificial. Whilst these activities did not fully conform to Littlewood's (1981) and Nunan's (1989) criteria for communicative language teaching, they nevertheless constituted a significant departure from the approach to language teaching used within the current method.

7.2 Teaching Method in Relation to Performance over Time

On the measures used to assess performance of the students in each group and to compare this over time (see Chapter 5), the students in the current method class, the control group, were marginally stronger prior to the teaching intervention and had on average higher mean scores. Both groups progressed over time, but any advantage that the control group had prior to the teaching intervention was not evident at Time 4. In fact, in some cases

the experimental group had higher mean scores, although none of the differences were significant. This suggests that being exposed to the alternative communication grammar method did not disadvantage the experimental group, and, in fact, if anything, they were advantaged, as they improved their position in relation to the current method group. A comparison of the improvements made by each group over time (see section 5.2) confirmed that the experimental group had made marginally more improvement over time than the control group overall, and had particularly performed better than the control group in the less form focussed and more open-ended and spontaneous tasks. In contrast, improvement over time for the control group was more restricted and was only evident in the discrete point tasks.

A noticeable feature of the performance of both groups was that much of the progress that was evident during the teaching phase was gradually lost, so 'learning' was not always retained. However, the evidence that the experimental group progressed a little more over time also supports the contention that the students in the experimental group retained some of their learning a little better.

The findings from this analysis need to be treated with caution. There is only limited evidence of the superior performance of the experimental group - the overall differences between the groups are quite small and there is also quite a lot of individual variation within each group (refer Chapter 6 for more discussion of this). A number of aspects of the approach taken were found not to be ideal - for example, the use of proficiency rating for assessment of student performance on the writing and speaking tasks proved not to be very satisfactory in discriminating changes in performance, and the performance on cloze

tasks was consistently very poor. In addition, the scale of the teaching intervention was relatively small (approximately 1/5 of the total teaching time over a six week period). Whilst the observed differences were small, if such results were extended as a result of a more widespread use of similar teaching techniques then the impact on student performance could be considerably larger.

7.3 Teaching Method and Second Language Acquisition and Performance

The analysis in Chapter 6 provided the means to examine in much greater detail how the learners in each group performed in their usage of tense and aspect in two of the more spontaneous tasks, guided speaking, which was designed to elicit substantial usage of past tenses and free speaking, which involved more usage of habitual and present tenses.

A lot of commonality was evident in the performance of students in the two groups. In particular, there was similarity in the transitional forms produced by the students. For example, *Base V* in which there was no marking of tense or aspect was a very commonly occurring feature of the students' second language production. Once the learners started to mark for tense the separation of tense marking from the root verb by means of 'BE+ tense marker + V' was a commonly occurring transitional form for past tense. Students in each group also commonly omitted the copula 'BE' and omitted person and/or number marking. Similarly, consistency in tense usage was a great difficulty for students in each group. These transitional forms are similar to those noted in other studies of acquisition of English as a second language (eg. Bailey, Madden and Krashen, 1974; Andersen, 1991; Bardovi-Harlig and Reynolds, 1995)

One of the most noticeable features of the narratives produced in the guided speaking task was the tendency to vary between *simple present/Base V* and past tense. In this context it was sometimes clear that the learner had failed to mark for past tense (ie was using *Base V*), however, in other cases the learner appeared to have adopted a different viewpoint to the events part way through the narrative and was using present tense to give greater immediacy to the narrative (egs. He run on the road and some people laugh him (17/T2); When he is jogging there are four teenagers that laugh at him (25/T2)). This characteristic has also been noted by Bardovi-Harlig and Reynolds (1995).

In terms of second language acquisition, using the data obtained cross-sectionally there is support for the trend reported in the literature of Base forms/non-past being acquired before past (eg. Andersen, 1991; Bailey, Madden and Krashen, 1974; Bardovi-Harlig and Reynolds, 1995). In terms of aspect progressive appears to be acquired before modal, with perfective probably being even later acquired. A noticeable feature of the texts produced by the learners was the high level of avoidance, both of past tense, and particularly, of complex tenses. Because of the relational/contextual nature of requirements for complex tenses, it was relatively straightforward for students to avoid generating contexts requiring the perfective or other complex tenses, and this is what most of the learners did. This agrees with findings of researchers such as Bardovi-Harlig and Reynolds (1995), Hinkel (1997) and Gradman and Hanania (1990). It was notable that when these more complex tenses were produced they tended to be used in a target-like way, indicating that they were only used when the learner/s were confident about their usage and were otherwise avoided.

Some differences were also evident between the groups in terms of their performance on the speaking tasks. These are discussed in some detail in sections 6.2.3 and 6.3.3. In summary, the analysis suggested that in both guided speaking and free speaking tasks, the experimental group were more adventurous and attempted to use a wider range of tense/aspect combinations. In the guided speaking task this group especially used more past tense forms (both simple and continuous), whereas in the free speaking task they used a greater amount of non-simple present/Base V than the control group. This difference was maintained after the end of the teaching phase at Time 4. In addition, in the free speaking task the experimental group, taught with the alternative communicative grammar method, produce considerably more clauses overall. In particular, it is noticeable that the amount of clauses they produce steadily increases, with a particular increase from Time 3 to Time 4. This suggests that the experimental group experienced greater long term benefits from the teaching phase in terms of the quantity of their output, as well as being more willing to experiment in their tense and aspectual choices. This finding supports the contentions of those advocating communicative language teaching (eg. van Ek, 1979) that communicative activities facilitate fluency in L2 production.

In contrast, there is evidence to suggest that the performance of the control group was superior in terms of the accuracy of their second language production. For example, in the guided speaking task, whilst the experimental group had a lower level of non-target like usage at Time 2, by Times 3 and 4 their level of non-target like usage was higher than for the control group. The control group improved its level of non-target like usage from Time 1 to Time 4 by more than 10%, whereas the improvement for the experimental group was only 4%. A similar trend was evident in the free speaking task, where after

having similar proportions of non-target like usage of tenses at Time 1, the control group's level of non-target like usage significantly improved whereas that of the experimental group stayed similar or deteriorated. In addition, in the free speaking task, which involved a lot of usage of simple present, it was possible to examine the level of accuracy in person marking for third person singular, a feature of English morphology that is widely recognised as being late acquired (eg. Bailey, Madden and Krashen, 1976). This analysis revealed that whilst the experimental group produced more 3rd person singular clauses in simple present, the control group marked 3rd person singular -s to a greater extent. The superiority of the control group in 3rd person singular -s marking was particularly noticeable at Times 1-3. Interestingly, a distinctive feature of the difference in accuracy between the two groups was in the trends in their performance. The control group had little usage, but 100% -s marking at Time 1 and then plateaued to mark -s about 50% of the time from Times 2-4, whereas the experimental group had a low level of marking of 3rd person singular -s at Times 1 and 2 (only 17-18%), but then from Time 3 to Time 4 the percentage of marking gradually increased to reach 40%.

7.4 Teaching Method and Different Types of Linguistic Knowledge

The control group, taught by the current method, had a stronger focus on form and more focus on the development of explicit knowledge than the experimental group. This control group did perform marginally better on the discrete point tasks and also had greater accuracy in their use of 3rd person -s and in appropriate usage of tenses. However, this was contrasted to the experimental group, whose teaching method placed more emphasis on the development of fluency and the development of the acquired system of

linguistic knowledge. Some of the differences in performance support the proposal that the experimental group developed greater fluency in English - they produced more clauses, and also they were taking more risks in experimenting with target language forms in spontaneous production. This seemed to contribute to their superior ongoing improvement in performance after the end of the specific teaching phase, and their greater improvement overall.

As has been mentioned previously, the results of this research must be treated as tentative. Nevertheless, they are suggestive that a teaching methodology based on communicative principles in language teaching can enhance fluency and risk taking among learners, which may, in turn and in time, lead to superior learning outcomes, even if accuracy is not as high as when more traditional teaching methods have been employed. At the same time, though, the analysis has shown how a focus on grammatical forms can enhance accuracy in usage, so there can be value in the teaching program including some explicit teaching of grammar and practice of this in restricted contexts. In fact, it seems that what needs to be considered is the balance between the two. The current method employed at the University of North Sumatra is heavily focussed on the development of explicit linguistic knowledge, and on the mastery of linguistic forms. It appears that a teaching method that has a stronger focus on the development of implicit, acquired knowledge, the use of language in context and on communicative practice could be of value in improving students' overall performance in English as a second language.

7.5 Future Research

Many factors contribute to the learning outcomes for students, including teaching method, individual learner variables, class size and classroom dynamics. One of the challenges for researchers interested in classroom second language acquisition is to assess the importance and relative contribution of these various factors. Given the historically large class sizes in Indonesian university language classes, an important area for future research should be the relative contribution of factors such as class size, teaching method and the resulting classroom dynamics to the success of ELT programs. For example, is it possible to have comparable success with communicative language teaching methods in large classes (eg. >30-40) in comparison with smaller classes (<20)?

Another area that is worthy of future research and which relates to classroom management and dynamics is the nature and extent of L2 modeling and target-like L2 input that is necessary to assist learners in their second language development. For example, how important is it for the learner to be hearing target like usage? Can learners benefit from pairwork in L2 if their partner may not be consistently producing target-like forms? In the Indonesian context one of the reasons for a strongly teacher centred approach has been a belief in the importance of exposure to the best English language model available, that of the teacher. Yet, this teacher-centred approach has traditionally limited the opportunity for student to student interaction and practice, which researchers such as Storch (1999) and Widdowson (1984) have demonstrated to have positive effects in the L2 classroom.

An interesting finding of the study was how much of the grammar learning that appeared to occur during the teaching phase was lost after the teaching concluded. This seems to support the theory that the learner will only genuinely learn when he/she is developmentally ready, as has been proposed by numerous researchers including Pienemann and Krashen (see, for example, section 2.3.1). Retention of learning is clearly an area that deserves further investigation. Should less be introduced and more time given for this small amount to be retained, with new features then being introduced more incrementally? Are there ways in which material can be presented so that retention of learning can be enhanced?

The analysis of second language acquisition of this group of Indonesian learners did not reveal transitional forms or errors that could easily be attributed to the influence of the learners' first language, Bahasa Indonesia. Indeed, as discussed in the previous section, Indonesian learners of English seem to make similar errors and generate similar transitional forms to other learners of English as a second/foreign language. There may, however, be subtle differences in the types or proportion of errors and transitional forms and/or in the rate of acquisition in relation to L1. It would be interesting to research this more closely by comparing the output of Indonesian learners of English with that of students with other language backgrounds. In particular, given previous research on errors and avoidance in SLA (eg. Schachter, 1974), it would be interesting to investigate the extent to which the phenomenon of avoidance of complex tenses and aspects is a product of L1 influence, as Bahasa Indonesia has a much simpler system of tense and aspect marking than English.

Finally, there is scope to undertake more research on English tense and aspect acquisition by Indonesian learners. This study has provided very limited opportunity to analyse verbal semantics in relation to aspectual marking. Closer analysis of this could prove very valuable in understanding how and why learners seem to find it easier to comprehend and express the nuances of time reference and aspect with certain classes of verbs, and what differences may exist between Indonesian background English learners and English native speakers in their understanding of 'temporal' and 'viewpoint' aspect.

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Appendix 3.1 - Discrete Point Tasks, Times 1 - 4

Time 1

Put the verb into the correct form, present continuous or present simple.

Examples: Please don't make so much noise. I am studying (study).

This machine doesn't work (not/work). It hasn't work for years

1. The government is worried because the number of people without jobs (increase).
2. Thomas usually (stay) in the Polonia Hotel but now he (stay) in the Darma Deli Hotel.
3. Excuse me! I (look) for a phone box. Is there one near here?
4. Look at this toy! It (look) like a real animal.
5. The moon (go) around the earth.
6. The kettle (boil). Can you turn it off?
7. I (not/like) like him at all.
8. Alexandra is at the party at the moment. She (wear) red shoes.
9. Put on your jumper and head cover. It (snow) outside.

Put the verb into the correct form, past continuous or past simple.

Examples: We were having (have) our anniversary day when my uncle
called (call) to congratulate us last night.

- 1 Alan (prepare) breakfast when the electricity
 (go) out.
- 2 Sandy (find) her grandmother's wedding dress
 when she (clean) out the attic.
- 3 He (not/see) his friend waving him a
 greeting because he (read) a magazine.
- 4 James (rip) his trousers when
 he (dance).
- 5 I (damage) my refrigerator when I
 (remove) frost in it.

Put the verb into the correct form, present perfect simple or present perfect continuous.

Examples: I have lost (lose) my key. Can you help me look for it?

You look tired. ... Have you been working (you/work) hard?

1. There's a strange smell in here. (you/cook) something?
2. Betty (study) for three hours.
3. (you/eat) at the new Italian restaurant?
4. (Gerry/ask) Diana to marry him?
5. They ... (read) the books you gave them but they
..... (not/finish) them yet.
6. 'Sorry I'm late.' 'That's all right. I (not/wait) long'.
7. Anita (clean) the windows. So far she
..... (clean) five of them and there are two more to do.
8. My brother is an actor. He (appear) in several movies.

Put the verb into the correct form, past perfect continuous or past continuous.

Examples: I tried to catch Tom but I couldn't. He was running (run) very fast.
 He was out of breath. He had been running (run).

1. The passengers were waiting for a 9:45 train. It was running 15 minutes late. They (wait) for 15 minutes.
2. Tom and Pauline broke up. They (go) out together for a long time.
3. She (watch) television for 15 minutes when somebody knocked at the door.
4. Adam and Mark (sit) in the hut and their clothes were full of mud. They (work) in the rice-fields.
5. He didn't notice the speed limit sign. He (think) of something else.
6. The residents (live) there for years when an estate agent forced them to sell their land and houses.
7. Tony was terribly thirsty. He (jog).
8. When I arrived, the workers had gone and the trucks were empty. They (unload) the trucks.
9. Jack fell out of a tree while he (remove) the trunks.

Put the verb into the correct form using will or going to.

Examples. A: Why are you turning on the television?

B: I am going to watch (watch) the news.

A: Oh, i've just realised - I haven't got any money.

B: Don't worry - that's no problem. I ll lend (lend) you some.

1. A: I can't do it by my self.

B: Don't worry, I (help) you.

2. A: Why is your parent buying so much food?

B: I (have) a special 17th birthday party.

3. A: I have decided to join the group going to the zoo to see orang-utans next week.

B: Oh really? Which zoo (you/visit)?

4. A: It's already very late. How can I get to the train station?

B: Don't you worry about it. I (give) you a lift to the station.

5. A: Why is Anita so busy cooking in the kitchen?

B: Yes she really is. I think she (have) a party with some of her fellow students tonight.

6. A: What are you doing with all those things?

B: I think I (make) a bench.

7. A: The phone is ringing.

B: I (get) it.

8. A: We accept cash and credit cards. How would you like to pay?

B: I (pay) with cash.

9. A: Look! There is a lot of smoke coming from the car.

B: We had better stay away. I think it (explode).

10. A: Why does Tom leave so early?

B: He (see) a doctor this afternoon.

Put the verb into the correct form using used to or present simple.

Example: Dennis .. doesn't smoke (not/smoke) any more but he

used to smoke (smoke) 40 cigarettes a day.

Did he use to smoke (he/smoke)?

1. I (drive) to work every day but now I
..... (take) a train to work.

2. Betty (never/watch) fiction movies. Now she
..... (watch) almost every new fiction movie.

3. Farmers with small farms (not/use) fertiliser for their
crops. Now they (use) it quite a lot.

4. The shop which is located near the corner of the road
(not /have) many customers now, but (it/have)
a lot of customers?

5. George (teach) aerobics but now he
..... (be) the manager.

Time 2

2/1

Put the verb into the correct form, present continuous or present simple.

Examples: Please don't make so much noise. I am studying (study).

This machine doesn't work (not/work). It hasn't work for years.

1. Long hair (become) trendy again.
2. Joseph usually (grow) tomatoes in his garden but this season he (grow) cabbages.
3. You can't borrow my dictionary. I (use) it at the moment.
4. This container is very heavy. It (weigh) a lot.
5. Light (travel) faster than sound.
6. The river (flow) very fast today, faster than yesterday.
7. I (not/believe) in ghosts.
8. She (expect) her friend at the moment.
9. Check the air-conditioner again! Yes, it (work) now.

Put the verb into the correct form, past continuous or past simple.

Examples: We were having (have) our anniversary day when my uncle
called (call) to congratulate us last night.

1. Adrian (work) in his garage on his car when the
gas tank (explode).
2. He (not/want) to leave the house
because he (wait) for a phone call.
3. Bertha (hit) the fence when she
..... (reverse) the car.
4. Tony (bump) his head against the goal post
when he (try) to catch the ball.
5. I (tear) the sheet when I
..... (pull) it out of the typewriter.

Put the verb into the correct form using will or going to.

Examples: A: Why are you turning on the television?

B: I am going to watch (watch) the news.

A: Oh, I've just realised - I haven't got any money.

B: Don't worry - that's no problem. I will (lend) you some.

1. A: I can't eat hot food.

B: I (order) food without chilli.

2. A: What are you doing with all that coloured paper?

B: I (make) flowers with it.

3. A: I have to write two articles.

B: Oh really? What kind of articles
(you/write)?

4. A: We've run out of petrol.

B: I (go) and get some from a garage.

5. A: She looks very tidy.

B: Yes she looks very different today. I think she
(give) a speech.

6. A: Are you going to leave?

B: Yes, I think so. I (attend) a meeting.

7. A: Can I possibly speak to Tom, please?

B: Yes you can. I (get) him for you.

8. A: What would you like to eat? Fried rice or fried noodles

B: I (have) fried noodles, please.

9. A: Why is the hen making so much noise?

B: I think it (lay) an egg.

10 A: What is he doing with his car?

B: I think he (have) it checked.

Put the verb into the correct form using used to or present simple.

Example: Dennis doesn't smoke (not/smoke) any more but he
used to smoke (smoke) 40 cigarettes a day.
Did he use to smoke (he/smoke)?

1. Country people (not/play) golf very often but now they
 (play) it a lot.
2. I (eat) very little but now I
 (eat) a lot.
3. Sue (never/speak) Japanese. Now She used to speak
 (speak) Japanese fluently.
4. Ivan (visit) his parents once a week but now he
 (be) too busy to visit them as regularly.
5. The Student Health Centre (not/have) many
 patients now. (it/have) a lot of patients?

Put the verb into the correct form, past perfect continuous or past continuous.

Examples: I tried to catch Tom but I couldn't. He was running .. (run) very fast.

He was out of breath. He had been running (run).

1. When I walked into the room, it was empty. But there was a smell of cigarettes. They(smoke) in the room.
2. The two boys came into the house. They had a football and they were both very tired. They(play) football.
3. Mr and Mrs Jenkins went to live in the south France. Six months later Mr Jenkins died. They (live) in the south of France for six months when Mr Jenkins died.
4. Jim was on his hands and knees on the floor. He (look) for his cigarette lighter.
5. The boys (walk) along the road for about 20 minutes when a car stopped and the driver offered them a lift.
6. A man was having a rest under a tree. There were two plastic bags sitting next two him. He (collect) used cans.
7. When I arrived, Ann and Eva (wait) for me. They were rather annoyed with me because I was late and they (wait) for a very long time.
8. George burnt his arm while he (iron).
9. She(sit) on the sofa for about 5 minutes when her mother called her.

Put the verb into the correct form, present perfect simple or present perfect continuous.

Examples: I have lost (lose) my key. Can you help me look for it?

You look tired. Have you been working (you/work) hard?

1. Jessica (sit) on that bench for about one hour.
2. (you/receive) the brochure yet?
3. (Barry/tell) Peter about the party next week?
4. They (play) for 30 minutes but they
..... (not/score) any goal.
5. 'What is the movie about?' 'I don't know. I (not/watch)
it long.'
6. Agnes (paint) all day. She
..... (paint) the front fence and there is one more to do.
7. You look pretty fit. (exercise) regularly?
8. He is a traveller. He (visit) a lot of countries.

Time 3

3/1

Put the verb into the correct form, present continuous or present simple.

Examples: Please don't make so much noise. I am studying (study).

This machine doesn't work (not/work). It hasn't work for years.

1. Winter is coming and the weather (get) colder.
2. Gordon usually (teach) Writing but he (teach) Reading at the moment.
3. Boys! Be quiet, please! I (talk) with your father.
4. That car over there looks expensive. It (belong) to our neighbour.
5. The sun (rise) in the East.
6. Turn down the stereo, please. The baby (sleep).
7. I (not/understand) what you mean.
8. Joan must be nervous. She (bite) her fingernails.
9. Don't go outside kids! It (rain).

3.1.13

Put the verb into the correct form, past continuous or past simple.

Examples: While Tom was cooking (cook) the dinner, the phone
rang (ring).

1. Alexander..... (water) the flowers in the garden when the lightning (strike) the pine tree next to the house.
2. Ann (meet) her old friend at the station when she (wait) for her train.
3. He (not/go) out because he was (expect) his friend.
4. John (hurt) himself when he (play) soccer.
5. I (break) the lawn-mower when I (mow) the grass.

Put the verb into the correct form using will or going to.

Examples: A: Why are you turning on the television?

B: I am going to watch (watch) the news.

A: Oh, I've just realised - I haven't got any money.

B: Don't worry - that's no problem. I will (lend) you some.

1. A: These shoes are too big for me.

B: I (get) you a smaller size.

2. A: Why are you so nervous?

B: You see, I (sit) for an exam.

3. A: I am looking for a second-hand car.

B: What sort of car (you/buy)?

4. A: I don't have time to go shopping.

B: Don't worry. I (do) it for you.

5. A: There are a lot of dark clouds in the sky.

B: Yes, it (rain).

6. A: Where are you going?

B: Well er, I (see) my supervisor.

7. A: Have you heard any news from Arnold?

B: No, not at all, I (let) you know as soon as I
hear something.

8. A: Which colour would you like to have? Black or brown?

B: I (have) the black one.

9. A: What is Clara doing there?

B: She (make) a phone call.

10. A: What is Harry talking about?

B: He (get) married next week.

Put the verb into the correct form, present perfect simple or present perfect continuous.

Examples: I have lost (lose) my key. Can you help me look for it?

You look tired. have you been working (you/work) hard?

1. (you/hear) about Tony?
2. (Alan/tell) his mother about going to the zoo?
3. Richard is a philatelist. He (collect) thousands of postage-stamps.
4. They (look) around for a stereo for about three days but they (not/find) one that they want to buy.
5. I haven't finished with my work because I (not/work) on it very long'.
6. Amelia (write) letters to her friends overseas. She (write) five letters.
7. Your car is very dirty! (you/drive) on country roads?
8. Susan (sunbathe) for two hours. Her skin is yellowish brown.

Put the verb into the correct form, past perfect continuous or past continuous.

Examples: I tried to catch Tom but I couldn't. He was running (run) very fast.
 He was out of breath. He had been running (run).

1. The class began at 7:30. The teacher got into the class at 8:00. The students (wait) for half an hour.
2. Fred met his wife while he (wait) for a bus one day.
3. When I arrived, Tony and Henry (sit) around the table and talking. Their mouths were empty but their stomachs were full. They (eat).
4. Tom asked his brother to turn down the television. He (study).
5. The kittens were sleeping. They (play) with their mother's tail.
6. By the time I got there, they (discuss) the question with my brother for 15 minutes.
7. She (use) the computer for only about two weeks when somebody broke into the house stole it.
8. Victor was filthy and greasy. He (repaire) his car.
9. John and Martin were sacked by the company a week ago. They (work) there quite a long time.

Put the verb into the correct form using used to or present simple.

Example: Dennis doesn't smoke (not/smoke) any more but he
used to smoke (smoke) 40 cigarettes a day.
Did he use to smoke (he/smoke)?

1. Grace (never/use) a computer. Now she
 (use) one every day.
2. Villagers (not/borrow) money from the bank
 but now they (borrow) a lot of money from the bank
 now.
3. The company (not/make) much profit now.
 (it/make) a lot of profit?
4. Robert (write) novels. Now he
 (be) an editor.
5. I (own) a house but now I
 (rent) a flat.

Time 4

41

Put the verb into the correct form, present continuous or present simple.

Examples: Please don't make so much noise. I am studying (study).

This machine doesn't work (not/work). It hasn't work for years.

1. The economic situation (get) worse.
2. Laurence usually (play) badminton but today he
..... (play) table tennis.
3. Would you mind putting out your cigarette, please! I
(eat).
4. I don't smoke. It (taste) awful to me.
5. Ice (melt) at zero degree Celsius.
6. The sun (shine) at the moment.
7. I (not/need) the chair at the moment.
8. Belinda is not in the office at the moment. She
(teach).
9. Juan! What is the matter with your hand? It (bleed).

3.1.19

Put the verb into the correct form, past continuous or past simple.

Examples: While Tom was cooking (cook) the dinner, the phone
rang (ring).

1. George (get) ready to go out one evening when the fire alarm (ring).
2. Susan (fall) asleep when she (watch) television.
3. He (not/hear) his parents having an argument last night because he (listen) to music.
4. Don (cut) his fingers when he (saw) a piece of wood.
5. I (break) a plate last night when I (do) the washing up.

Put the verb into the correct form, present perfect simple or present perfect continuous.

Examples: I haven't lost (lose) my key. Can you help me look for it?
You look tired. Have you been working (you/work) hard?

- 1. Laura (swim) for half an hour.
- 2. (Tom/sell) his car?
- 3. (you/visit) China Town?
- 4. Your eyes are very red. (you/cry)?
- 5. They (go) out for about 6 months but they
..... (not/decide) to get married .
- 6. I failed to give way. I (not/drive) long.
- 7. Julia (read) magazines. She
..... (read) ten magazines. +
- 8. He is a very good athlete. He (win) a lot of gold
medals.

Put the verb into the correct form, past perfect continuous or past continuous.

Examples: I tried to catch Tom but I couldn't. He was running (run) very fast.
 He was out of breath. He had been running (run).

1. She (try) to rent a flat for a week when somebody asked her if she was interested to share a house with her.
2. When I got into the pub, Paul and his friends were drunk. They (drink).
3. John and Michael (walk) slowly away from the crowd. They were very exhausted. They (ride) their bikes.
4. The guests (dance) for 15 minutes when somebody shouted 'fire'.
5. There were a lot of books all over the table and the computer was left on. He (work) on his assignment.
6. Walter cut himself while he (shave).
7. Arnold was holding a guitar in his hands. He (sing) 'Only You'.
8. Indonesians proclaimed their independence in 1945. They (fight) against colonialism for years.
9. The owner of the company was proud of their employees because the company made a lot of profit. They (cooperate) very well.

Put the verb into the correct form using will or going to.

Examples: A: Why are you turning on the television?

B: I am going to watch (watch) the news.

A: Oh, I've just realised - I haven't got any money.

B: Don't worry - that's no problem. I will (lend) you some.

1. A: I've got a terrible headache.

B: Have you? Wait there and I (get) an aspirin
for you.

2. A: Why are you filling that bucket with water?

B: I (wash) the car.

3. A: I've decided to repaint this room.

B: Oh, have you? What colour (you/paint) it?

4. A: Look! There's smoke coming out of that house. It's on fire.

B: Good heavens! I (call) the
fire-brigade immediately.

5. A: The ceiling in the room doesn't look very safe, does it?

B: No, it looks as if it (fall) down.

6. A: Where are you going? Are you going shopping?

B: Yes I (buy) something for dinner.

7. A: I can't work out how to use this camera.

B: It's quite easy. I (show) you.

8. A: What would you like to drink - tea or coffee?

B: I (have) tea, please.

9. A: Why is she walking so fast?

B: She (catch) a 5:10 train.

10. A: What is John doing with the ladder?

B: He (repair) the roof.

Put the verb into the correct form using used to or present simple.

Example: Dennis doesn't smoke (not/smoke) any more but he

used to smoke (smoke) 40 cigarettes a day.

Did he use to smoke (he/smoke)?

1. I (drive) a car. I (ride) a motor-cycle now.
2. Ann (never/drink) coffee but now she (drink) it a lot.
3. Young girls (not/go) out very much but now they (go) out very often.
4. Charles (play) tennis a lot but now (be) too lazy.
5. The museum (not/have) a lot of visitors.
..... (it/have) a lot visitors?

Appendix 3.2 - Modified Cloze Task, Times 1 - 4

Modified cloze test 1

Fill in the gaps with the most appropriate word(s) and tenses.

Growing Old in America

For years, the elderly were "forgotten" members of American society, but in recent times this has changed. The elderly (1) groups such as the Panthers to represent their rights. These groups (2) America politically, economically, and psychologically. Most importantly, they (3) America that elderly people are valuable and energetic citizens who shouldn't be forgotten.

Individuals, too, (4) their mark on the American conscience. For example, sixty-seven-year-old Dorothy Jackson, a widow from Gallup, New Mexico, (5) quite a celebrity because of nationwide stories and articles about her. Dorothy (6) from state to state in her mini-motor home for quite a few years. Since 1978, she (7) more than 50,000 miles, from New York to California, from Canada to Mexico.

People like Dorothy (8) Americans of all ages that "age is only a state of mind. Just because you (9) old doesn't mean that your time to enjoy life, to be productive, to grow and to learn (10).

Adapted from Werner (1985: 90)

Modified cloze test 2

Fill in the gaps with the most appropriate word(s) and tenses.

Footprint in the snow

'I'm reading a book about monsters,' Ben told Nick one day. 'I have been reading it for a week now. It's all about people who (1) strange things. There are reports about the research which experts (2). The Yeti is a famous monster. People (3) 'a wild man' in the Himalayas for years. Several people (4) enormous footprints in the snow - half a meter long, with three small toes and one huge toe. Travellers (5) Tibet for years and there (6) several sightings of large animals. In the book it says that a woman called Dr Sharp (7) to Mongolia several times and (8) proof that yetis also live there. She believes that a yeti is a Neanderthal man.'

'You mean, she thinks that Neanderthal man (9) ? Nick asked. 'When you (10) the book, can I borrow it?'

Modified cloze test 3

Fill in the gaps with the most appropriate word(s) and tenses.

Mrs Ellis is writing to her son, Thomas, who is a student.

Dear Thomas,

It has been several weeks since we last had a letter from you. We have been hoping to hear from you. Why (1) to us? You know how much your letters always (2) to us.

I have sent a parcel to you with some food and warm clothes. Your father (3) the weekly sport magazines you like to read, and we have put these in the parcel too.

Life (4) as usual here. Mr Jones next door, who hasn't been enjoying good health recently, has had to go into hospital. He (5) an operation and will be home again soon. Meanwhile, his cat has been coming to us for food and milk. I think we (6) to look after it quite well.

Have you seen anything of Mark Andrews? Apparently he (7) school now and is at the same college as you. -We (8) news of him regularly from his mother. But, of course, he's two years younger than you. He hasn't said whether he (9) you or not.

By now your first exams will be over. We hope you (10) well in them. Do write soon.

Lots of love,

Modified cloze test 4

Fill in the gaps with the most appropriate word(s) and tenses.

Mystery monsters

Have you seen The Loch Ness Monster?

Thousands of people have reported seeing a large animal in the famous lake called Loch Ness in Scotland. For fourteen centuries people(1) to capture it, but perhaps it(2) in the lake even longer.

Although local people always(3) about the mysterious creature, it is only in the last sixty years that there (4) any evidence that it might exist. In 1933, John McGregor, a local businessman, saw the lake bubbling and a huge object with two humps came out of the water.

Since that day, scientists have been searching the lake with underwater equipment, trying to find out what kind of animal lives there. Unfortunately, they (5) to find it yet because the lake is so deep and so dark.

Tourists from all over the world have visited Loch Ness, hoping to see the monster. They even(6) it a nickname: 'Nessie'. Many people(7) photographs of it, although experts(8) that some of the photos are forgeries. Scientists(9) that the Loch Ness monster is a dinosaur which was trapped in the lake during the Ice Age. Your help is needed to solve the mystery. Please contact the *Loch Ness Research Center, Inverness, Scotland* if you(10) it.

Adapted from Seidl (1994:12)

Appendix 3.3 - Writing Task, Times 1 - 4

Instructions:

Please write a paragraph of 200 words in your own words on the topic below!

Topics

Time 1

What changes have happened to the environment?

Time 2

How has the way of life of families changed?

Time 3

How have eating habits changed?

Time 4

How have attitudes towards parents changed?

Appendix 3.4 - Guided Speaking Tasks, Times 1 - 4

Speaking 1

Please look at the pictures and tell the story by your own words.



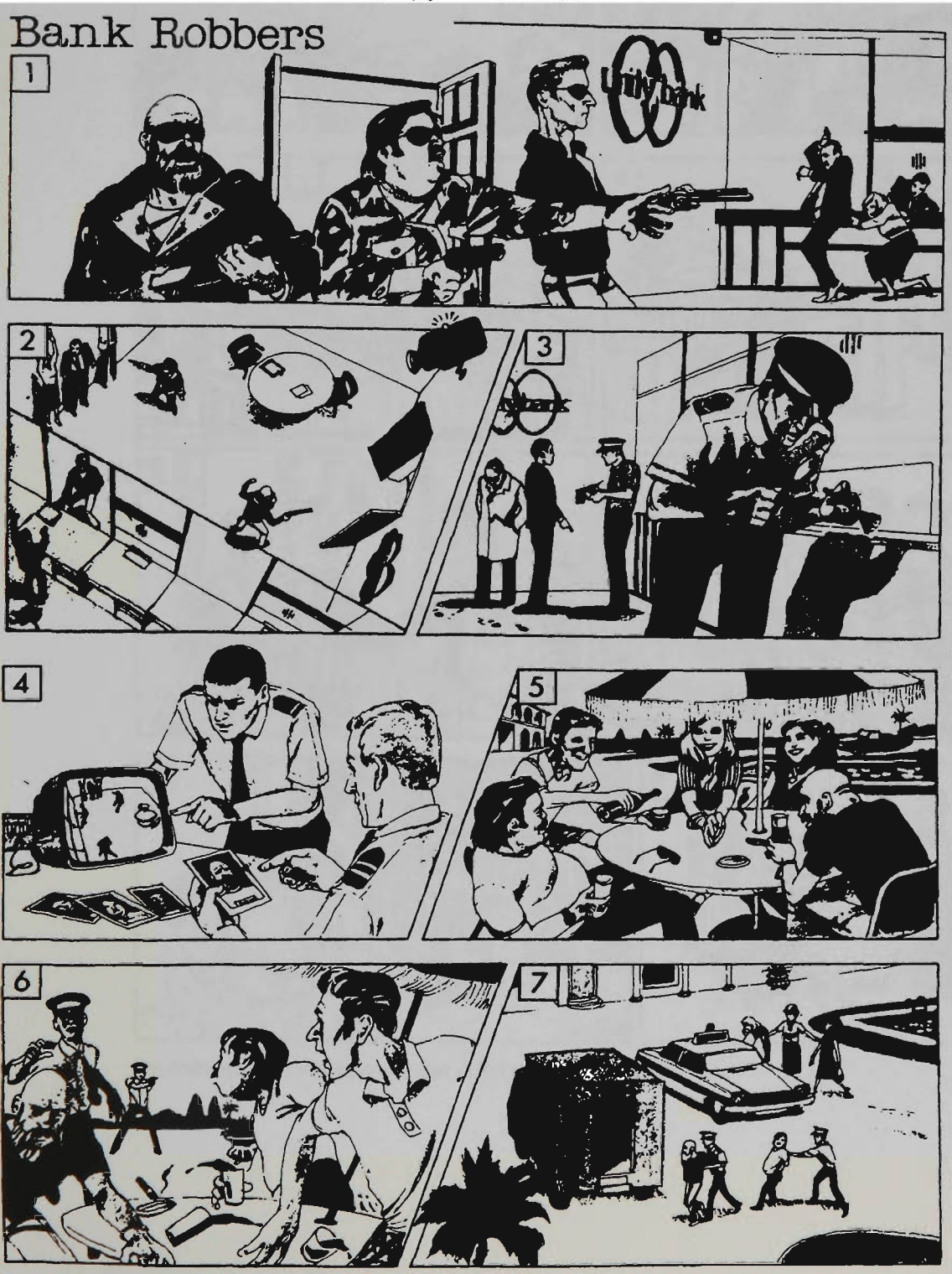
Speaking 2

Please look at the pictures and tell the story by your own words.



Speaking 3

Please look at the pictures and tell the story by your own words.



Reproduced from Fletcher and Birt (1983)

Speaking 4

Please look at the pictures and tell the story by your own words.



Reproduced from Fletcher and Birt (1983)

Appendix 4.1 - Class Materials, Present Simple/Simple Progressive, ACGM

ACGM

Presentation

Present simple and present progressive

Marja and Bertrand are students in a language school. The are getting to know each other

Bertrand : And where do you come from in Finland, Marja?

Marja : I come from Helsinki. But I don't live there any more. My company, Finn-Sport has an office in Tampere, so I've moved there.

Bertrand : I've heard of Finn-Sport. Don't they make skiing equipment?

Marja : That's right - infact, all kind of sports equipment. Actually, the company is paying for me to study here.

Bertrand : Really? You're lucky. My company doesn't send any one on language course. I m paying for this course out of my own pocket.

Marja : What course are you taking here? Business English?

Bertrand : No, I m not doing Busniss English yet. I'm trying to improve my general English - especially conversation.

Marja : Well, there does't seem to be anything wrong with your conversation.

Bertrand : I m improving. By the way, do you know about the disco the school is organising?

Marja : No. When is it?

Bertrand : Tonight at 9 o'clock. It's at The Magnet Club, in Holland Road.

Marja : Unfortunately, I don't know where that is.

Bertrand : It's near where I live. Look, why don't we meet before the disco somewhere and have dinner? Then we can go to the disco together.

Adapted from Adamson (1992:12)

The explanation of grammatical features.

Present progressive

We use the present progressive when we talk about an action or situation in progress. The action is still happening or the situation is still changing.

Use the present progressive to talk about:

- action happening now or over a period of time around now:
Hattie is working at the computer at the moment. (now) Silvia is learning English at the moment.
He's reading a book about Japan at school. (over a period of time)
- changing and developing situation:
It's getting colder. Black skirts are becoming fashionable again. Is your English getting better?
- temporary situations:
I'm staying with Mark for three weeks. I am living with some friends until I can find a flat.

Present simple

The present simple is used when the speaker thinks of something as a fact.

Use the present simple to talk about:

- a law of nature:
Light travels through space at a speed of 299,792 km per second. ~~The~~ earth goes round the sun.
- a permanent situation, or a state with no definite start and finish time but true now:
I live in Oxford. I like fish. My company, Finn-Sport has an office in Tempere.
- a regular repeated action or something on timetable:
I play football twice a week.
The London train leaves at seven o'clock every day. In Britain most shops close at 5:30.
- a fact that you want to emphasize (emphatic do/does):
Adam: They never go on holiday.
Brenda: Yes, they do go on holiday.
(Here Brenda wants to emphasize a fact because Adam has said something wrong.)
We can also emphasize what we see as a fact by stressing is/isn't or are/aren't.
Yes, he is polite to people.

State verbs and the present simple.

- State verbs are usually in the present simple, because the speaker is thinking of a fact and not an action in progress.
The vegetables taste fine. (NOT are tasting)
In this example, what is important to the speaker is his or her opinion of the vegetables, not the progress of the action (tasting).

Grammar exercises

Complete the sentences using the verbs in brackets in the present progressive or present simple.

- Please be quiet. I (try) to read the paper.
- This is very quiet town. Where (people/go) in the evenings?
- I (work) in a factory until I can find a better job.
- What (you/do) with all that paper and glue?
- I (not/use) the computer at the moment so you can use it.
- (Karen and John/ever/write) to you?

Choose state verbs from the list to complete the sentences. Use each verb once.
smell, hate, know, like, remember

- She always my birthday.
- Those flowers nice. What are they?
- Jane is repairing the car. She how to do that.
- I (not) him, I just (not) him very much at the moment.
- you how to say this in French?

Reply with sentences using empathic do/does or is/isn't.

Example: A: Mr Smith never keeps appointments. B: Yes, he does keep appointments.

A: It doesn't rain here in the summer. B: Yes,

A: They never get up before eleven o'clock. B: Yes,

A: He lives near Helen. B: No,

A: It's over there. B: No,

A: He isn't the right person for the job. B: Yes,

Present progressive or present simple in context. Put the right form of the verb in brackets.

Laura : Hello, George! What (you/do) these days?

George : Hi, Laura. I (learn) French and Spanish at college.

What about you?

Communicative Practice Activities

Work in pairs, A and B. Mr Smith is a salesman in the firm you both work for. He sells groceries and vegetables to supermarkets but his work is not very good. Discuss your report with your partner and decide whether to sack Mr Smith. Use some emphatic *do/does* where you can. Example: He does have a lot of supermarkets to visit.

Sack Mr Smith?

Discuss this information from a report about Mr Smith with your partner (1) and listen to what B has to say about his or her report. Use emphatic *do/does* sentences where you can. Decide whether or not the firm should sack Mr Smith.

Information from a report on Reginald Smith by Jane Pettifer, Head of Personnel

- Late for work quite often.
- Not always polite. Can be rude if he has 'had a bad day'.
- Regularly misses monthly meetings with me.
- Smokes in the sales office, even when asked not to.
- Has occasionally missed appointments and does not always ring to apologize.
- Sales are not particularly good.

Adapted from Dean (1993: 136)

Communicative Practice Activities

Work in pairs, A and B. Mr Smith is a salesman in the firm you both work for. He sells groceries and vegetables to supermarkets but his work is not very good. Discuss your report with your partner and decide whether to sack Mr Smith. Use some emphatic *do/does* where you can. Example: He does have a lot of supermarkets to visit.

Sack Mr Smith?

Discuss this information from a report about Mr Smith with your partner (A and listen to what A has to say about his or her report. Use emphatic *do/does* sentences where you can. Decide whether or not the firm should sack Mr Smith.

Information from a report on Reginald Smith by Jim Bowes, Head of Sales and Marketing.

- 1 Sometimes late for work when his car breaks down.
- 2 Usually polite and helpful.
- 3 Thinks monthly meetings with Head of Personnel are not helpful.
- 2 Sometimes misses appointments but rings to apologize.
- 3 Has a lot of supermarkets to visit.
- 4 Sales are about average for the time of year.

Adapted from Dean (1993: 148)

Appendix 4.2 - Class Materials, Simple Past/Past Progressive, ACGM

ACGM

Presentation

Simple past and past continuous

He Was Cooking When It Hit

Yesterday afternoon, at 5:15, a major earthquake of 7.1 on the Richter scale *rocked* the area. This reporter *interviewed* several citizens shortly after the earthquake *hit*. When *asked* what she *was doing* when the earth *shook*, Eve Konitz said “I *was sitting* in my living room when the whole house *began* to rock.” She went on, “I *crawled* under the table while the house *was shaking*, and I *didn’t move* until it was over.” Eve finally commented, “While I *was sitting* under the table, all the dishes *fell out of* the cupboard. It was terrible. They were the family’s best dishes.”

Bob *was cooking* dinner when it *happened*. Here is his story. “I *was just putting* the roast in the oven when I *felt* a terrible jolt. I quickly *turned off* the oven then I *ran* outside. while I *was running* to the park, I *saw* the house next door catch fire. I was relieved that I had remembered to turn off the gas. That could have been our house!”

The people whose stories you are hearing now were fortunate because they were not injured. However, not everyone was as lucky. There were also property damage, estimated in the millions of dollars. The City Council is meeting now and is proposing to establish regular earthquake drills so that, if there is another quake, the citizens of this town will know what to do.

Adapted from Fotos, Homan, and Poel (1994: 36)

Simple past and past continuous

1. Past Progressive

We use the past progressive when we refer to something that was happening (that is, it was in progress) at a definite time in the past. *At one o'clock yesterday I was having lunch.*

We can use **while** and **when** to join two actions which were happening at the same time in the past. Both actions have a past progressive verb. *He was doing the shopping while I was parking the car.*

We can use **still** to emphasize that something was continuing, especially after the time it was expected to finish. *At a quarter-past ten I was still waiting for the train.*

2. Past simple

We use the past simple when we refer to a finished action or situation in the past.

We use the past simple to talk about:

finished single actions or situations: *I went to London yesterday; I lived in London when I was a child.*

finished repeated actions or situations: *Every year when I was a child we went to Italy on holiday; When she was young she lived in a different country every year.* NOTE State verbs are usually used in the past simple not in the past progressive. *I was running home. I knew it was late. NOT was knowing.* NOTE **ago** means 'at some time before now'. It is usually used the past simple. *I lived there ten years ago.*

3. Past progressive and past simple in context.

When we use the past progressive and the past simple together, we can use the past progressive to 'paint a picture' of a longer 'background' action. We use the past simple for the speaker sees as the main action in the past.

We were living in London when Susan made her first film; I was sitting in my living room when the whole house began to rock; We went indoors because it was raining.

If there is more than one 'background' action, do not repeat **was/were** for the second or third action.

The teachers were sitting in the staff room, marking books and drinking coffee when I came in. (NOT *were marking books and were drinking coffee*)

You can use **while**, **as**, **when**, and **whenever** to introduce the longer 'background' action. **While** and **as** mean 'at the same time as'. **When** tells you which time and **whenever** means 'every time'.

As/While I was driving to Oxford I saw a tiny little house with no roof; While I was running to the park, I saw the house next door catch fire; When I was sitting on the beach I saw a ship in the distance; He went to see Jennifer whenever he was visiting Oxford;

You can use **just** to emphasise that the longer action had only recently started when the action in the past simple interrupted it. *I was just leaving when she asked me to stay. I was just putting the roast in the oven when I felt a terrible jolt.*

Adapted from Dean (1993: 21) and Fotos (1994:36).

Grammar exercises

Past progressive or past simple in context. Put in the right form of the verb in the brackets. Sometimes either form is possible.

I _____ (walk) along the street one day when I _____
(see) something very strange. I _____ (notice) a man the same height
as me who _____ (have) a beard like mine. He _____
_____ (wear) a blue shirt and an old pair of jeans and he _____
_____ (carry) a bag with some books in it. He _____
(just/cross) the road a head of me but he _____ (not/avoid) me
deliberately, I _____ (be) sure of that. As he _____
(go across) the road I _____ (follow) him. I
_____ (wonder) whether or not to stop him and ask him whether
he had noticed something strange too. I _____ (still/think)
about it when he _____ (turn around) suddenly and we
_____ (look at) each other. He
_____ (look) amazed. 'It's unbelievable, isn't it?' I
_____ (say) as I _____ (stare
at) his face, which _____ (also/be) just like mine, and at his hair
which _____ (be) just like mine. 'You are my double. You look
exactly the same as me.'

Communicative practice

Look at the pictures carefully and ask your friend:

- a) what were Kim, Joe, and May doing?
- b) what did Kim, Joe and May do?

Pair Work



Kim, Joe and May



Reproduced from Heaton (1986: 10)

Appendix 4.3 - Class Materials, Present Perfect/Present Perfect Progressive, ACGM

ACGM

Presentation

The present perfect tense and present perfect continuous tense.

Young vicar passes driving test after 632 lessons over 17 years.

VICAR Peter Newman is celebrating success - he *has* finally *passed* his driving test. He *has been learning* to drive for the past 17 years, and he *has had* a total of 632 lessons. Peter, 34, *has spent* over 9,000 on tuition, he *has had* eight different instructors, and he *has crashed* his car five times. Then, one week ago he changed to an automatic car - and passed his test immediately. He said last night, '*I've been praying* for a driving-licence for over half my life, and at last my prayers *have been answered*.'

Peter, of St Andrew's Church, Repton in Nottinghamshire, began driving at the age of 17. 'It was in the country,' he said, 'and I was doing quite well until one morning, in a narrow lane, I saw a tractor coming towards me. I panicked and drove into a ten-foot hedge.'

Peter said, 'My big problem was confusing the clutch and the brake. I was absolutely hopeless. My instructors *have been telling* me for years that I would never pass, but I was determined to prove them wrong. Many of them *have turned* grey because of me.'

The turning-point came when Peter tried an automatic, and took his test again - for the fifty-sixth time.

He said, 'When I was told *I'd passed*, I went down on my knees and thanked God.' So how *has he been celebrating*? '*I've been visiting* all my relatives and people who live in the remote villages around here. I *haven't been able to get* them. Now I can go anywhere!'

Adapted from Soars (1996: 96-97).

The present perfect tense and present perfect continuous tense.

1. Present perfect

We use the present perfect and not the present perfect progressive when we want to make it clear that an action has been completed.

We have repaired the fridge. (The fridge works now.)

We usually use the present perfect and not the present perfect progressive with state verbs: ***be, seem, prefer, believe, know, like, love, hate.***

How long have you known John? (NOT *been knowing*)

We use the present perfect and not the present perfect progressive for naturally short actions like ***break, fall (over), start.***

Have you broken the window? (NOT *been breaking*)

We use the present perfect and not present perfect progressive with ***ever, never*** and ***yet.***

I haven't told her yet. (NOT *been telling*) ***I have never met Tony.***

2. Present perfect progressive

We use the present progressive when we want to emphasize an action or situation in progress and not its completion. ***We've been repairing the fridge.*** (It may or may not work now.) We use the present perfect progressive for:

temporary actions and situations:

I've been using Joanna's car while I've been staying with her. (NOT *have used* and *have stayed*)

actions in the recent past that we think have been happening because of something we can see now. (present evidence):

Your eyes are red. You have been crying. (NOT *have cried*) (This is often used to complain. ***Hey! Somebody has been drinking my coffee!***)

talking about how long something has been going on:

How long have you been learning English? He has been writing to her for ten years.

The present perfect progressive is more commonly used in informal speech.

3. Present perfect or present perfect progressive

You can use the present perfect progressive with the state verbs, if you want to emphasize a situation in progress and not its completion: ***see, hear, look, taste, smell, want, realize, remember.***

I've been hearing funny noises. He's been looking miserable since his dog died.

I've been wanting one of those new computers for ages.

If you do not wish to emphasize the progressive nature of the situation, you can use the present perfect simple with these verbs.

I've heard a lot of funny noises lately. That house has looked miserable for years.

I've always wanted one of those.

Some verbs suggest an action in progress by their meaning and these can be used both with the present perfect and present perfect progressive, with little difference in meaning: ***live, rain, sit, study, wait, work.***

It's been raining for hours. It's rained non-stop for hours.

I have worked/have been working at the bank for three years.

Adapted from Dean (1993: 45)

Grammar exercise

Present perfect and present perfect progressive in context. Put in the right form of the verb in brackets. Sometimes more than one answer is possible.

This is a job reference in formal English.

William Empson _____ (work) in the Parks Department for the last 18 months. Throughout this time _____ (train) as a gardener under my supervision and I can confirm that I _____ (watch) his progress closely. I must inform you that Mr Empson _____ (be) in prison for burglary. However, during his time with us he _____ (be) in charge of money several times and _____ (never/attempt) to steal it. For most of his time here he _____ (help) to grow new trees in the greenhouses. He _____ (learn) quickly and he _____ (not/be) late for work once. We would recommend Mr Empson for the post he _____ (apply) for.

Adapted from Dean (1993: 47)

Communicative practice

1 We have been working

Present perfect progressive for actions in progress

Work in pairs. You are both repairing an old house. The work is not finished. Explain to a friend what you have been doing. Use the picture to give you ideas. Use the present perfect progressive, like this: *We have been repairing the roof.*



2 What have you done?

Present perfect for completed actions

Work in the same pairs. You have finished all the work on the house. Explain what you have done. Use the present perfect, like this: *We have repaired the roof.*

CM

Presentation

Present simple and present progressive

The earth goes round the sun.

In Britain most of the shops close at 5.30.

In summer Tom usually plays tennis twice a week.

I am living with some friends until I can find a flat.

My parents live in London.

These shoes belong to me.

Tom isn't playing football this season. He wants to concentrate on his studies.

Is your English getting better?

Silvia is learning English at the moment.

Have you heard about Tom? He is building his own house.

The explanation of grammatical features.

Present progressive

We use the present progressive when we talk about an action or situation in progress. The action is still happening or the situation is still changing.

Use the present progressive to talk about:

- action happening now or over a period of time around now:
Hattie is working at the computer at the moment. (now) Silvia is learning English at the moment.
He's reading a book about Japan at school. (over a period of time)
- changing and developing situation:
It's getting colder. Black skirts are becoming fashionable again. Is your English getting better?
- temporary situations:
I'm staying with Mark for three weeks. I am living with some friends until I can find a flat.

Present simple

The present simple is used when the speaker thinks of something as a fact.

Use the present simple to talk about:

- a law of nature:
Light travels through space at a speed of 299,792 km per second. ~~The~~ earth goes round the sun.
- a permanent situation, or a state with no definite start and finish time but true now:
I live in Oxford. I like fish. My company, Finn-Sport has an office in Tempe.
- a regular repeated action or something on timetable:
I play football twice a week.
The London train leaves at seven o'clock every day. In Britain most shops close at 5:30.
- a fact that you want to emphasize (emphatic do/does):
Adam: They never go on holiday.
Brenda: Yes, they do go on holiday.
(Here Brenda wants to emphasize a fact because Adam has said something wrong.)
We can also emphasize what we see as a fact by stressing is/Isn't or are/aren't.
Yes, he is polite to people.

State verbs and the present simple.

- State verbs are usually in the present simple, because the speaker is thinking of a fact and not an action in progress.
The vegetables taste fine. (NOT are tasting)
In this example, what is important to the speaker is his or her opinion of the vegetables, not the progress of the action (tasting).

- Some of the most important state verbs are: *see, hear, look, feel, taste, smell, be, seem, want, prefer, believe, hate, like, love, realize, remember, suppose.*
- Some state verbs (*see, hear, taste, and smell*) are often used after *can*.
I can hear something outside.

Present progressive and present simple in context

When we made it clear by using the present progressive that the action or situation is in progress, we can use the present simple to describe facts about the same action or situation.

I'm reading a book about the 1960s. It gives a clear description of life then and paints a pictures of

Adapted from Dean (1993: 9)

Laura : Me? Oh, I (work) at the Travel Agency until August.

George : (you/like) it?

Laura : Yes, I do, They (give) me quite a good training.

I (work) in the shop most mornings, and
three afternoons a week the manager (tell)

me about the travel business. I (work) quite

long hours. I (not/get) home until six, but

I (prefer) that ^{to}no to having enough to do.

George : Yes, I (work) hard too at the moment.

It (become) more and more difficult to get a job
using languages. They (ask) for higher and higher
exam grades all the time.

Laura : You can do it, George. You (be) clever. . .

George : Thanks, Laura.

Adapted from Dean (1993)

Grammar exercises

Complete the sentences using the verbs in brackets in the **present progressive** or **present simple**.

- Please be quiet. I (try) to read the paper.
- This is very quiet town. Where (people/go) in the evenings?
- I (work) in a factory until I can find a better job.
- What (you/do) with all that paper and glue?
- I (not/use) the computer at the moment so you can use it.
- (Karen and John/ever/write) to you?

Choose state verbs from the list to complete the sentences. Use each verb once.
smell, hate, know, like, remember

- She always my birthday.
- Those flowers nice. What are they?
- Jane is repairing the car. She how to do that.
- I (not) him, I just (not) him very much at the moment.
- you how to say this in French?

Reply with sentences using empathic **do/does** or **is/isn't**.

Example: A: Mr Smith never keeps appointments. B: Yes, he **does** keep appointments.

A: It doesn't rain here in the summer. B: Yes,

A: They never get up before eleven o'clock. B: Yes,

A: He lives near Helen. B: No,

A: It's over there. B: No,

A: He isn't the right person for the job. B: Yes,

· **Present progressive** or **present simple** in context. Put the right form of the verb in brackets.

Laura : Hello, George! What (you/do) these days?

George : Hi, Laura. I (learn) French and Spanish at college.

What about you?

CM

Presentation

Simple past and past continuous

At one o'clock yesterday I was having lunch.

He was doing the shopping while I was parking the car.

At a quarter-past ten I was still waiting for the train.

I lived in London while I was a child.

Every year when I was a child I went to Italy.

I was sitting in my living room when the whole house began to rock.

The teacher were sitting in the staff room, marking books and drinking coffee when I came in.

While I was running to the park, I saw the house next door catch fire.

I was just living when she asked me to stay.

Adapted from Dean (1993:21) and Fotos (1994:36)

Simple past and past continuous

1. Past Progressive

We use the past progressive when we refer to something that was happening (that is, it was in progress) at a definite time in the past. *At one o'clock yesterday I was having lunch.*

We can use **while** and **when** to join two actions which were happening at the same time in the past. Both actions have a past progressive verb. *He was doing the shopping while I was parking the car.*

We can use **still** to emphasize that something was continuing, especially after the time it was expected to finish. *At a quarter-past ten I was still waiting for the train.*

2. Past simple

We use the past simple when we refer to a finished action or situation in the past.

We use the past simple to talk about:

finished single actions or situations: *I went to London yesterday; I lived in London when I was a child.*

finished repeated actions or situations: *Every year when I was a child we went to Italy on holiday; When she was young she lived in a different country every year.* NOTE State verbs are usually used in the past simple not in the past progressive. *I was running home. I knew it was late. NOT was knowing.* NOTE **ago** means 'at some time before now'. It is usually used the past simple. *I lived there ten years ago.*

3. Past progressive and past simple in context.

When we use the past progressive and the past simple together, we can use the past progressive to 'paint a picture' of a longer 'background' action. We use the past simple for the speaker sees as the main action in the past.

We were living in London when Susan made her first film; I was sitting in my living room when the whole house began to rock; We went indoors because it was raining.

If there is more than one 'background' action, do not repeat **was/were** for the second or third action.

The teachers were sitting in the staff room, marking books and drinking coffee when I came in. (NOT *were marking books and were drinking coffee*)

You can use **while**, **as**, **when**, and **whenever** to introduce the longer 'background' action. **While** and **as** mean 'at the same time as'. **When** tells you which time and **whenever** means 'every time'.

As/While I was driving to Oxford I saw a tiny little house with no roof; While I was running to the park, I saw the house next door catch fire; When I was sitting on the beach I saw a ship in the distance; He went to see Jennifer whenever he was visiting Oxford;

You can use **just** to emphasise that the longer action had only recently started when the action in the past simple interrupted it. *I was just leaving when she asked me to stay. I was just putting the roast in the oven when I felt a terrible jolt.*

Adapted from Dean (1993: 21) and Fotos (1994:36).

Grammar exercise

Write sentences. Use the past progressive in a positive, negative or question form.

1. /you/use/the hairdrier/when the lights went out? _____

2. /John/not talk/to Barbara. Barbara was not even in the room. _____

3. The last time I saw him, /Dick/drink/orange juice in the kitchen. _____

4. /you/drive/slowly/ when you saw the man in the road? _____

5. /it/snow/as I left home for the last time. _____

Rewrite the sentences. Use the past progressive and past simple with *when* or *while*.

1. Before the bus had stopped, the child jumped off. The bus _____

2. As Jane wrote to the last sentence of her homework, her friend asked her to do his as well. Jane was _____

Adapted from Dean (1993:23)

3. During dinner at Harry's Anna lost her necklace. While Anna _____

4. John brought the sweet in but I still had some chips on my plate to eat. I was still

5. Did Emily wear the dress when she got married? Was Emily _____

_____?

Join the sentences using **as, just, while, when** and **ago**. Put the verbs into the past progressive or the past simple.

1. I (eat) my dinner. There (be) a knock at the door. (AS) _____

2. Camilla (get) into the car. Henry (shout) a warning. (JUST, WHEN) _____

3. You (dance) at the disco. I (paint) the kitchen at home. (WHILE) _____

4. I (know) her ten years. She (work) for Star Electronics at the same time as I was.
(AGO, WHEN) _____

5. James (hear) a noise. He (listen to) the music. (WHILE) _____

Put the verbs in brackets into the simple past or past continuous tense.

1. I lit the fire at 6:00 and it _____ (burn) brightly when Tom came in at 7:00.
2. When I arrived the lecture had already started and the professor _____ (write) on the overhead projector.
3. I _____ (make) a cake when the light went out. I had to finish it in the dark.
4. I didn't want to meet Paul so when he entered the room I _____ (leave).
5. Unfortunately when I arrived Ann _____ (just/leave), so we only had time for a few words.
6. He _____ (have) a bath when the phone rang. Very unwillingly he _____ (get) out of the bath and _____ (go) to answer it.
7. He was very polite. Whenever his wife entered the room he _____ (stand) up.
8. The admiral _____ (play) bowls when he received news of the invasion. He _____ (insist) on finishing the game.
9. My dog _____ (walk) along quietly when Mr Pitt's Pekinese attacked him.
10. When I arrived she _____ (have) lunch. She apologized for starting without me but said that she always _____ (lunch) at 12:30.

Appendix 4.6 - Class Materials, Present Perfect/Present Perfect Progressive, CM

CM

Presentation

The present perfect tense and present perfect continuous tense.

We have repaired the fridge.

He has had a total of 632 lessons.

How long have you known John?

I haven't told her yet.

We have been repairing the fridge.

I've been using Joanna's car While I've been staying with her.

Your eyes are red. You have been crying.

How long have you been learning English?

I have been hearing funny noises.

It's been raining for hours.

(Adapted from Dean 1993: 45; Soar 1996: 96; Murphy 1985)

The present perfect tense and present perfect continuous tense.

1. Present perfect

We use the present perfect and not the present perfect progressive when we want to make it clear that an action has been completed.

We have repaired the fridge. (The fridge works now.)

We usually use the present perfect and not the present perfect progressive with state verbs: ***be, seem, prefer, believe, know, like, love, hate.***

How long have you known John? (NOT *been knowing*)

We use the present perfect and not the present perfect progressive for naturally short actions like ***break, fall (over), start.***

Have you broken the window? (NOT *been braking*)

We use the present perfect and not present perfect progressive with ***ever, never*** and ***yet.***

I haven't told her yet. (NOT *been telling*) ***I have never met Tony.***

2. Present perfect progressive

we use the present progressive when we want to emphasize an action or situation in progress and not its completion. ***We've been repairing the fridge.*** (It may or may not work now.) We use the present perfect progressive for:

temporary actions and situations:

I've using Joanna's car while I've been staying with her. (NOT *have used* and *have stayed*)

actions in the recent past that we think have been happening because of something we can see now. (present evidence):

Your eyes are red. You have been crying. (NOT *have cried*) (This is often used to complain. ***Hey! Somebody has been drinking my coffee!***)

talking about how long something has been going on:

How long have been learning English? He has been writing to her for ten years.

The present perfect progressive is more commonly used in informal speech.

3. Present perfect or present perfect progressive

You can use the present perfect progressive with the state verbs, if you want to emphasize a situation in progress and not its completion: ***see, hear, look, taste, smell, want, realize, remember.***

I've been hearing funny noises. He's been looking miserable since his dog died.

I've been wanting one of those new computers for ages.

If you do not wish to emphasize the progressive nature of the situation, you can use the present perfect simple with these verbs.

I've heard a lot of funny noises lately. That house has looked miserable for years.

I've always wanted one of those.

Some verbs suggest an action in progress by their meaning and these can be used both with the present perfect and present perfect progressive, with little difference in meaning: ***live, ruin, sit, study, wait, work.***

It's been raining for hours. It's rained non-stop for hours.

I have worked/have been working at the bank for three years.

Adapted from Dean (1993: 45)

Grammar Exercise

Present perfect or present progressive? Choose the correct one, (a) or (b).

(a) I have been painting the kitchen. I should be finished soon.

(b) I have painted

(a) You have breaking my window

(b) You have broken

(a) I've liked like the Beatles since I was twelve.

(b) I've been liking

(a) been falling over.

Oh no! Karen has just

(b) fallen over.

(a) Somebody has read my letters. This one has been opened.

(b) Somebody has been reading

(a) It has been snowing here for days. It won't stop until next week.

(b) It has snowed

Put the state verbs in brackets into the present perfect (*I have remembered*) or the present perfect progressive (*I have been remembering*).

1. Happy birthday, darling. I _____ (remember) to buy you a present.
2. Lately, I _____ (remember) the happy times we spent together all those years ago.
3. She _____ (prefer) classical music to pop music she was a child.
4. Surely Andrew _____ (believe) in fairies for long enough. Let's tell him the truth.
5. Arthur _____ (taste) all the food as I put it on the table.

Adapted from Dean (1993: 47)

Put the verb in brackets in the correct tense, Present perfect tense or present perfect continuous.

1. I'm exhausted! I _____ (work) all day, and I _____ (not/finish) yet.
2. I _____ (visit) many countries over the past few years.
3. Someone _____ (take) my books. I _____ ((look) for them for ages, but I _____ (not/find) them yet.
4. I _____ (shop) all morning, but I _____ (not/buy) anything.
5. That's one of the books I _____ (ever/read).
6. 'You're filthy! What _____ (you/do)? I _____ (work) in the garden.
7. The streets are all wet. It _____ (rain).
8. I _____ (listen) to you for the past half an hour, but I'm afraid I _____ (not/understand) a single word.
9. 'What's the matter?' I _____ (read) in my room for hours and I've got a headache.'
10. I _____ (try) to lose weight for ages. I _____ (lose) ten pounds so far.
11. 'Why is your hair wet?' I _____ (swim).'