

School of Education

Multidimensional Task Engagement and Second Language Lexical Learning

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DECLARATION

To the best of my knowledge this thesis contains no material previously published by any other person except where due acknowledgement has been made.

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Multidimensional Task Engagement and Second Language Lexical Learning

ABSTRACT

The study investigates the relationship between task engagement and lexical language learning. Task engagement was examined in several ways, namely cognitively—or the mental effort invested in clarifying meaning, behaviourally—the persistence demonstrated in completing the task, socially—the responsiveness and willingness to be involved with others, and affectively—the emotional response toward the task. Lexical learning was determined using a comparison of vocabulary test results pre- and post- the task-based instruction.

The participants were 72 Indonesian university freshmen of different, but generally low proficiency levels who completed 12 tasks over a six-week period. They were paired in all-male, male-female, and female-female dyads. Using a mixed-methods approach their engagement was ascertained based on an analysis of transcripts of their task interactions in the first and last week of instruction, and by way of a questionnaire and an interview. The analysis of transcripts involved the use of nine coding schemes to measure engagement in different dimensions. Parametric statistical correlational analysis was used to examine the relationship between lexical learning and engagement.

The findings of the study suggest that the students were highly engaged in the task as indicated by the coding of their interactions and in their responses in the questionnaires and interviews. However, this study also showed that for these Indonesian students, some interactional strategies, especially those representing cognitive and social engagement, were used less often. This appeared to be due to limited English speaking capacity of the students and because of the influence of local culture (e.g., refraining

from completing partner's utterances and from showing open disagreement). In addition, the participants' engagement in the task meetings, were influenced by such factors as the dyad's familiarity with each other and the chemistry they shared, their familiarity and interest in the topic of the task, and because of gender differences. Overall, the learners' qualitative responses can be interpreted in three ways: specifically, input-based learning, output-based learning and interaction-based learning.

Next, the results of vocabulary tests indicated that lexical learning occurred and was maintained over time. In the case of lexical learning, this study suggests that female students learned and maintained the new words better than their male counterparts, and that the differences in proficiency levels prior to the task were maintained after task lessons. The item analysis showed that the majority of the target words were learned, but some were learned better than others. Acquisition of the most highly learned words was also maintained over time.

The study found three ways that lexical learning occurred as perceived by the participants, first by noticing new words, second by using the new words in the conversation and third by talking about the new words, sometimes in L1. It is also suggested that the evidence of lexical learning can be traced to a discourse analysis of language related episodes (LREs) particularly those episodes related to learning. There were four types of LREs of this kind, namely: 1) Introducing new words to the partner, which demonstrated how noticing (input-based learning) took place; 2) Self-correcting mistakes of new words, which demonstrated pushed output (output-based learning); 3) Correcting peer mistakes; and 4) Using first language to explain the word which together indicated how negotiation moves came to pass (interaction-based learning).

Furthermore, although the findings suggest a relationship between task engagement and the development of learner lexis, only seven out of nine indicators of task engagement are positively correlated to the vocabulary scores, which are: negotiation moves, disagreements, recasts, back-channellings, turn counts, word counts and time on task. The relationship ranges from weak to strong. Despite this, the relationship is supported by the learners' perception in terms of four emerging themes. Different aspects of interaction contributed toward lexical learning. In particular, lexical learning appeared related to some interaction strategies connected to 1) attention and mental effort, 2) involvement, 3) connection and attachment, and collaboration.

There are further implications from the findings of this research toward EFL lesson and program management. Using a task-based lesson was found effective for facilitating lexical learning and, therefore, the use of tasks should be encouraged in EFL lessons more generally. Moreover, this finding also endorses the use of highlighting input in communication to assist noticing. In order to make input more observable, context clues, change of tone and even repetition could be used. This is particularly important in an EFL context such as Indonesia, where students' access to more noticeable input-friendly listening materials are limited, and where teachers are the main source for oral input. Lastly, it has implications for teachers to use teaching strategies which encourage students to speak. Lexis is learnt by using it in meaningful ways during speaking practice and, therefore, speaking practice should be included in English lessons to allow students to use words stored in their lexicon and develop their speaking fluency.

Another implication for pedagogy is based on the relationship between multidimensional engagement and lexical learning. In order for lessons to be effective, they should be interesting and engaging for students, for example through the use of brainstorming to encourage participation and to activate schematic learning. The lessons could also be connected to students by selecting appropriate topics which are highly relevant to them and more likely pique their interest.

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We acknowledge that Curtin University works across hundreds of traditional lands and custodial groups in Australia, and with First Nations people around the globe. We wish to pay our deepest respects to their ancestors and members of their communities, past, present, and to their emerging leaders. Our passion and commitment to work with all Australians and peoples from across the world, including our First Nations peoples are at the core of the work we do, reflective of our institutions' values and commitment to our role as leaders in the Reconciliation space in Australia.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ESL	English as a second language
EFL	English as a foreign language
TBLT	Task based language teaching
NS	Native speaker
NSS	Non-native speaker
L1	First language
L2	Second language
SLA	Second language acquisition
TEFL	Teaching English as a foreign language
TESL	Teaching English as a second language
ELT	English language teaching
elaborate	Elaborative clauses
negotiate	Negotiation moves
disagree	Disagreement
recast	Recasts
Complete	Completing peer utterances
wordcount	Word count
timetask	Time on task
turncount	Turn count
Backchannel	Back-channellings

DEFINITION OF TERMS

The definition of terms used in this study are as follows:

Proficiency level 1 students: Participants with A1 proficiency level of English as determined by a CEFR guide as indicated by their previous placement test.

Proficiency level 2 students: Participants with A2 proficiency level of English as determined by a CEFR guide as indicated by their previous placement test.

Proficiency level 3 students: Participants with B1 proficiency level of English as determined by a CEFR guide as indicated by their previous placement test.

Gender grouping: The study comprised a total of 36 groups: 12 male-male groups, 12 male-female groups and 12 female-female groups. In terms of gender and language proficiency, there were four male-male groups, four male-female groups, and four female-female groups for each proficiency level.

Vocabulary test: A vocabulary test consisting of 60 multiple choice items was used in this study, with three different, but parallel versions for the pre-test, post-test, and delayed post-test. The test was developed based on the vocabulary section of the Cambridge English Preliminary Test.

Task engagement coding schemes: These following nine coding schemes for task engagement.

1. Elaborative clauses: This involved coding the number of elaborative clauses the participants used to expand the semantic content of the task. An elaborative clause was operationally defined as the clause that immediately succeeded another clause by the same speaker,

and expanded the content with a suggestion, proposition, elaboration, reason, and opinion. A rephrase or use of synonymous words without expansion of semantic content was not considered to be an elaborative clause.

2. Negotiation moves: These moves within interaction are used to help overcome communication breakdowns and provide opportunity to focus on linguistic form. Negotiation moves consist of several strategies, but in this study they were limited to clarification requests, confirmation checks, and comprehension checks. Note that recasts were not counted in this category, as they were coded separately.
3. Disagreement: In this study, disagreements were coded when a negative response, often followed by justification, was given.
4. Recasts: The incorporation of recasts indicate learners noticing form. Recasts can also be seen as a means of self-correction or as part of a language-related episode. In this study, recasts involved the repetition of a learner's utterance.
5. Completing peer utterances: This type of interaction suggests social support for a partner. In this study, these features included all intelligent responses when a partner got stuck and unable to go on because he or she seemed to be looking for the correct words to use.
6. Word count: This was undertaken to provide a measure of the amount of effort, persistence, and active involvement of the participants. In this study, each word, including contracted words, were counted as a different word. Each morpheme that carried meaning was also counted as a word. This was done to accommodate shortened words, naming, and meaningful non-words used for backchannelling.
7. Time on task: The amount of time used by learners to complete the tasks has been used as measure of motivation and behavioural engagement. Time on task in this study was calculated in seconds, captured from the start and the end of the task interaction.

8. Turn count. In this study, turns were calculated by counting the speaking turns of each individual.

9. Back-channellings. This measure was used to indicate responsiveness, including the use of acknowledgment of comprehension and provision of support and emotional expressions. In this study, backchannelling was defined as by the number of morpheme responses such as: ah, oh, uh, mm, hmm, okay, wow, yeah, or short expletive words such as: I see, really, fantastic, good, great or excellent.

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Chapter One

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

This chapter introduces the context of the study, the theoretical background, the study's aims and research questions, and the study's significance. Section 1.2 first provides the background of English language teaching in Indonesia, and outlines the need for multidimensional engagement studies in light of task-based approaches. The next section (Section 1.3) outlines the theoretical framework for the study and the specific research gap this study is expected to fill. Section 1.4 states the aims of the research and the motivation for undertaking this study. This is followed by the presentation of the research questions (Section 1.5). Section 1.6 discusses the significance of the study and how the findings of the study are expected to be used for practical and theoretical output. The scope and limitations of this study are presented in Section 1.7. The chapter concludes with an outline of the thesis (Section 1.8), and a chapter summary (Section 1.9).

1.2 Context of the Study

As a multicultural country with more than 400 distinct languages (Alisjahbana, 1990; Nababan, 1991), Indonesia is united in having one national language, Bahasa Indonesia, the official language. Bahasa Indonesia is practiced in all official communication, in government offices, in all legal systems, in the media, and also in education (Adityarini, 2014; Nababan, 1991; Wah & Wong, 1997). The emergence of Bahasa Indonesia as the national language was determined prior to the country's independence in 1928, where many youth groups from all over the country declared their acceptance of only one national language (Adityarini, 2014; Alisjahbana, 1990). Upon its independence in 1945, Bahasa Indonesia was adopted as the official language (Alisjahbana, 1990; Nababan, 1991).

Bahasa Indonesia is taught as a course in the Indonesian curriculum in schools and universities. It is also used as the medium of instruction for all other courses (Renandya, 2004). The enforced use of Bahasa Indonesia by the government was done to foster national identity and as a way to nurture unity (Renandya, 2004). Therefore, even though Bahasa Indonesia is not the first language (L1) of many students in Indonesia, they all know how to use the language proficiently.

Since its independence in 1945, Indonesia has been successful in improving its education system and the access to education for all school age children. The compulsory education initiative obliges all elementary school age children to enrol in formal school and access basic education. This means that they are able to learn Bahasa Indonesia and use the language for communication. The estimated literacy rate in Indonesian language is considered quite high; in 1996 it was more than 80% (Wah & Wong, 1997). However, learning English in school is far less successful. As Dardjowidjojo (1998) noted, the price of Indonesia having a national language is achieved at the expense of students' poor ability in English.

In Indonesian schools, English is recognised as an important foreign language due to its key position in global communication. As time goes by, English is becoming more and more popular in Indonesia especially in the era of globalisation. Even though it has no special status, English now occupies a special place in Indonesian education – being the first foreign language - as is the case in other Asian countries (e.g., The Philippines, Malaysia, Singapore and India) (Lestariyana & Widodo, 2018; Wedell & Alshumaimeri, 2014; Widodo, 2016; Widodo et al., 2017).

At the first foreign language taught in school, English courses in formal education can be tracked to as early as 1944 (Wah & Wong, 1997). Prior to this it was only taught in secondary schools, but recently English was introduced at the beginning of the fourth elementary grade. In 1992, the Ministry of Education and Culture has provided schools with the opportunity to add extra lessons to its curriculum. This is seen as the starting point for introducing English to year one students and more English classes to older students (Hawanti, 2014; Jamilah, 2008). Since this program was implemented in 1994 (Hawanti, 2014), schools have been offering English as a second language (ESL) as an elective course (Lestariyana & Widodo 2018; Widodo 2016). English is, therefore, optional and without a centrally governed curriculum, the decision to choose material for the program is often left to individual teachers (Hawanti, 2014).

Although the inclusion of English in the curriculum was encouraged by the government, especially after the introduction of educational policy in 2001 proposing teaching basic English to year one students, schools still have the authority to conduct English teaching practices based on their self-determined capacity (Alwasilah, 2013; Meisani et al., 2020). Rather than based on their ability to do so, many elementary schools offer English programs simply for the purpose of attracting a greater number of students via parental demand and/or the desire to increase the school's prestige (Suherdi & Kurniawan, 2005). This has been done despite a lack of qualified English teachers (Hawanti, 2014; Kasihani & Chodijah, 2002; Mursalim, 1997; Rachmajanti, 2008; Suherdi & Kurniawan, 2005; Yuwono & Harbon, 2010), and a lack of interest from the students themselves (Jamilah, 2008).

Even though the focus of the English curriculum in Indonesia is geared toward senior schools (Yuwono & Harbon, 2010), this does not mean that high school students have sufficient English proficiency to be able to communicate in English (Floris, 2014; Havwini, 2019). In fact, there is a growing concern from tertiary education institutions about receiving high school graduates with insufficient English proficiency to cope with the university programme and its demands (Abdulrahman et al., 2018; Floris, 2014; Hamied & Lengkanawati, 2018; Lie, 2017).

There are several factors for the very low English proficiency of Indonesian students. Samola (1993) claimed, for example, that the struggle of Indonesians in learning English is primary a personality problem rather than due to educational factors. Samola suggests there are three main problems associated with this issue: 1) Personality factors - Indonesians are shy when asked to speak in English and are afraid of making mistakes and being laughed at; 2) The lack of natural English input for students from the community, except from the teachers and the teaching material; and, 3) Indonesians easily get frustrated when expressing themselves in English due to their limited ability to speak the language; therefore, they will switch to Bahasa Indonesia when they are struggling.

In a similar vein, Haidara (2016) discusses anxiety as one of the factors for the low English proficiency of students, particularly in oral communication. She noted that the anxiety level of Indonesians students increases when asked to respond orally to questions. Mantiri (1999), in turn, emphasised the lack of motivation as a factor in learning English. He claimed that the people of Indonesia do not see the

immediate benefit of learning English and, therefore, are not interested in learning the language (Mantiri, 1999).

In terms of learning the language in a formal setting, the choice of teaching methods practised in many Indonesian schools also contributes to the low levels of proficiency in English. Indonesian teachers tend to use structural methods in which grammar and structure receive a high exposure in many areas in Indonesia (Idris, 2016; Priyono, 2004; Jazadi, 2004; Kuntjara, 2004; Lauder, 2008, Wullur, 2011). According to Katemba (2019), the main approach for teaching English, especially in rural areas, is still focused on linguistic knowledge, such as learning correct grammatical structures, memorising new words out of context, and doing exercise drills at sentence level in order to learn new structures. This is particularly true in the eastern part of Indonesia where the education system is far removed from government agencies (Pantow, 1983; Lotulung et al., 2017; Wullur, 2004). Another reason for using structural methods in teaching is the use of traditional evaluation tools measuring grammatical knowledge to determine their language proficiency (Wullur, 2011).

The use of structural approaches in many areas of Indonesia is widely practiced, notwithstanding the government introducing a communicative approach to language in 1994. In fact, the Department of Education in Indonesia has instigated a number of initiatives for teachers to be familiar with the communicative approach at all levels of education. This approach is aimed at integrating four skills – namely listening, speaking, reading, writing – in English language teaching.

The need of communicative English was one of the main concerns that was addressed with the introduction of a more recent English Language curriculum in 2013. The focus of this 2013 national curriculum is geared toward communicative competence (Havwini, 2019; Sahiruddin, 2013), and student-centred teaching approaches are promoted. According to Havwini (2019), the focus of English teaching has shifted toward an active and interactive learning approach, to ameliorate the lack of oral communication skills of students. It involves changes in instructional design and teaching approaches, with a move from a traditional teacher-centred classroom toward a student-centred one (Meisani et al., 2020).

Despite this initiative, the inclusion of English in the curriculum of tertiary level education varies from one institution to another. At the same time, while there is no consensus on the language programs,

university students' need for learning English grows. Saukah (2000), for instance, pointed out the need for Indonesian students to learn English and to improve their English proficiency. He drew attention to the low proficiency levels in terms of Indonesian students' TOEFL scores as compared to other international students, and concluded that most Indonesian graduates were not ready to undertake post-graduate education due to their low English proficiency.

Two of the basic needs that have been identified are reading and vocabulary mastery. For example, Nurweni and Read (1999) have pointed out in their survey of Indonesian university textbooks that more than 80% of texts books and the majority of suggested reference materials in general education are written in English (Nurweni & Read, 1999).

In terms of lexical knowledge, Nurweni and Read (1999) reported that the average Indonesian student had knowledge of 1226 English words, which is less than the required 3000-5000 word range threshold level for independent reading, or the objectives of 4000-5000 learned words set by the Indonesian Ministry of Education and Culture for incoming university students (Pantow, 1983; Hardianto, 2000). This is a considerable concern for education in Indonesia.

In terms of communication and speaking skills, Afriazi (2000) calls for the urgent need for university students to speak English, which is demanded in the 21st century. According to Afriazi, the number of university graduates speaking English is very low in Indonesia. Therefore, he called for improvement in the language programs available at university level. Adenan (2002) also identified the need for Indonesian students to communicate in English, and asserted that the mastery of English language is one of the most important skills in the era of globalisation. On this basis, the current study was conducted at a university in a part of Indonesia where the need of communicative English and the mastery of vocabulary is seen as crucial.

1.3 Theoretical Background

Although communicative language teaching and more recently task-based approaches have gained popular acceptance in Asian countries, English is still being taught in traditional, structural and explicit ways in many parts of Indonesia. That is, teaching that focuses on grammatical structures is commonly practiced in many Indonesian schools and colleges (Idris, 2016; Priyono, 2004; Jazadi, 2004; Kuntjara, 2004; Lauder, 2008; Mahpul, 2004). This has resulted in learners who lack fluency in their communication. Although this teaching method may be considered ineffective, as it could be argued that it results in inadequate implicit knowledge (R. Ellis, 2015), many teachers in Indonesia prefer this more traditional approach in their classrooms because they perceive that it leads to linguistic mastery (Idris, 2016; Lo Bianco, 2012; Lauder, 2008). The focus on language accuracy also aligns with current assessment practices in such language programs.

In many ways, this traditional approach reflects a strong belief in the need for explicit language knowledge, rather than implicit learning that leads to greater fluency. Implicit language learning is purported to be the acquisition of complex linguistic knowledge through natural means, that is, unconscious and incidental learning. In contrast, explicit learning requires conscious and deliberate actions to learn particular second language (L2) features (N. Ellis, 1994). Although there is debate about the degree of interface between explicit and implicit knowledge (R. Ellis, 2015), the consensus is that implicit knowledge is needed for meaningful, easy and fluent communication.

Implicit instruction, according to R. Ellis (2015), evolves from meaning centred procedures that focus on learners' comprehension and production of L2 within meaningful communication. One of these is task-based language teaching (R. Ellis, 2015). Earlier, Skehan (1998) made a case for a task-based approach, claiming it supports learners' natural acquisition mechanisms, in turn leading to the development of implicit knowledge. On this basis there is now widespread support for the use of task-based approaches as they are purported to enhance language development (e.g., Long, 2015; R. Ellis, 2015; Robinson, 2011b; Nunan, 2004; Willis & Willis, 2007; Bogachenko, 2016).

With the intention of moving pedagogy toward a more task-based teaching approach in Indonesia, it is important to demonstrate that students can make realistic progress in their language learning using this method. To demonstrate this, valid indicators for the measurement of language use, such as through

appropriate lexical development, are necessary. How this might be achieved is one aim of the current research.

Another challenge in the use of tasks in language teaching in Indonesia is how to engage learners in using tasks. In Indonesia, like in many other Asian societies, learning often involves one-directional transmission of knowledge, usually from the teacher to students. This results in learners being passive, with students only responding when asked by the teacher (Kirkpatrick, 1995; Marcellino, 2015). However, language learning can be successful when an active process requiring participation and engagement is implemented. For this to occur educators need to understand the importance of learner engagement and how this can be achieved (and measured), which this study aims to explore.

Engagement is associated with learning outcomes, and without engagement, learning is limited (Klem & Connell, 2004; Christenson, Reschly, & Wylie, 2012). It creates an environment facilitative of second language acquisition (SLA). It is crucial for successful task-based teaching (Philp & Dusesne, 2016), since task engagement enables some learners to progress faster in their L2 learning (Philp & Dusesne, 2016). Therefore, the focus of task investigations should shift toward task engagement—the specific aspects of task design which can provide “concrete effect on learners’ behaviour” (Lambert et al., 2016, p. 3)

Finally, if task engagement can be seen to promote language learning, particularly lexical development, then Indonesian EFL teachers may come to accept task-based language teaching and see its importance for engaging learners. Thus, the aim of this study is to demonstrate the potential advantages of learner-centred approaches (such as task-based language teaching) in Indonesian EFL teaching.

1.4 Aim of the Study

Although studies in multidimensional task engagement have become popular in recent years, existing research has focused mainly on how to design tasks to improve the quality of learners' engagement so as to produce better language performance (Philp & Duchesne, 2016; Lambert et al., 2016). What is needed is research to determine whether this heightened multidimensional engagement actually enhances language learning. Unless task engagement connects to learning, there is little theoretical motivation for undertaking such research. To date, most lexical learning studies have focused on vocabulary test-based outcomes. This research will seek to examine if learning is related to task engagement. Therefore, this study will explore whether or not lexical language learning may benefit from learner's multidimensional engagement with tasks.

From a practitioner's point of view, this investigation is important as it will provide direction about optimising task engagement for the improvement of lexical learning. At a general level, it will also provide further support for the adoption of task-based teaching, especially in Indonesia where the study was undertaken. This may help teachers address the inadequate communicative competence of EFL learners in that country.

1.5 Research Questions

In the light of fulfilling the aims of this study, two research questions were constructed to serve as the anchor guiding the research process. These two research questions are as follows:

1. What is the relationship between learners' task engagement (as measured by the frequency of elaborative clauses, negotiation moves, disagreements, recasts, completing peer utterances, word count, time on task, turn count, and backchannelling) and their lexical learning?
2. Is there additional evidence of lexical learning (in terms of the use of newly learned words and students' perceptions of learning new words through the use of tasks) when tasks are used?

1.6 Significance of the Study

One of the major indicators of the significance of any study is how it is situated in the current development of research trends while addressing the theoretical gap in literature. And this study is significant because it responds to the development of new theory and research findings in terms of task engagement. While addressing the need for connecting engagement to lexical learning, this study also investigates how task-based approach supports learning new words from both a quantitative and qualitative perspective. The findings from this study will be beneficial for future research directions toward a better understanding of lexical acquisitions and multidimensional engagement in the task-based language program.

This study also responds to the need of Indonesian students to learn English, especially how they may learn vocabulary more effectively. Not only will it show that lexical learning is the cornerstone of the language communication, but it further emphasises that students can make realistic progress in terms of lexical learning through the use of task-based language teaching. This progress can also be evaluated in the traditional form of a test as it is used in the Indonesian system.

This study has benefits for the Ministry of Education and Culture of Indonesia by highlighting the importance of task engagement for the language learning in at a university level, showing how it can address the needs of Indonesian students in terms of lexical learning. By doing so, it could provide crucial information for policy makers, curriculum developers, and the administrators of English language programs in Indonesian universities for developing language programs that could fulfill the need of learners.

This study also benefits the engagement with the local university where the study was conducted, as it may assist them in developing ESL programs which are research oriented and need based. The findings may promote the use of task-based approaches and task engagement in the classroom, and demonstrate its effectiveness in terms of lexical learning within this particular context.

Finally, studies on effective methodologies for ESL program are still needed, especially in Indonesia. This study provides information and direction for future researchers working in the area of task-based approach and SLA in general.

1.7 Scope of the Study

The scope and limitations in this study are:

1. The study was conducted in a university in a rural area near a medium-size city with a population of 500,000, which is located in the eastern part of Indonesia, the less developed part of the country. While the participants came from many areas in Indonesia, the majority were from the eastern part of the country. The results, therefore, cannot be generalised to the rest of Indonesia.
2. The study was conducted in a private university which used a placement test for all incoming students, rather than an entrance test to select only the capable students.
3. The current study focuses on the use of task learning in a face-to-face situation. The data collection process for the current study was completed in 2019. Since then, learning at Indonesian universities has moved online due the COVID 19 pandemic.
4. It is acknowledged that the researcher's strong connection to the sociocultural context of the study and his ideological stances might have affected the research and the interpretation of the findings.

1.8 Outline of the Thesis

This thesis consists of nine chapters. Chapter One presented the introduction of the study, in terms of the background of the research, the aims of the study, the research questions, the context and significance of the study. Chapter Two presents the literature review of this study in terms of task-based language teaching and multidimensional engagement. Chapter Three presents the literature review of in terms of lexical learning and theoretical frameworks, and identifies the research gap. Chapter Four presents the mixed methods approach used in this research, its participants, the procedures of data collection and data analysis, both in the pilot study and the main study.

Chapter Five presents the results of the analysis on task engagement, especially in terms of frequency analysis and histogram analysis for each of the coding schemes used in the study. Chapter Six presents the results of students' perceptions on the task engagements resulting from the analysis of the questionnaire and interview data. Chapter Seven presents the results of lexical learning and discusses the relationship between the multidimensional task engagement and lexical learning. These three

chapters (Five, Six and Seven) together aim to answer the two research questions which guide this thesis as stated in Section 1.5 above, namely (1) “What is the relationship between learners’ task engagement (as measured by the frequency of elaborative clauses, negotiation moves, disagreements, recasts, completing peer utterances, word count, time on task, turn count, and backchannelling) and their lexical learning?” and (2) "Is there additional evidence of lexical learning (in terms of the use of newly learned words and students’ perceptions of learning new words through the use of tasks) when tasks are used?".

Chapter Eight discusses and synthesises the findings of the study, first in terms the dimension of task engagement, then in terms of three processes of learning, that is, input-based, output-based, and interaction-based learning. The chapter also discusses the relationship of multidimensional task engagement and lexical learning in terms of cognitive, behavioural, emotional, and social engagement. Finally, Chapter Nine presents the conclusion of this study, with a summary of findings, contributions, limitations and recommendations for future research.

1.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter introduced the context of the study, the theoretical background, the study’s aims and research questions, and the study’s significance. It first discussed the need to improve Indonesian students’ vocabulary development and communicative English (Section 1.2). This was followed by an outline of the current developments in the area of task-based instruction and task engagement, and how these should be connected to lexical learning in order to move the pedagogy in Indonesia toward a more communicative approach (Section 1.3). Next, the aims of the study were discussed (Section 1.4) which culminated in the research question (Section 1.5). It then discussed the significance of the study (Section 1.6) and the output which is expected from the study. The scope and delimitations of this study were presented in Section 1.7, and an outline of the thesis was provided in Section 1.8.

Chapter Two

REVIEW OF LITERATURE: MULTIDIMENSIONAL TASK ENGAGEMENT

2.1 Overview

The review of literature for the study, which describes the literature and conceptual frameworks underlying this study, is presented in two chapters. It begins with a review of literature on multidimensional task engagement in this chapter (Chapter Two), followed by a review of literature on lexical learning which is presented in the next chapter (Chapter Three). Research in these areas is discussed to identify the research gap in relation to the current study which is discussed in Chapter Three.

This chapter is arranged as follows: The first section deals with a review of task-based language teaching (Section 2.2), in which the theoretical underpinnings (Sub-section 2.2.1), real-world and pedagogical tasks (Sub-section 2.2.2), task-based syllabi and their rationale (Sub-section 2.2.3), as well as task type, task sequence and task analysis (Sub-section 2.2.4) are presented. The next section presents the review of literature on engagement (Section 2.3), which discusses developments in multidimensional engagement (Sub-section 2.3.1), engagement in second language acquisition (SLA) (Sub-section 2.3.2), engagement in task-based language teaching (Sub-section 2.3.3), and indicators of task engagement (Sub-section 2.3.4). The chapter concludes with a summary in Section 2.4.

2.2 Task-based Language Teaching

There has been a considerable number of studies accumulating for more than 20 years dedicated to exploring task-based language teaching (TBLT), and as such it is impossible to review the entire breadth of literature in SLA. This section thus focusses on providing an overview of task-based approaches. First, the theoretical rationale of using TBLT is discussed (Sub-section 2.2.1 Theoretical underpinnings). This is followed a discussion of select literature on the design of a TBLT lesson, starting with a definition of the task (Sub-section 2.2.2 Real-world and pedagogical tasks). This is followed by a discussion of literature on of developing task lessons (Sub-section 2.2.3 Task-based syllabi and their rationale), and how a task can be broken down into components and sequencing task lessons (Sub-section 2.2.4 Task type, task sequence and task analysis).

2.2.1 Theoretical underpinnings

TBLT is underpinned by a strong theoretical base, reflecting current understandings of language acquisition. Rather than requiring learners to focus on and then correctly produce the target language (i.e., the language to be learned) as it occurs in traditional synthetic approaches (e.g., grammar based pedagogy), with TBLT there has been a shift towards the active use of language for communication which is achieved through classroom tasks (i.e., adopting an analytic approach). Furthermore, TBLT promotes the use of authentic communication combined with rich input material, meaning negotiation and other opportunities for feedback, performance-based activities, and contextualised functional use with a focus on the form of language (as distinct from the synthetic forms of the language) (Brandl, 2008; Nunan, 2004; Richard & Rodgers, 2001, 2014).

The main issue with this type of material design is that the synthetic syllabus approach assumes learners learn English in a linear fashion with isolated items being added one at a time. Arguably, this is not in line with the way learners learn L2, which is through a complex process of mapping of form-function relationships (Long, 1996; Skehan, 2008).

As an analytic approach TBLT reflects a constructivist view of education (Bettencourt, 1989; Von Glaseserfeld, 1996) where learners are seen as active participants in the construction of meaning which is based on their own ideas. However, as indicated above, language form is not ignored: As learners progress, their language system continues being restructured to accommodate new linguistic data

(Long, 1996; Richard & Rodgers, 2014; Skehan, 2008). This occurs because TBLT demands that learners cognitively construct and revise meaning (and form) as part of their own productive language use. To achieve this, tasks are designed to challenge learners to use their understanding and current communicative competence to solve problems. By performing well-targeted tasks, learners come to notice the gap between their current production and that which is more target-like.

Bygate and Samuda (2007) used the term ‘holistic activity’ in describing the main feature of tasks. This activity “involves the learners in dealing with the different aspects of language together, in the way language is normally used” (p. 7). It also allows learners to make a deliberate choice on meaning and use these language features with the purpose of performing the task. Bygate and Samuda (2007) contrasted ‘holistic’ with ‘analytical’ activities. The latter refers to a teaching approach which limits the aspects of language for learners to focus on, and allows learners to discretely practice these aspect of language until they are mastered.

This holistic activity enables the task-based approach to be coherent and align with modern educational principles. Bygate and Samuda (2007) identified the influence of Dewey’s educational philosophy on the use of task in L2 pedagogy. The task-based approach exemplified Dewey’s pragmatism principles in using experience as a catalyst with learners as active agents for learning, as well as in relating the task content to personal and classroom functional purpose (Bygate & Samuda, 2007; Hildebrand, 2018).

In addition to Dewey’s theory, Bygate and Samuda (2007) also drew on Bruner’s theory of ‘learning to use’ and Barnes’ theory of ‘exploratory talk’ as the logic behind the task-based approach. Learning according to Bruner involves the need of concrete experience as a tool to build intuitive understanding of linguistic patterns. Task-based language learning, therefore, requires that learners first focus on and respond to meaning. Next, as the same procedures are repeated, learners will recognise recurrent linguistic patterns and then make connection, including to the meaning. Finally, they will learn to make generalisations and develop an intuitive feel for language fostered by trial and error (Bruner, 1960; Bygate & Samuda, 2007). Barnes’ theory on exploratory talk, in turn, puts greater emphasis on learner-to-learner first draft interaction, marked by “hesitations, rephrasing, false starts and changes of direction” talk (Bygate & Samuda, 2007 p. 32). This has been translated into peer interaction for the task setting in the current study.

Nunan (2004) draws on Kolb's (1984) notion of 'experiential learning' as a rationale for TBLT, with an emphasis on learner's immediate personal experience as the starting point. In this 'learning by doing' approach, personal growth relies firstly on personal engagement in which learners actively incorporate their personal ideas and experience in doing the task, and secondly on learners making sense of their immediate experience and then going beyond the experience by reflecting on their task performance (Kohonen, 1992; Kolb, 1984; Nunan, 2004).

Another foundation for a task-based approach is provided by the framework of experiential learning to language teaching as proposed by Kohonen (1992), who introduced guidelines for an oral framework for experiential learning. These include transformation of knowledge (instead of transmission of knowledge), small group collaboration, a holistic (rather than a discrete) approach to language teaching, self-inquiry and self-directed learning, and intrinsic motivation. Among these guidelines, the most prominent motivation for a TBLT approach is the way it encourages learner-centredness and autonomy, whereby learners would gradually develop into autonomous learners relying more and more on themselves for their personal growth and less on the teacher (Kohonen, 1992).

Other theoretical underpinnings for TBLT were drawn from research on language acquisition. Robinson (2011a), for example, summarised four ways for how tasks can foster SLA, namely, by providing 1) a context of understanding and negotiation of meaning from input or partner (in dialogue tasks), 2) opportunities for uptake of corrective feedback, 3) opportunities to incorporate 'pre-modified input' to help learners communicate, and 4) opportunities for noticing the gap between provided input and learners' production.

Skehan (1998) made a case for a task-based approach claiming it supports learners' natural acquisition mechanisms, in turn leading to the development of implicit knowledge. On this basis, there is now widespread support for the use of task-based approaches as they are purported to enhance language development (e.g., R. Ellis, 2015; Long, 2015; Nunan, 2004; Robinson, 2011a; Willis & Willis, 2007). The use of output task has been found beneficial for boosting, fortifying, and improving learners' knowledge of new words. Touti and Maleki (2016) make a case for the use of cognitively demanding output tasks, which require a more intense degree of thinking from the learner when encoding vocabulary items. It is suggested that when the task requires more engagement and deeper mental processing, it will result in a more robust lexical learning.

2.2.2 Real-world and pedagogical tasks

Since its introduction in the late 1980s and early 1990s (Breen, 1987; Long & Crookes, 1992; Prabhu, 1987) task-based language teaching (TBLT) has arguably become one of the most widely used methods in L2 teaching. The major characteristic of a task-based approach is the use of tasks as a primary pedagogical tool. These include real-world contextualised tasks, ranging from giving directions, or cashing a cheque, to a more complex scenario such as replying to a letter of inquiry. TBLT also includes pedagogical tasks used in the classroom to support learners' development so that they will be able to perform real-life tasks (Long, 2005; Willis & Willis, 2007). A key aspect of tasks is that they require the L2 learners to use language meaningfully in authentic interaction.

Nunan (2004) and Long and Norris (2000) made two further distinctions between 1) real-world or target tasks and 2) pedagogical tasks. Target tasks refer to uses of language in the real-world beyond the classroom, whereas pedagogical tasks are those that occur in the classroom. Similarly, Van den Branden (2006) classified tasks in terms of language learning goals and educational activities.

Whilst tasks should ultimately lead to the performance of real-world activities, it can be difficult to source sufficient authentic material. This has led researchers to question the degree of authenticity that a task needs (Nunan, 2004). Consequently, pedagogical tasks that incorporate different aspects of the task, such as grading difficulty level, developing a range of work plans, and promoting different outcomes have been promoted to practitioners (Skehan, 1998). Even so, the ultimate goal was to have learners engage in authentic tasks as these would enable learners to function in the real-world (R. Ellis, 2003; Nunan, 2004; Long, 2005).

Initially the focus of task-based language teaching was to design activities that would resemble those found in the real-world. These are called real-world or authentic tasks (Long & Norris, 2000). As Long (2015) elaborated:

Tasks are the real-world activities people think of when planning, conducting, or recalling their day. That can mean things like brushing their teeth, preparing breakfast, reading a newspaper, taking a child to school, responding to e-mail messages, making a sales call, attending a lecture or a business meeting, having lunch with a colleague from work, helping a child with

homework, coaching a soccer team, and watching a TV program. Some tasks are mundane, some complex. Some require language use, some do not; for others, it is optional. (p. 6)

However, over a period of time task design has evolved to be more pedagogic in order to suit classroom activities. Pedagogic tasks, therefore, refer to the activities, materials and evaluation used in a formal classroom environment in which the task is performed (Long, 2015).

As research on pedagogical tasks accumulated, a technical definition was deemed necessary. Nunan (2004), for example, defined pedagogical task as:

a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right with a beginning, a middle and an end. (p. 4)

Another definition of pedagogical task is provided by R. Ellis (2003) as follows:

A task is a workplan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of whether the correct or appropriate propositional content has been conveyed. To this end, it requires them to give primary attention to meaning and to make use of their own linguistic resources, although the design of the task may predispose them to choose particular forms. A task is intended to result in language use that bears a resemblance, direct or indirect, subject to the way language is used in the real world. Like other language activities, a task can engage productive or receptive, and oral or written skills and also various cognitive processes. (p. 16)

There are four required characteristics that define a pedagogical task. For instance, a task must have: 1) a gap in the information between participants, 2) the availability of a range of learner resources, 3) a communicative outcome with the completion of a task, and 4) a primary focus on meaning (Breen, 1987; R. Ellis, 2009; Lambert, 2017; Long, 2005, 2015). Lambert (2019), for instance, gives an example on how to arrange a picture strip story activity as an exercise and as a task. As an exercise, both speaker and listener know the story before performing a dialogue and are provided with

instructions to help use the targeted narrative forms. The participants practice the narrative with the focus on how to use the language correctly. In a task, however, the listener would not know the story and is given a scrambled picture set (1. gap). Together the speaker and listener have to use their own language (2. resources) to negotiate an understanding of how to arrange the pictures in an orderly fashion (3. outcome). Thus the focus of the task is to develop mutual understanding (4. focus of attention) to correctly arrange the picture.

2.2.3 Task-based syllabi and rationale

Tasks have, over the past 20 years, become well established as a unit of design in a communicative curriculum. They are designed to engage learners in realistic communication on the grounds that engagement in communicating meaning is likely to lead to implicit learning (Crabbe, 2007). As research on task-based learning has evolved, the practical demand for task-based language teaching (TBLT) also increased and several ESL/EFL countries have explicitly implemented task-based syllabi in their formal L2 instruction (Butler, 2011; Bogachenko & Oliver, 2020, Solares-Altamirano, 2020, Lambert, 2020).

One of the most important considerations in developing a task-based syllabus is the selection of language based on a need analysis. In order to choose which task is to be included in a lesson, a needs analysis should be conducted at the beginning of the course of work or even at a lesson level. The function of this is to identify the real-world activities and the required use of language needed to perform the task (Long, 2005; 2015). Needs might vary from one group of learners to another and, therefore, should be conducted for each group.

Another consideration is how to differentiate the steps in developing an analytic syllabus from a more common synthetic syllabus. Setting up a task-based syllabus requires different procedures than those used in synthetic syllabus design practices. Synthetic approaches in syllabus design segment the language into discrete linguistic items and then present these one at a time so that learners grasp each piece independently of the other and then are required to synthesise it (Long & Crookes, 1992; Long 1985; Van den Branden, 2006). Thus, it can be seen that synthetic syllabi are typically exercise-based, and rely on the mastery of language features by practicing the structures, function or isolated subskills (Long, 2015).

There are several types of synthetic syllabi that are arranged in terms of structural features (based on linguistic forms of structures) including functional (or notional) features (based on groups of linguistic devices used for certain communicative needs), situational features (based on situation or topics), or lexical features (based on vocabulary frequency studies) (Long & Crookes, 1992, 1993; Long, 2015). The main problem with this type of material design is that learners actually learn L2 through a complex process of mapping of form-function relationship, rather than in linear fashion where isolated items are added one at a time (Long & Crookes, 1992, 1993; Long, 2015; Van den Branden, 2006).

Analytic approaches, in contrast, present the whole target language at a time without explicit instruction about the language system. In this way, the learners see the patterns of language in the input and analyse the rules based on the pattern. They also develop holistic chunks and are given opportunity to slot and frame structures in a trial-and-error fashion (Long & Crookes, 1992; Long & Norris, 2000; Van den Branden, 2006).

The focus of an analytic syllabus in language teaching is on how the language is learned rather than on how it is presented. This assumes a non-interventionist position, where the linguistic feature is not presented explicitly, but induced from linguistic patterns. Language is allowed to emerge as learners meet communicative demands and focus first on meaning. This type of syllabus is internal to the learner as they become self-directed and autonomous (Long & Crookes, 1992; Long, 2015).

In a task-based syllabus, the focus is not on language (i.e., things that are said), but more on what is done in life. The use of language can be required or optional (Long & Crookes, 1992). The selection of content material is informed by the needs analysis of the target task, and grading is based on the difficulty or complexity level of non-linguistic criteria featured in the task, or simply on frequency and natural order (e.g., number of steps required to perform the task, parties involved in the task, displacement in the context of space and time, or saliency of the distinguishing features, etc) (Long & Crookes, 1992). Versions of pedagogic tasks are designed in sequences to gradually increase in complexity to approximate target tasks in line with learners' developing capacity to complete them (R. Ellis 2003; Lambert & Robinson, 2014; Robinson, 2001) as discussed in the following sub-section (Sub-section 2.3.4. Task type, task sequence and task analysis).

The main objective of a task-based syllabus is twofold, first by stimulating learners to produce ample target language samples which could serve as a stipulated input for their partners (in a pair work setting) or for other learners (in a group work setting), and by triggering the promotion of interaction by provoking negotiation of meaning and feedback (comprehension checks, clarification requests, confirmation checks, and recasts) which in turn provide opportunity for learners to reshape the target language samples (Long and Crookes, 1992). The argument here is that this type of interaction facilitates L2 learning (Gass et al., 1998; Long, 1983, 1985, 1996). The focus of a task-based approach, therefore, is on the interaction activities where learners engage in different types of tasks such as jigsaws, information gaps, role plays, etc in dyads or in small groups (Long, 1996).

From a different perspective, R. Ellis (2005) listed three arguments in favour of task-based syllabi. First, due to its compatibility with cognitive processes needed for SLA, TBLT is deemed to provide incidental learning in which rules are introduced implicitly. Second, TBLT emphasises learner participation, cooperation and engagement. And third, task syllabus should suit learners' specific purposes, based on needs analysis.

The great advantage of tasks is that they allow for learner engagement in realising the communicative potential of the encoded semantic resource (Widdowson, 2003) and the most important role for a language task is to confront learners with certain language problems when completing the task (Long, 1985).

The question remains, however, how tasks can be structured to further enhance language learning (such as evidenced through lexical development). Therefore, this study seeks to address the question of whether there are task features that, when manipulated, such as through task design or task engagement, can result in better learning.

2.2.4 Task type, task sequence and task analysis

As noted previously, TBLT has been the focus of a considerable body of research. Initially, most studies were concerned with the definition of the task, the nature of the interaction that occurred during tasks, and how to design tasks suitable to language learners' needs. Later research shifted to task analysis, specifically examining the complexity of tasks and how to promote appropriate learner interaction. Such studies were underpinned first by the interaction hypothesis and then by the cognitive hypothesis, both of which considered how tasks affected learners' language development (Long, 2015). They explored how tasks could be made more cognitively and linguistically demanding (Nunan, 2004; Robinson, 2011b; Skehan, 1998). Tasks were then categorised according to their structural complexity or linguistic difficulty. This process of 'taxonomy of task characteristic' allowed for the sequencing of tasks based on 'operationalized characteristics' (Robinson, 2011b).

Research on task design attempts to find variables in task design that will lead to recognised SLA processes such as negotiation or noticing (Bygate et al., 2001; R. Ellis, 2003). Tasks, and more specifically their components, characteristics, different types, and implementation conditions, have been the focus of much recent research (Albert & Kormos, 2004).

One early classification of task according to its type was proposed by Yule (1997) based on the level of discourse demands in an output task. According to Yule there are four types of task: 1) description tasks which require learners to identify a referent, 2) instruction tasks which require learners to explain procedures, 3) narration tasks which require learner to relate a sequence of events, and 4) opinion tasks where learners express and support a position. Description tasks demand learners to use short, co-dependent utterances, and referential context carried by lexis and noun phrases, but very little syntax is required. In description tasks, learners need to activate known language and re-enforce specific vocabulary domains. Instruction tasks increase discourse demands to sentence level processing and allow learners to focus on meaning/task outcome while promoting incidental L2 acquisition. Instruction tasks can be completed several times with different partners and also in mixed groups. A narration task demands longer, independent turns, where learners present a complete idea with multiple subjects and variable verbal structures. Because of these demands, narration tasks should be used after learners have acquired confidence in completing a series of instruction tasks. Lastly, opinion tasks demand that

learners use a repertoire of cognitive processing as well as linguistic resources (Yule, 1997; Berman, 2008).

According to Lambert and Robinson (2014), tasks could also be sequenced in a horizontal dimension. This horizontal sequencing arranges different versions of a single task type in relation to learners' capacity to process the required language, rather than sequencing according to task demand or language proficiency level. Several factors which could add to the difficulty level of the task would be the referents (similarity and familiarity) used in description tasks, and reasoning demand in the instruction tasks. In narrative tasks and opinion tasks, simultaneous events could be added to make the tasks more complex. Likewise, opinion tasks could incorporate multiple perspectives, and temporal/spatial displacement. In addition, horizontal difficulty factors can be added by simply changing the task into a dialogue as opposed to a monologue, and, written rather than spoken.

Recent research in task-based language teaching has been extended from the original interactionist approach to include an information-processing perspective. One of the pioneers in this context is Skehan (1998, 2003) who used a cognitive approach (also known as the limited capacity model) to interrogate the concepts of psychological processes learners use when working on a task. He argued against too cognitively demanding tasks, which consume too much attentional resources and where "less attention is available for focus on form" (Skehan, 1998, p. 97). Skehan's argument is twofold: The first is to sequence the cognitive demand of a task from less to more demanding, and the second is to balance the cognitive demand of a task in terms of accuracy, fluency and complexity of production. Balancing the cognitive demand is important, since human beings have limited attentional capacity for language production, therefore, too much cognitive demand in one area will lead to a trade off in attention in other areas.

In addition, Skehan (1998) suggested a need to balance and sequence the cognitive demand of task design based on three factors, namely: 1) code complexity (i.e., developmental sequences), 2) cognitive complexity (i.e., the processing requirement) and, 3) communicative stress (i.e., the learner's interaction control). Skehan's (2003) classification of tasks is based on mainly on the level of interaction required and the level of cognitive demand (Skehan, 2003; see also Long, 2015; R. Ellis, 2003). For instance, based on level of interaction, the orientation of a task can be classified as either closed or open, depending on whether a correct solution to the task is required or not. A closed task has

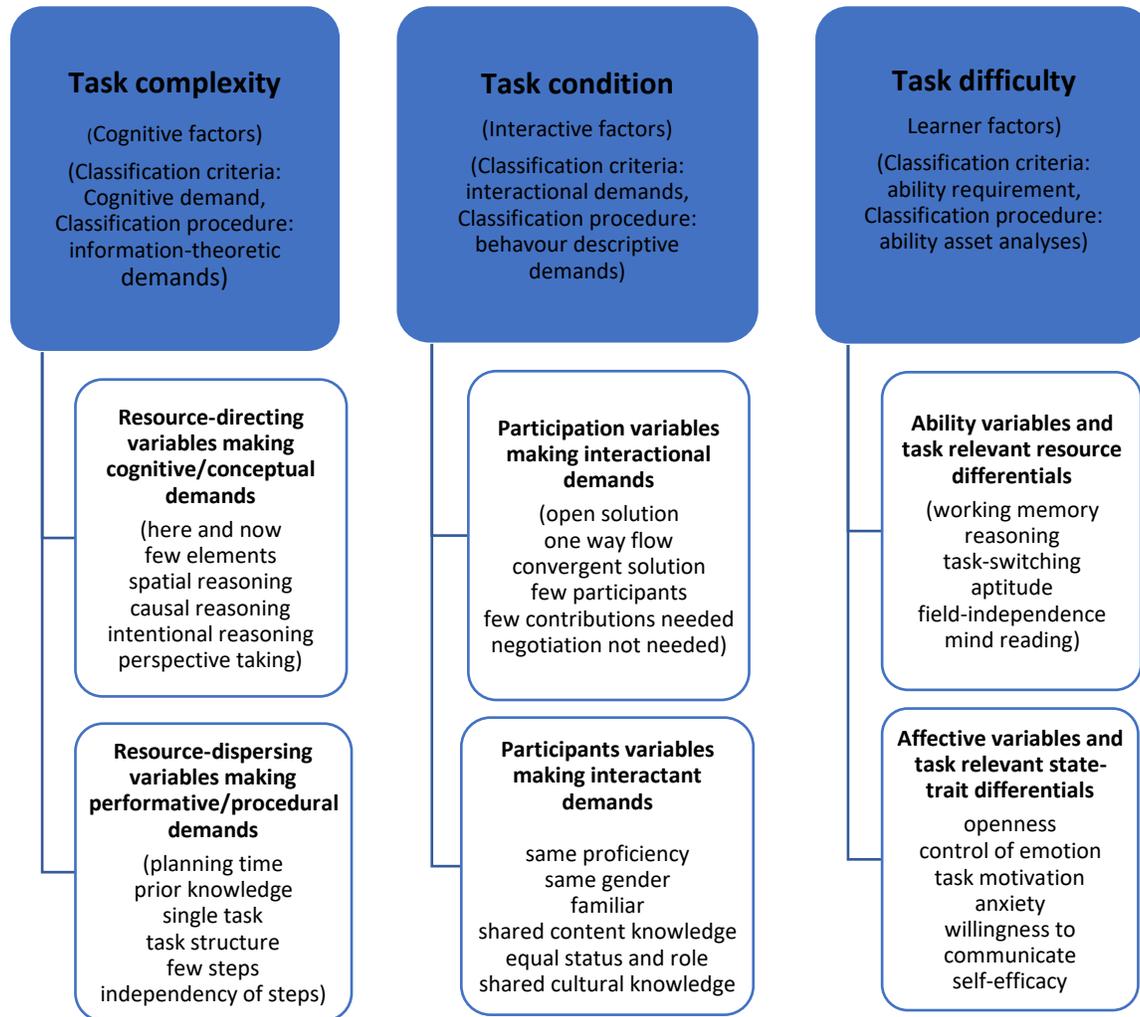
only one correct solution, whereas for an open task there is no correct solution, and learners may arrive at their own solution. In turn, the way information is distributed to complete the task can also vary in three ways: 1) shared (information is available to all participants), 2) divided one-way information flow (one learner has all the information), or 3) divided two-way information flow (information is distributed between learners) (Skehan, 2003; see also Long, 2015). Based on the level of demand, the lowest level would be a describe and identify task (e.g., a schedule task, in which learners make a reservation based on an available time slot), followed by a narrative task (e.g., a story task in which learners make story from a picture strip). The most demanding task would be an opinion task (e.g., a ranking task, in which learners rank things based on their importance). Although there is a preference for open, divided two-way information flow and opinion tasks, it would be easier if the less interactional and demanding tasks are presented earlier to make the learner familiar with these (Skehan, 2003; see also Long, 2015).

Another well-known information-processing based approach in task-based language teaching is Robinson's (2001, 2003, 2011a) cognition hypothesis. In contrast to the cognitive hypothesis (Skehan, 1998, 2003) which sequences the task in cognitive order, Robinson argued that task design and sequencing are complex activities that should take into consideration the following three interrelated factors, namely, 1) cognitive factors, 2) learner factors, and 3) interactive factors, as each one of these factors has the potential to impact the complexity, accuracy and fluency of learners' performance in a task-based context.

In line with cognition hypothesis, Robinson proposed a triadic componential framework for task classification and analysis, based on three main categories according which a task can be analysed. The first category in this framework is task complexity, where the cognitive factors of a task are sequenced naturally. The second category is task condition, with a focus on interactive factors. The last category in the triadic componential framework is task difficulty, where the learner factors are the object of analysis. Robinson's triadic componential framework is illustrated in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1

Robinson's triadic componential framework for task analysis (adapted from Robinson, 2011a)



Robinson's framework for task analysis has been adapted and applied extensively in experimental studies both with regard to task complexity and task condition (Robinson, 2011a). In studies on task complexity, the manipulation of variables has been conducted by adding or reducing the cognitive/conceptual demands of the task (e.g., studies on here and now, few elements, spatial reasoning, casual reasoning, intentional reasoning, and perspective taking), or by adding and reducing the procedural demands of the task (e.g., studies on planning time, prior knowledge, single task, task structure, few steps, and independency of steps). Similarly, in studies on task condition, the manipulation of interactional demands has been the focus of intervention studies in the area of SLA (e.g., studies on open solution task, one-way flow task, convergent solution, number of contributions

needed, for participation-wise subcategory; and same proficiency, same gender, familiarity, shared content knowledge, equal status and role, and shared cultural knowledge for participants-wise subcategory). For a detailed overview of these studies refer to Robinson (2011a).

In addition to classifications based on cognitive and interactional demands, task condition can also be analysed in terms of learner factors. Studies focusing on learners' abilities in terms of resource differentials (e.g., studies on high and low working memory, reasoning, task-switching aptitude, field independence and mind reading) and learner affective variables have found correlations with respect to their L2 performance in terms of accuracy, complexity and fluency (see Robinson, 2011a).

The present study on task engagement fits into Robinson's framework for task difficulty since the focus is on learner factors. However, engagement in this study was not limited to affective factors, but instead is multidimensional with various components, as discussed.

2.3 Engagement

This section presents the review of literature on engagement. It deals particularly with the developments of multidimensional engagement (Sub-section 2.3.1), engagement in the SLA context (Sub-section 2.3.2), engagement in task-based language teaching (Sub-section 2.3.3), and indicators of task engagement (Sub-section 2.3.4).

2.3.1 Developments in multidimensional engagement

The notion of engagement has been a popular topic in educational research over the past two decades (Dincer et al., 2019; Fredricks et al., 2004). Although the role of engagement in academic achievement has been widely accepted among experts and supported by repeated research (Fredricks, et al., 2004; Schlenker et al., 2013), the conceptual definition of engagement is far from agreed, and how and why engagement may promote and facilitate learning is still debated (Reschly & Christenson, 2012).

The construct of student engagement has gone through many changes with studies on student engagement having different purposes and objectives. For instance, in an earlier engagement study in 1985, the focus of engagement was simply on how to keep students attending school with an objective to prevent school dropout (Reschly & Christenson, 2012). Later, another study examined promoting

school completion in Finn's (1989) participation-identification model. In this model, engagement was seen as a contextual factor which helps students not only to stay and participate in school, but also to acquire the required skills to get through their schooling. In this way engagement studies have been used to identify factors which predict school completion or contribute to a higher risk of failure. The identified factors were the students' skills, attitudes, readiness, context, and other demographic backgrounds (Finn & Zimmer, 2012; Reschly & Christenson, 2012;).

The next milestone was the introduction of the check-and-connect model, which acknowledged the more significant role of context and students' needs in order to reach a specific learning outcome. This model highlighted the important association of context, engagement and outcome of interest with the intention of maximising person-environment fit for each student (i.e., optimising the best context engagement for every person) (Appleton, 2012; Reschly & Christenson, 2012). The theory of student engagement under this model was presented as multidimensional (academic, behavioural, cognitive and affective); however, academic and behavioural engagement was perceived as the result of cognitive and affective engagement. In other words, in this model, cognitive and affective engagement connect the learners' context and the outcome, which are academic and behavioural engagement. However, the objective of engagement remained to be school completion, albeit with a new focus on how to create an environment for success.

Following school reforms in the early 2000s (particularly in the USA), there was a drastic shift in the construct of engagement. The work of Fredricks et al., (2004) contributed to a shift in the objective of engagement toward achievement, performance and learning (Appleton et al, 2008; Davis & McPartland, 2012; Reschly & Christenson, 2012). Together, the rising influence of research in motivation, and the new role of the teacher during the reform has paved the way for learner empowerment. As a result, learners are now seen as active players responsible for their own learning and, therefore, personal investment in participatory behaviour, and affective and academic processing have been hypothesised as crucial for engagement to take place. In this way, too, Fredricks et al. (2004) conceptualised student engagement as a multidimensional construct: behavioural, cognitive and emotional.

Engagement in academic activity involves two dimensions, external and internal. External involvement is perceivable by observing the actual behaviour a student displays. Academic involvement can also

include internal processes in which a learner engages cognitively or emotionally. These two processes may not occur simultaneously, since learners could pretend to be engaged without involving their thought processes. Realising that these were two processes may not align with each other had led scholars to believe that engagement could manifest in two or more dimensions. As a result, scholars have begun to accept the concept of multifaceted engagement (Mercer & Dörnyei, 2021). However, observable behavioural participation remains the core construct of engagement. Mercer and Dörnyei indicate, for example, that they “perceive engagement to be always associated with action, ideally combined with internal dimensions of cognitive and affective involvement” (Mercer & Dörnyei, 2021, p. 3).

According to Fredricks et al.’s (2004) framework, emotional engagement was defined as attitudes, feelings and relationships expressed with a view toward school entities. Behavioural engagement is defined as compliance with school norms as seen in behaviours, like involvement and participation in class (asking questions, being attentive, contributing to class discussions, staying on task). In turn, cognitive engagement is defined as the intrinsic motivation for learning and metacognitive strategy use. Frederick et al.’s concept of engagement also overlaps with the construct of the motivational process, especially within the dimension of emotional and cognitive engagement.

Many have supported this newer multidimensional engagement model, narrowing the context of student engagement to academic activity. However, the argument toward describing the construct of engagement is far from settled. There is an ongoing debate on several issues, specifically: 1) whether there were two, three or four subtype models of engagement and the overlapping definition of each subpart, 2) whether engagement and disengagement belong to a continuum interface, and 3) the distinction between engagement and motivation (Finn & Zimmer, 2012; Reschly & Christenson, 2012). This debate adds to the complexity of developing ways to measure engagement raising questions about what should be included as an indicator and facilitator. Nevertheless, four dimensions of engagement, namely, behavioural, cognitive, emotional and social—including affective, and interdependency of each subtype continue to appear more in the recent literature (Appleton, 2012; Finn & Zimmer, 2012; Reschly & Christenson, 2012).

Proponents of a unified model of engagement tend to agree that engagement is a broad and complex concept that encompasses a range of behaviours and attitudes. However, the definitions of these

behaviours and attitudes differ from one another. For example, for Glanville and Wildhagen (2007) it is “participation, identification, attachment, motivation and membership” (p. 1021). Hughes and Zhang (2006) describe it as “student effort, attention, persistence, and cooperative participation in learning” (p. 406), whereas Kenny et al., (2006) suggest “positive attitudes towards school, teachers, classmates, dan academic learning” (p. 272). Furrer and Skinner (2003) define behaviour and attitude as “active, goal-directed, flexible, constructive, persistent, focused interactions with the social and physical environment”, while Cavanagh (2015) proposed a linear model measure for “self-educational values, self-learning outcomes, classroom learning attitudes and behaviours, classroom support, classroom discussion, classroom planning, teacher support and expectations, and parental involvement” (p. 349)

If the construct of engagement were to be expanded to a broader term, with engagement defined in terms of any participation/commitment in all school activities over a longer period of time (Eccles & Wang, 2012), a unified model of engagement might be a better option. In contrast, the concept of engagement can also be narrowed into specific tasks, situations, or limited to a specific class activity. This narrow view of learners’ engagement which incorporates domain-specific measures was classified as academic engagement by Finn and Zimmer (2012). In this narrow view, the construct of engagement is seen as overlapping with motivation (Appleton et al., 2008; Finn, 1993; Fredericks et al., 2004), attentiveness (Finn, Pannoza & Voelkl, 1995), and effort, attention and persistence (Furrer & Skinner, 2003). And narrowing the perimeter of engagement helps define a simpler multi-faceted conceptualisation of student engagement. Thus, engagement appears to include several overlapping dimensions—mainly recognised as behavioural, social, emotional, and cognitive (Appleton, 2012; Finn & Zimmer, 2012; Philp & Duchesne, 2016; Reeve, 2013; Reschly & Christenson, 2012; Svalberg, 2009).

In terms of this narrow view of learners’ engagement in a lesson, engagement in an English as a Second/Foreign Language (ESFL) class is the context for student interaction and participation in particular tasks or lessons. In this way indicators of engagement may be assessed by analysing students’ words—analysing their performance in doing tasks and supplemented by their response (Appleton, 2012; Yazzie-Mintz & McCormick, 2012). This is because engagement is observable in student communication when indicators of cognitive, social, behavioural and affective measurement can be established (Lambert et al., 2017; Philp & Duchesne, 2016).

2.3.2 Engagement in L2 acquisition research

While the research on engagement in general education has flourished, in the domain of language education until recently engagement and its associations to learning within the classroom have received less attention (Dincer et al., 2017; Montenegro, 2017; Noels et al., 2016; Dincer et al., 2019; Philp & Duchesne, 2016). Oga-Baldwin and Nakata (2017) highlight this, observing the different terms of engagement that have been used in research, showing in particular that only a particular dimension of engagement is addressed - such as motivated behaviour (Nakata, 2006), actional phase (Dörnyei, 2000), on-task behaviours, (Butler & Lee, 2006), term effort (Taguchi et al., 2009), and 'motivational currents' (Dörnyei, et al. 2015).

Despite this general methodological constraint, Dörnyei and Kormos' (2000) study on oral task performance does provide some insights into the relationship between several variables of task engagement and providing a multi-level construct. Focusing mainly on motivational variables, they claimed that L2 motivation has consistently confirmed the effects of motivation on learning achievement (Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000). They proposed that task engagement should include the following components: linguistic self-confidence, willingness to communicate, need for achievement and social status, which are some of the affective and sociodynamic factors of engagement.

The concept of multidimensional motivation proposed by Dörnyei and Kormos (2000) was further elaborated upon by Tseng and Schmitt's (2008) who explored motivated vocabulary learning. They proposed and validated a structural model incorporating vocabulary knowledge and motivation, and variables in vocabulary learning, such as initial appraisal, self-regulating capacity, strategic involvement, mastery of tactics, vocabulary knowledge, and effectiveness of learning tactics (Tseng & Schmitt, 2008). Their findings revealed that motivated vocabulary learning follows a developmental mode and functions as a cyclic process and promotes the significance of motivation in the vocabulary learning.

The work of Svalberg (2009) and Svalberg and Askham (2014) is particularly important since they limited the concept of engagement in the area of language learning to only that within a language-related episode (LRE), that is, any part of a pair work interaction where students focus their attention toward the linguistic features of the dialogue (Swain & Lapkin, 1995). This notion of LRE denotes

heightened attention and focus toward form. This concept of engagement with language particularly is focused on language awareness and development, within social, cognitive and affective dimensions of language use. Thus, engagement in this context is defined as a state and process involving alert focus, positive orientation toward the language and willingness to initiate social language use, whereby L2 acquisition can be an antecedent to and an outcome of engagement.

Grounding their work in Svalberg's notion of engagement in language use, Sang and Hiver (2021) suggest that engagement is multidimensional because it requires learners to be actively connected to their learning environment rather than just their conceptualizing their thought. They propose that the construct of engagement should also be based on action, rather than just a mere desire of intention to act as in motivation. This would set engagement apart from the construct of motivation, investment, and interest (Sang & Hiver, 2021).

2.3.3 Engagement in task-based language teaching

In recent development of studies on task-based language teaching, Philp and Duchesne (2016) suggested that more research is needed in the area of task engagement, particularly in the area of multidimensional student engagement in task-based language learning. Philp and Duchesne (2016) propose a comprehensive instrument of engagement analysis which operationalises the construct for quantitative data analysis. The work by Philp and Duchesne (2016) acknowledges learner participation in several dimensions: social, behavioural and affective aside from cognitive engagement as outlined in previous research. As such, they define engagement as “a state heightened attention and involvement” (p. 51) and the four dimensions arguably “operate interdependently and mutually influence one another” (p. 67).

This argument is based on the assumption that when the context of engagement is limited to task-based interaction in the language classroom, the goal and process of language learning should be the basis of task engagement (Philp & Duchesne, 2016). To illustrate the point, Philp and Duchesne cited the work of Swain and Lapkin (2001) who operationalised engagement as language-related episodes, due to its focus on language form, meaning and use. Philp and Duchesne (2016) further argue that there is a need to include social engagement, due to its importance in language learning, and the fact that social interaction provides opportunity for language practice and negotiation.

Task engagement has been seen as one of the reasons why some learners progress faster in their L2 learning than others. It has also been proposed that engagement is crucial for successful task-based teaching (Philp & Duchesne, 2016). This is because engagement results in better interaction which, as indicated above, creates an environment that is facilitative of L2 acquisition. Engagement stimulates learners to focus their attention toward a particular learning task or linguistic feature. On the other hand, without engagement, learning is limited. On this basis Lambert et al., (2017) argue that the focus of task investigations should now shift toward task engagement, that is, the specific aspects of task design which can have a “concrete effect on learners’ behaviour” (p. 3). They also suggest that to date there is little empirical attention given to “the role of tasks in improving quality of learner’s engagement” (p. 2), compared to studies on language processing during task performance” (p. 3).

Hiver, Al-Hoorie, Vitta and Wu (2021) synthesised several characteristics of engagement in their review of engagement in language learning. The first is the notion of action as the main feature across definitions and conceptualisations of engagement. Second, engagement is not only context-bound, but it was also tied to a specific topic, situation, or activity. And finally, engagement is dynamic and prone to change; that is, it could be influenced or predicted as a result of a certain interventions.

As noted, because task design is one of the key factors to stimulate engagement, more recent studies have focussed on this aspect. Lambert et al.’s (2017) study of task engagement, for example, investigated which task designs positively impact on learner engagement. The findings suggested that learner-generated content had a significant effect compared to teacher-generated content for both high and low proficiency level learners. Using a similar construct of task engagement, studies by Qiu and Lo (2017), Phung (2017), and Aubrey (2017) have explored the crucial contribution of task design to engagement and provide empirical evidence for the impact of the task. For example, Qiu and Lo (2017) investigated the impact of content familiarity and task repetition on engagement. They analysed the oral production of 60 EFL learners using four narrative tasks with two familiar and two unfamiliar topics and found that content familiarity influenced task engagement positively in terms of behaviour and cognitive dimension, while task repetition led to negative behavioural and cognitive engagement. Phung’s (2017) study also compared two types of task design; learner preferred and non-preferred communicative tasks and their effect on learner engagement. He found that higher levels of cognitive engagement were achieved when learner preferred tasks were used.

Other studies focused on task familiarity similarly found that familiarity with the content is an important factor in task design. Incorporating learner-generated content, content familiarity, topical preference and cultural awareness are key findings. Aubrey's (2017) study in particular examined the connection between learner interaction and engagement. The aim was to determine whether or not there is a relationship between flow and engagement in task-based interaction. 36 Japanese EFL learners were grouped into intra-culture and inter-culture group. Inter-culture contact between Japanese and international interlocutors was found to have a positive effect on this aspect of engagement, mainly because of turn-taking.

2.3.4 Indicators of task engagement

The work of Philp and Duchesne (2016) has paved the way for multidimensional engagement concepts to be applied in SLA studies. To be specific, their study had demonstrated that the dimensions of cognitive, behavioural, emotional, and social engagement can be identified in the transcripts of learners' interaction in a task-based language teaching activity in a language classroom. Philp and Duchesne (2006) also recommend an open definition of engagement which should be based on theoretical frameworks of L2 acquisition.

In the following sections, the construct of each dimension, that is, cognitive, behavioural, emotional, and social, is elaborated. This is to illustrate how indicators of engagement could be operationalised, and how they informed the coding schemes used in the present study (e.g., also see Chapter Four, Section 4.5).

Cognitive engagement

The construct of cognitive engagement proposed by Fredricks et al. (2004) is defined as an investment in learning or "thoughtfulness and willingness to exert the effort necessary to comprehend complex ideas and master difficult skill" (p. 60). This type of engagement could be operationalised by observing learners attempt to reach understanding (Fredricks et al., 2004). Citing the works of Lee and colleagues (Lee & Anderson, 1993; and Lee & Brophy 1996), Fredricks et al. describe the measures of mental

effort invested in a specific task as the learner making connections between the task and their prior knowledge, by doing such things as requesting clarification and using analogies.

As described in the next chapter (see Chapter Three, Section 3.2), the communication moves along when a learner initiates clarification or confirms what they have heard in an attempt to reach mutual understanding – and these are defined as negotiation of meaning strategies (Long, 1983; 1986). These moves are used within a task interaction for the purpose of bridging communication breakdowns. However, negotiation moves serve another purpose, too, as they also provide opportunity for learners to focus on linguistic form in natural interaction settings (Azkarai & Oliver, 2019; Long, 1983, 1996; Oliver, 1995, 1998). In this way they demonstrate cognitive engagement, as evidenced by the responsiveness and attentive listening of participants (Philp & Duchesne, 2016) and through their sustained attention and mental effort (Lambert, et al., 2017).

In interaction analysis, negotiation moves have been classified generally as involving four moves, namely, 1) clarification requests, 2) confirmation checks, and 3) comprehension checks, and, more recently, have involved 4) recasts which can alone serve to focus on (incorrect) form or have the dual function of also being confirmation checks (Azkarai & Oliver, 2019; Long, 1983, 1996; Oliver, 1995, 1998). In the present study negotiation moves are used as indicators of cognitive engagement (see Chapter Four, Sub-section 4.4.2 Data analysis). Recasts, however, were coded separately, since aside of measuring cognitive engagement, they can also be used to measure social engagement (see section on social engagement, and Chapter Four, Sub-section 4.4.2 Data analysis).

Helme and Clarke (2001) defined cognitive engagement in a task-based activity as the “the deliberate task-specific thinking that a student undertakes while participating in a classroom activity” (p.136). They operationalised cognitive engagement as verbalisation of thinking and pointed out several collaborative small group activities which could measure cognitive engagement, such as “questioning, completing peer utterances, exchanging ideas, making evaluative comments, giving directions, explanation, and justifying an argument” (Helme & Clarke, 2001, p. 141).

In task interaction analysis, activities such as questions, ideas, comments, direction, explanation or argument, are seen as part of elaboration of content (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). Elaborative clauses have been used in Lambert et al.'s (2017) study as an indicator of cognitive engagement, specifically in

terms of the mental effort required to expand semantic content of the task, e.g., by providing suggestion, proposition, elaboration, reason and opinion. Therefore, elaboration has been selected as one of the indicators of cognitive engagement in this study (see Chapter Four, Sub-section 4.4.2 Data analysis).

Aside from elaboration, Helme and Clarke's (2001) construct also recognises completing peer utterance as an indicator of cognitive engagement. This study, however, proposes to use completing peer utterance as one of the coding schemes for both cognitive and social engagement because of its indication of social interaction among peers (see section on social engagement and also see Chapter Four, Sub-section 4.4.2 Data analysis).

Philp and Duchesne (2016) defined cognitive engagement as "sustained attention and mental efforts often including self-regulation strategies" (p. 53). While citing Helme and Clarke's (2001) operationalisation of verbalisation of thinking, Philp and Duchesne (2016) also included private speech and exploratory talk in collaborative work. For example, in their study, engagement was demonstrated in phrases like "I think", and by connectives such as "because" and by questions which may indicate reasoning and exemplification in an argument or disagreement. In the current study, disagreement is usually indicated by negative response followed by justification (see Chapter Four, Sub-section 4.4.2 Data analysis). Thus it is proposed to also use disagreement as a coding scheme for cognitive engagement.

It has been proposed that cognitive engagement could also be measured in other ways, for example, such as through the use of a survey instrument (Philp & Duchesne, 2016). An example of this could be questionnaire using Likert Scale for questions such as "I pay attention in class", "I find it easy to concentrate on what I am doing in class" and "I take notice of the comments my teacher makes about my work" (Darr, 2012, p. 713). A questionnaire was also used in the current study to determine aspects of cognitive engagement.

Behavioural engagement

According to Fredricks et al. (2004) the concept of behavioural engagement involves three aspects: the first being positive conduct (such as abiding by rules and classroom norms); the second being involvement and persistence in learning tasks; and the third participation in extra-curricular activities. While the context of the third may not be applicable in this study, participation has been commonly associated with behavioural engagement (Fredricks & McColskey, 2012; Philp & Duchesne, 2016) and this is acknowledged.

According to Philp and Duchesne (2016), behavioural engagement was often referred to as *time on task*, or academic engaged time (Gettinger & Walter, 2012), that is, the amount of time students are actively involved in an academic task. In a task-based setting, the indicator of time could be limited to participation in a task (Bygate & Samuda, 2009; Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000; Lambert, et. al., 2017; Philp & Duchesne, 2016).

Aside of time on task, word count and turn count are also commonly used as indicators of behavioural engagement. The use of *word count* as a coding scheme for behavioural engagement has been implemented in several studies (e.g., Bygate & Samuda, 2007; Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000). It was found, for example, that the number of words could indicate the amount of effort, persistence, and active involvement of the participants (Philp & Duchesne, 2016). Similarly, turn count can also reflect the degree of participation in an interaction (Pridham, 2001; Wong & Waring, 2010), that is, a behaviour dimension of engagement.

In this study, *time on task*, *word count* and *turn count* all have been used as part of the coding scheme for behavioural engagement. It was determined that the combined use of these indicators is required because of the low fluency of the NNSs who were involved in this study (see Chapter Four, Sub-section 4.4.2 Data analysis). These learners may exhibit unpredictable behaviour due to limited understanding of the content or due to cultural differences. In addition, in this study turn-taking is used as coding scheme in both the behaviour and social dimension, since turn taking also indicates joint interaction which is part of social support (see section on *social engagement*).

Emotional engagement

Generally, emotional engagement refers to affective reaction in the classroom, as indicated by interest, boredom, happiness, sadness and anxiety (Connell & Wellborn, 1991; Fredricks et al., 2004; Skinner & Belmont, 1993), while Finn's (1989) definition involves identification with the school in terms of belonging and value.

In the context of academic tasks, emotional engagement has been defined as motivated involvement during learning activities (Skinner et al., 2009), with enthusiasm, interest and enjoyment being measures of emotional engagement. Baralt et al. (2016) added the concept of purposefulness and autonomy to the construct of emotional engagement. Philp and Duchesne (2016), in turn, define it as a feeling of connection or attachment with a peer in a pair-work task-based context and relate it to motivation and the affective nature of involvement.

Measuring emotional engagement in a task-based interaction is a challenge in practice. Aside from surveys or reports, very few recent studies have incorporated observation of emotional engagement in pair work. Greer (2020) is an exception and proposes the use of a conversation analytic exemplar-based rubric to rate engagement through the use of video to capture enthusiasm, embodiment, authenticity in learners verbal and non-verbal pair-work interaction. Although in Greer's (2020) study of engagement is seen as a one-dimensional construct which includes sequence expansion (elaboration, intervention, and turn taking), enthusiasm (interest in the talk), parallelism (topic coherence), embodiment (gesture, gaze, and body language), timing (distraction for timer), and authenticity, this study concluded that engagement could be measured as an element of interactional competence.

Other studies attempted to measure emotional engagement by observing the affective use of language especially in terms of emotional tone, expletives, and responsiveness to pair talk in spoken transcripts. In Lambert et al.'s observations (Lambert et al., 2017; Lambert & Zhang, 2019) emotional engagement was operationalised as back-channelling through which learners respond to their peer. Similarly, the current study also proposes the use of *back-channelling* as part of the coding scheme, however, it is seen to be more appropriately labelled as a socio-emotional dimension of engagement since it also indicates social responsiveness and support (see section on *social engagement*, also see Chapter Four, Sub-section 4.4.2 Data analysis).

Social engagement

Proposed by Philp and Duchesne (2016) specifically for the context of task-based studies, social engagement is crucial in the context of instructed learning. In the context of interaction, social engagement refers to collaboration between peers working on task together (Philp & Duchesne, 2016). Citing the work of Storch (2002), Philp and Duchesne (2016) promote interaction between peers, suggesting that language learning would be more effective when the peers “listen to one another, draw from one another’s expertise and ideas, and provide feedback to one another” (p. 57).

While the concept of social engagement is relatively new, Pekrun and Linnenbrink-Garcia (2012) suggested that engagement is complex and multidimensional, with the various dimensions being interdependent. They argued that combinations of cognitive-social, behavioural-social or emotional-social dimension of engagement could be possible in reality, and consequently, provide better measurements of engagement (see also Philp & Duchesne, 2016).

In this study, *completing peer utterances* and *recasts* are also measures of cognitive-social engagement (see Chapter Four, Sub-section 4.4.2 Data analysis). The social dimension of these two constructs is seen as providing social support to peers. Specifically, the former is seen to provide social support for a partner’s production, and the latter, as support and scaffolding for a partner’s reception (Philp & Duchesne, 2016; Lambert, et al., 2017).

This study also makes use the coding of *back-channelling* as an indicator of the emotional-social dimension of engagement (see Chapter Four, Sub-section 4.4.2 Data analysis). Back-channelling has been used for measuring responsiveness, including the use of acknowledgment of comprehension and also the provision of support and emotional expression (Lambert et al., 2017; Lambert & Zhang, 2019).

And finally, *turn count* is used in this study to measure task engagement in term of socio-behavioral dimension (see Chapter Four, Sub-section 4.4.2 Data analysis). It has been proposed that *turn count* indicates social support (Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000) because it reflects the learner’s joint interaction. It also indicates behavioural engagement since it provides insight into how much participation there is in a conversation (Pridham, 2001; Wong & Waring, 2010). Based on the literature reviewed, the proposed coding indicators for this study are summarised in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1*Coding indicators proposed for this study*

Coding	Indicator of
Elaborative clause	Verbalisation of thinking: questioning, exchanging ideas, making evaluative comments, giving directions, explanation, and justifying an argument.
Negotiation moves	Learners' attempt to reach understanding. Responsiveness and attentive listening
Disagreement	Reasoning and exemplification in an argument or disagreement.
Recast	Learners' attempt to reach understanding. Responsiveness and attentive listening. Social support for a partner's reception.
Completing peer utterances	Verbalisation of thinking. Social support for a partner's production.
Word count	The amount of effort, persistence, and active involvement of the participants.
Time on task	The amount of time the students are actively involved in an academic task.
Turn count	Degree of participation in an interaction. Learners' joint interaction. Participation in a conversation.
Back channelling	Affective use of language especially in emotional tone, expletive, and responsiveness to pair talk. Provision of support and emotional expression.

2.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented a review of literature on multidimensional task engagement, specifically with a view to the main constructs that are relevant to the current study, namely, task-based language teaching (TBLT) (Section 2.2), and task engagement (Section 2.3). The first section on task-based approach (Section 2.2) focused on the emergence and rationales for the use of a task-based approach, as well as the theoretical considerations in applying this method. It also reviewed the research trend associated with this approach, particularly with a view to the role of learners in the task design. The section on task engagement (Section 2.3) discussed the emergence of a multidimensional construct of cognitive, behavioural, emotional and social engagement and how it compares to the traditional single construct. This section also reviewed the context of multidimensional engagement in the field of SLA, particularly in task-based approach.

The next chapter (Chapter Three) will present a review of literature on lexical learning. It will also provide a review of studies in the area of engagement in TBLT to identify the research gap in relation to lexical learning.

Chapter Three

REVIEW OF LITERATURE: LEXICAL LEARNING

3.1 Overview

The previous chapter (Chapter Two) reviewed literature on multidimensional task engagement. This chapter presents a review of literature on lexical learning. It also describes the conceptual frameworks underlying this study, particularly those concerning lexical learning. This chapter is arranged as follows: The first section discusses literature on lexical learning (Section 3.2), specifically with a view to lexical intake (Sub-section 3.2.1), lexical retention (Sub-section 3.2.2) and automatised and retrieval (Sub-section 3.2.3). Following this, research in this area, as well as in task engagement (see Chapter Two) is then discussed to identify the research gap in relation to the current study (Section 3.3). The chapter concludes with a presentation of the hypothesis for this study (Section 3.4), and a chapter summary (Section 3.5).

3.2 Lexical Learning

It has been claimed that lexical learning is one of the most crucial features in learning a new language (L2), for without proper lexis, learners cannot understand and communicate in L2 (Schmitt, 2008; Touti & Maleki, 2016). Without knowing the meaning of a word, there is no comprehension (Hulstijn et al., 2005), lexical development (i.e., increasing vocabulary breadth) nor word generation (i.e., the use of word in new context) (Hunt & Beglar, 2005).

Evidence of learning occurs when there is an observable change in existing knowledge or skill (R. Ellis, 2015). In terms of lexical learning, such evidence would be changes in the speaker's lexis, with previously unknown words not only being used in communication, but also being produced as different variations of the same base lexis (i.e., changes in tenses, plural form, part of speech). In the present study, evidence of this can be found in the use of plural forms for words such as *pillows*, *dishes* and *towels* after learning to use the singular forms *pillow*, *dish* and *towel*. Another example would be the

phrase *to be employed* after learning the word *employ* (see transcript included in Section 5.2.5 of Chapter Five-Findings: Task Engagement; see also Appendix *: Transcript 36-2 Task #11 Opinion task).

It has been proposed that lexical acquisition contains three sequential processes: *intake*, *retention* and *automatisation*. The first process is vocabulary intake. It begins with multiple exposures to new words or to formulaic sentences that contain such input (R. Ellis, 2015). Next is the process of retention, by which these new words start to segment into formulaic sequences or chunks, and finally, through the process of automatisation, they are acquired (i.e., exist in the learner's memory). This process of automatisation (or lexicalisation by R. Ellis, 2015) can be demonstrated by learners' fluent use of these words within meaningful communication (N. Ellis, 1997; Singleton, 1999). In the following, the notions of intake, retention and automatisation are discussed in greater detail.

3.2.1 Lexical intake

A number of researchers in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) have concluded that, firstly, language intake is recognised as an incidental process which is based on learners' exposure to input (N. Ellis, 1994; Krashen, 1985; Skehan, 1998); and secondly, it cannot be separated from the underlying theories of SLA (R. Ellis, 2015). In turn, these arguments were informed by influential hypotheses, specifically the 'Input Hypothesis' (Krashen, 1985), the 'Noticing Hypothesis' (Schmidt, 1994), the 'Comprehensible Output Hypothesis' (Swain, 1985), the involvement load hypothesis (Hulstijn, 2001), and the 'Interaction Hypothesis' (Long, 1980). The influence of these different hypotheses is elaborated upon in the following sections with a view to describe (1) lexical intake, incidental learning and implicit knowledge, (2) lexical intake and the role of input, and (3) lexical learning and the role of input and output.

Lexical intake, incidental teaching and implicit knowledge

One of the major concerns in relation to research about lexical learning is how vocabulary is introduced through incidental absorption, rather than intentional teaching (Hulstijn, 2001; Nation, 2001; N. Ellis, 1994; Touti & Maleki, 2016). According to N. Ellis, incidental implicit language learning is purported to be the acquisition of complex linguistic knowledge through natural means, that is, unconscious and incidental learning. In contrast, explicit learning requires conscious and deliberate actions to learn particular L2 features (N. Ellis, 1994). Implicit instruction evolves from meaning-centred procedures that focus on learners' comprehension and production of the L2 within meaningful communication (R. Ellis, 2015). The role of instruction should not tamper with language itself, but instead provide learners with access to samples of the target language and opportunity for communication (Krashen & Scarcella 1978).

SLA researchers introduced the concept of incidental lexical learning to explain the distinction between how implicit and explicit knowledge are acquired (N. Ellis, 1994; R. Ellis, 2009). This dichotomy was informed by developments in the field of cognitive psychology. The distinction suggests that when learning a new language, lexis is acquired unconsciously without either intentionality or awareness (Ellis, 2015). Lexis is then stored in a part of brain where it is "linked to the cortical processors through which it was acquired" (Paradis, 1994, p. 397). Incidental learning imitates the process of how learners acquire their first language. It was argued that this process will result in an automatic recall of new lexical item use in meaningful and fluent communication (N. Ellis, 1994; R. Ellis, 2015).

In this way implicit knowledge in a L2 is the tacit, comprehensive and well-organised knowledge possessed by native and proficient speakers that helps them use the language fluently (R. Ellis, 2009). This knowledge enables speakers to intuitively sense what sounds right or wrong in a language and to provide a largely automated basis for action. Experts argued that this knowledge develops through exposure to meaningful language use and through the progressive mapping of language forms to the communicative functions involved (Krashen, 1985; N. Ellis, 1994; R. Ellis, 2009 & 2015).

Explicit knowledge, in contrast, is the conscious and rule-based knowledge that is typical of L2 learners who have studied language in classrooms. It constitutes a loosely organised system, which provides the learners with a conscious insight into isolated aspects of language. Therefore, fluency is difficult to achieve since speakers tend to require considerable effort and conscious decision-making in

using the language (N. Ellis, 1994; R. Ellis, 2009 & 2015). The distinction was aptly expressed by N. Ellis:

Some things we just come to be able to do, like walking, recognizing happiness in others, knowing that *th* is more common than *tg* in written English, or making simple utterances in our native language. We have little insight into the nature of the processing involved – we learn to do them implicitly like swallows learn to fly. Other of our abilities depend on knowing how to do them, like multiplication, playing chess, speaking pig Latin, or using a computer programming language. We learn these abilities explicitly like aircraft designers learn aerodynamics. (N. Ellis, 1994 p. 1)

While this implicit and explicit knowledge dichotomy is generally well accepted by SLA researchers, there has been ongoing argument about whether explicit teaching can support the development of implicit knowledge. Proponents of the non-interface position suggest that explicit and implicit knowledge are non-transferable because they are processed by a different system using different mechanisms and then stored in different areas of the brain (Krashen, 1985; Krashen & Scarcella, 1978; Krashen & Terrel, 1983; Schwartz, 1993). This non-interface position has become known as non-interventionist.

In contrast to this position, interventionists support a strong-interface position, specifically that explicit knowledge can be transferred directly into implicit knowledge (Long, 2015). For example, Long (2015) argues that adult learners lose their ability for absorbing new lexis and collocation as they get older. That is, this ability declines along with age. A combination of implicit and explicit learning is proposed to be a way to overcome such loss (Long, 1996, 2015). Another position that could be classified as strong-interface was held by DeKeyser (2007) who suggested that after engaging in a great deal of language exercises, explicit knowledge could be automatized into procedural knowledge which may emulate implicit knowledge (DeKeyser, 2007).

Other researchers fall between this dichotomy and assume a weak-interface position, suggesting that the connection between explicit and implicit knowledge does not occur directly. They suggest that explicit knowledge may gradually facilitate the development of implicit knowledge after sufficient exposure to L2 input and ample opportunities for production (N. Ellis, 2005; R. Ellis, 1994; Schmidt, 1993; Shintani, 2012; Skehan, 2012). It is proposed that the development of implicit knowledge could

be attributed indirectly to explicit input after the learner was involved in “noticing” and “noticing-the-gap” between native input and learner output (Shintani, 2012).

Lexical intake and the role of input

The role of input is crucial in SLA, as it is generally accepted as the first step toward L2 development. Several hypotheses on language acquisition depended solely on input and its enhancement. Specifically, these include: the 'Input Hypothesis' (Krashen, 1985, 1989, 1998), the 'Noticing Hypothesis' (Schmidt, 1990, 1993, 1994, 2001), and the 'Involvement Load Hypothesis' (Hulstijn and Laufer, 2001a). These three hypotheses are based upon the level of awareness to input, that is, the first requires no awareness (subconsciously), the second compels little awareness (casual), and the third demands full awareness (high attention).

A well-known non-interface theory, known as the 'Input Hypothesis', was first introduced by Krashen (1985). Krashen claimed that language is subconsciously acquired from the comprehensible input provided to learners (Krashen, 1985). Drawing lessons from the way children learn a language, Krashen argued that SLA is entirely input driven and that output plays no role. In fact, Krashen (1989) insisted that “the only way of simulating the operation of the language acquisition device is comprehensible input” (p. 448) and stated other attempts might result in a language-like behaviour, but not a real language. Later Krashen (1989, 1998) justified his position using reading research which found that children and college students who read more often and who listened to stories performed better in vocabulary tests (Anderson et al., 1988; Greaney, 1980; Greaney & Hegarty, 1987; Rice, 1987; Wells, 1986).

While 'Input Hypothesis' is based on the notion that acquisition is subconscious, Schmidt (1993, 1994) argued that acquisition only takes place when attention is given on part of the learners. As such Schmidt (1990) proposed the 'Noticing Hypothesis', a theory of SLA which suggests that when learners actively notice the gap between their non-target form and the target form, acquisition occurs. While some learning might be possible without conscious attention (noticing), it was suggested that the more learners noticed, the more they learned. However, Schmidt also cautioned that noticing does not imply intentionality on part of learners, i.e., the conscious awareness of what was present in the input was casual; it could be incidental if they were primarily concerned with comprehending input

(Schmidt, 2001). Even so, noticing requires a level of engagement by the learner with the lexical item (Schmitt, 2008). Engagement in this sense reflects increased attention to target words, and increased time spent on the target items. For example, patterns of noticing have been observed in reading research with learners using eye-tracking as they attend to lexical features (Mohamed, 2015).

Another hypothesis on lexical intake and the role of input is Hulstijn and Laufer's (2001a) 'Involvement Load Hypothesis' which focuses on the deep processing and elaboration associated with vocabulary. Hulstijn and Laufer claimed that the deeper the processing level of 'new words', the more likely they are retained into memory. They also claimed that "Processing can be more or less elaborate, irrespective of whether vocabulary is learnt incidentally or intentionally" (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001a, p. 542). For example, it could be as simple as glossing a new word in the text margin, or looking it up in the dictionary, or negotiating it in conversation, or practicing it in follow-up vocabulary-focused exercises. The 'Involvement Load Hypothesis' suggests that the notion of in depth processing and elaboration can be operationalised as the level of involvement in a new word, which could be assessed in three ways: 1) *need* (i.e., the motivation to use the new word), 2) *search* (i.e., the process of searching for the meaning of the new word), and 3) *evaluation* (i.e., the process of evaluating the use of the new word). However, a task may not require these three processes (need, search and evaluation) to be present simultaneously (Hill & Laufer, 2003; Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001a; Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001b).

Hulstijn & Laufer (2001a) established a method for measuring the level of involvement with a new word for each task. The unit of measurement is known as the involvement index, which is equal to the sum of the scores of need, search and evaluation. Measuring need is simple, i.e., a task can be awarded need load points when it motivates the learner to use a word; +1 point (moderate) is added when learners are motivated by external stimuli, and +2 points (strong) are added when it is self-imposed. Search can be awarded +1 point (moderate only) if the learner consults a dictionary or a person with authority to find the word meaning. Measuring evaluation is similar, that is, +1 point (moderate) is added for comparing the meaning of a given word with other words, while +2 points (strong) are added for incorporating a new word in an original sentence. This method has been used in several studies to measure vocabulary learning (e.g., Folse, 2006; Hill & Laufer, 2003; Khonamri, & Hamzenia, 2013; Jing & Jianbin, 2009; Keating, 2008; Kim, 2008; Li, 2014; Nassaji & Hu, 2012; Qin & Teng, 2017; Sarbazi, 2014; Shufen, Zohreh & Victor, 2012; Silva & Olwinowska, 2018; Snoder, 2017; Soleimani & Rahmanian, 2015b; Wang, 2015; Xu, 2009).

Although the 'Involvement Load Hypothesis' relies on external triggers, it is argued that the most important aspect of vocabulary intake is learner involvement itself. Learners display various responses toward the types of task (e.g., some learners may respond actively to a less cognitively demanding spot the difference task, and passively to a more cognitively demanding opinion task), and their level of involvement facilitates the level of effectiveness of vocabulary retention (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001b).

While early research in 'Involvement Load Hypothesis' was focused only on the acquisition of words in the input task (i.e., reading), later studies (e.g. Hill & Laufer, 2003; Laufer, 2004) placed greater emphasis on 'production knowledge' tasks "used in speaking and writing, and (which) involves going from the meaning to the word form" (Nation, 2001, p. 359). These involve vocabulary tasks which focus on word form such as recalled tasks or word recognition tasks (Hill & Laufer, 2003; Nation, 2001). Since then, research grounded in task involvement load has started to expand to also include output tasks (particularly speaking and writing tasks), and found that these output tasks can facilitate lexical learning to a certain degree (Folse, 2006; Hill & Laufer, 2003; Khonamri & Hamzenia, 2013; Jing & Jianbin, 2009; Keating, 2008; Kim, 2008; Li, 2014; Qin & Teng, 2017; Sarbazi, 2014; Huang et al., 2012; Silva & Otwinowska, 2018; Snoder, 2017; Soleimani & Rahmanian, 2015b; Xu, 2009).

Lexical intake and the role of input and output

Despite there being resistance toward output tasks initially in SLA (e.g., Krashen, 1998), it is now generally acknowledged that both comprehensible input and output are needed if a learner is to achieve a high level of linguistic accuracy (R. Ellis, 2005). Generally, theories of SLA have accepted that the role of meaningful input and noticing facilitates acquisition through output and interaction, as exemplified in Swain's 'Comprehensible Output Hypothesis' and Long's 'Interaction Hypothesis', as discussed below.

The need for output was first observed by Swain (1985) in her study of Canadian French immersion programs, which concluded that learners were still unable to generate sufficient grammatical accuracy in their production skills even after eight years of exposure to comprehensible input (Swain, 1985). Swain claimed that depending solely on input is far from sufficient in fostering communicative competence, and that output plays a crucial part in language acquisition. In order to acquire new words,

learners need opportunities to produce ‘pushed-output’—output where the learners struggle to make themselves comprehensible. Swain (1995) argued that it is possible for learners to comprehend a piece of vocabulary chunk without having to process it linguistically (context to guess meaning), but in order to produce concise and comprehensible output, they had to engage in syntactical processing. This theory became known as the ‘Comprehensible Output Hypothesis’.

In her more recent work, Swain (1995, 1998, 2000) suggested the main function of output is to enhance fluency, and more importantly, to promote noticing, especially in situations where learners receive feedback to help them identify their gap in interlanguage knowledge which pushes them to modify their input. It is further argued that output functions to test a learner’s hypothesis about the target language to see whether they were able to produce comprehensible and grammatically correct output, and lastly, that output fulfills a metalinguistic function for learners to reflect upon their target language use.

Another hypothesis that acknowledged the role of meaningful input and output is Long’s (1983) ‘Interaction Hypothesis’. It is grounded in the earlier work of Hatch (1978) which claimed that human beings were born with an innate desire to communicate with each other. Hatch argued that we learn to interact, but also learn by interacting. She suggested that learners did not learn syntactical features of the language, but rather used them in interaction, and that the syntax emerges as a result of this (Hatch, 1978).

Focusing on communication, Long (1983) observed how people interact with each other and found that when a problem occurred in communication, speakers usually resolved these problems through negotiation of meaning as a way to help understand and direct attention to linguistic features. According to Gass et al. (1998), Long’s foremost contribution was to distinguish interactions between native speakers (NS) and non-native speakers (NNS), particularly the talk directed toward L2 Learners by NS. Long observed, for example, that when addressing L2 learners, NSs tend to use clarification requests, confirmation checks, and comprehension checks more generously compared to when they converse with other NSs. He proposed that these conversational modifications (which were later referred to as negotiation of meaning) serve the role of providing comprehensive input (Long, 1980).

Long’s (1983) proposal, which later became known as ‘Interaction Hypothesis’, suggested that the interactional modifications that occurred in the negotiation of meaning assisted comprehension and

helped learners to progress. The initial formulation of this hypothesis, however, was limited to the negotiation of meaning as the source of comprehensible input, without considering the role of learner output. More than a decade later, Long (1996) revisited his 'Interaction Hypothesis' and incorporated the principles of noticing and also the output hypothesis, explaining that negotiation of meaning facilitates acquisition in three ways: 1) by providing comprehensible input, 2) through feedback that indicated to a learner that an error had been made, and 3) by promoting monitoring to encourage the learner to make changes to the utterance that had triggered negotiation.

Other key pieces of research at that time built on Long's work, such as the research by Polio and Gass (1998) on comprehension, Swain and Lapkin (1998) on conversation within a socio-cultural framework, Mackey and Philp (1998), Long et al. (1998) and Oliver (1998) on recasts, and finally, Gass, et al., (1998) who found that interaction itself only served as a facilitative factor to language acquisition, rather than the cause itself. They came to the conclusion that the relationship between input, interaction and acquisition is inherently complex and that there are many factors that could be involved in the process of L2 learning.

Long's work on 'Interaction Hypothesis' has been widely accepted by experts in SLA and has inspired many empirical and longitudinal studies in the area of lexical learning (R. Ellis, 1999, Gass et al., 1998; Gass & Mackey, 2006; Mackey, 2007). R. Ellis (1999), for example, tested claims of the interactional hypothesis using three studies and found that interactionally modified input leads to the acquisition of more word order meaning. Mackey (2007), in turn, asserted that there were at least forty published empirical studies which endorse the benefits of interaction toward learning, with some specifically focused on lexical learning. Gass and Mackey (2006) even argued that 'Interaction Hypothesis' had made the leap to become a fully-fledged theory.

In light of interaction hypotheses, Long (1980, 1983, 1996) recommended the use of task-based language teaching (TBLT) to facilitate interaction between pairs. A body of further research builds upon this premise. As indicated in Chapter One, in the section on Theoretical Background (Section 1.3), the ways of how lexical acquisition might be enhanced, particularly through the use of a task-based approach, is a focus of the current research.

3.2.2 Lexical retention

The process of lexical acquisition, comprising intake, retention, and automatization, is not simple. Once the process of intake has taken place, the new words still need to make their way into learners' schemata in order for them to be stored in memory (retention). In addition, lexis constantly develops as new form-meaning relationships are made, thereby adding depth to a learner's vocabulary (Schmitt, 2000; Skehan, 1998; Tseng & Schmitt, 2008). Furthermore, this process is closely connected with the development of grammar rules, which help learners revise ungrammatical chunks (R. Ellis, 2015; Skehan, 1998).

There are two theories which describe the way lexis can be stored in the lexicon: One is the schema theory (R. Ellis, 2015; Skehan, 1998), and the other is the processability theory (Pienemann and Keßler, 2012), as discussed below.

Lexical retention and schema theory

Schema theory can be traced back to Piaget, who defined a schema as a mental representation of basic building blocks which are organised into systems of thoughts. When we learn new information, the building blocks increase in number and the schema will grow to be more complex. This categorical system of knowledge helps learners to comprehend and interpret everything that is acquired through perception (Giridharan, 2010). When learners explore the environment to construct knowledge, the new information they take in make them expand, modify or alter their current schema. This process has been defined as assimilation and accommodation: Assimilation occurs when the new information can fit directly into the current schema. Accommodation, in contrast, occurs when the new information did not fit the current schemata and modification or reconstruction of the schema is required (Bettencourt, 1989).

In cognitive linguistics, schema theory is very important since it relates to the ways information is stored. For example, the theory claims that learners possess different conceptual frameworks, called schemata, which are activated when learners face a certain topic or themes. When learners encounter a new piece of information (i.e., reading text), they activate certain schemata to be able to interpret the text based on contextual clues. The utilised schemata then help readers by providing a framework to

validate knowledge of the text, fill in information gaps within the text, clarify ambiguities, and make meaning out of the text (Goodman, 1984; Rumelhart, 1977).

Schema theory suggests that lexical knowledge consists of a network of ideas bonded by semantic connection. There is a network of lexis that exists in each schemata, and the systematic categorisation which exists is arranged in topics or themes (Rumelhart, 1977). For example, the first time a child sees a pony, it may be classified under the schema for dog alongside with Poodle and German Shepherd due to their similarities in physical appearance. However, after the child has encountered more animals, they will have learned that pony should be classified under the schema for horse. Vocabulary is categorised as concepts that differ from one schemata to another. When the learner deposits a new word into his or her existing schemata, networks are activated to add the depth of the word, whether by form, collocations, grammatical patterns, denotive and connotative meaning, or association (R. Ellis, 1999 & 2015).

While schema theory explains the way information is commonly acquired, the application of this theory is mostly related to general cognitive education. Another view on lexical retention is presented by the processability theory, which is specifically concerned with cognitive linguistics.

Lexical retention and processability theory

The process of retention in connection with the development of grammar rules was explained in the processability theory developed by Pienemann (1998). It is based on the assumption that acquisition is limited to a hierarchy of processability which is similar to all languages. That is, it is assumed that learners can only acquire certain linguistic forms according to their inherent difficulty of processability (Pienemann, 1998; Pienemann, 2011; Pienemann & Ke®ler, 2012). In other words, “the task of acquiring a language includes the acquisition of the procedural skills needed for the processing of the language” (Pienemann, 1998, p. 3). Therefore, acquisition of new lexis is accompanied by grammatical development, since specific language-specific processing resources need to be acquired earlier

Processability theory suggests that, if lexical retention is to take place, acquisition of words in the target language are reliant on the language-specific processing devices, which are “word order rules, syntactic procedures, diacritic features in the lexicon and the lexical category of lemmata” (Pienemann, 2011, p.

33). Features such as tense, number, gender and case need to be associated with the new word. And when the new word is taken out of context without reference to these grammar rules, retention cannot take place (Pienemann, 1998; 2011).

Skehan (1998) referred to the process of lexical retention as syntacticalisation. This process involves depositing a new word into the schemata when it corresponds to the existing lexicon and grammar rules. However, when it does not, the process could involve the reorganisation of lexical schema according to newly acquired grammar rules. After the reorganisation of the schema, the rule-based memory is converted back into ready-made chunks for easier memory retrieval (R. Ellis, 2015; Skehan, 1998).

Once intake has occurred, these newly learned words can be modified cognitively into an efficient procedure which promotes easy storage and retrieval. This process is known as proceduralisation (Gass & Mackey, 2012; 2014). Gass and Mackey (2014) also discussed chunking. This is a process which is usually accompanied by proceduralisation. It involves combining a series of related elements and ‘gluing’ them into a single processing unit based on the strong association between available lexical items (e.g., temporal phrases like ‘in the meantime’, ‘just a minute’, and ‘as soon as possible’). The proceduralisation and chunking processes are closely linked to each other; however, each process occurs in a different part of the brain.

Other theories concerning lexical retention

To describe the process of how vocabulary is retained in the brain, several theories rooted in cognitive psychology have emerged. One of these theories is related to lexical configuration and lexical engagement, while another is related to type of memory and processes of retention.

Leach and Samuel (2007), for example, identified two distinct processes with regard to the retention of lexis: lexical configuration and engagement. Lexical configuration is defined as “the set of factual information that one knows about a word” (p. 307), which is a requirement for the lexical entry into the mental lexicon (i.e., adding a new word to the existing vocabulary knowledge). In initial lexical entry, the new word should be accompanied at least by its input form (i.e., sound and spelling), its meaning,

and its syntactic role(s). Additional factual information about the word could develop over time after its initial entry (Leach & Samuel, 2007).

After passing through the lexical configuration stage during the entry process, the new word would also be screened for semantic association as part of the learner's lexicon during the lexical engagement process. Note, lexical engagement refers to the behaviour of lexical representation in the lexicon, which affects the activation of other lexical entries (Leach & Samuel, 2007). An example of this is when the representation for 'doctor' is activated, it may also anticipate the activation of the representation for 'nurse'. In this way the lexical engagement process is responsible for developing meaning-based lexical structure, which takes more time and training to develop than the configuration process.

Another theory that describes the process of how vocabulary is retained in the brain deals with memory, which is defined as the mental capacity to recover, retrieve, and remember past events, impressions, and facts by encoding, storage of information and retrieval processes (Preston, 2007). Cognitive psychology recognises three types of memory based on the duration of memory storage capacity: sensory memory, short-term memory, and long-term memory (Zhang, 2004). Sensory memory has a lifespan of a few seconds or less, while short-time memory can last up to few minutes. Long-term memory, in contrast, has an unlimited lifespan and storage capacity. Learning, thus, occurs as a result of changes in long-term memory (Ramezanali, 2017; Sweller & Chandler, 1994; Zhang, 2004;).

Despite its relatively short duration and limited capacity, short-term memory is actively engaged as working memory and is readily available during lexical learning. It is also involves actively holding new information (e.g., a newly encountered word) (Amiryousefi & Ketabi, 2001; Baddeley, 2002; Preston, 2007; Ramezanali, 2017). Lexical retention occurs when the information stored in the short-term memory has been transferred into long term memory (N. Ellis, 1997). There are several requirements for this transfer to be accommodated, the first would be sufficient amount of attention, time, and practice (Mayer, 2014). This involves an active engagement and meaningful interaction with the new information (Schmitt, 2000). The next requirement is the availability of a link between the new information and the previously stored information. Establishing the relationship in form and meaning between new words and the pre-existing lexicon is crucial in vocabulary learning (Amiryousefi & Ketabi, 2011, Mayer, 2014).

3.3.3 Automatisation and retrieval

The next process of lexical learning is the process of memory retrieval of the new words and using them appropriately in communication. The process of automatisation and lexical retrieval is closely related to fluency in L2 production since disfluencies can be attributed to delays in recalling a word (Skehan, 2012).

The speed of lexical access is closely related to the effective proceduralisation process in retention (Gass & MacKey, 2012, 2014; MacWhinney, 2012; Paradis, 1994; Pienemann & Keßler, 2012; Skehan, 2012; Ullman, 2004). There are two different explanations of why L2 learners generally cannot match the fluency of a NS: One is known as the 'Critical Age Hypothesis,' and the other as the 'Unified Competition Model'.

According to the proponents of 'Critical Age Hypothesis', the process of proceduralisation remains slow and non-fluent for adult L2 learners because after reaching a certain critical period, learner comprehension cannot be proceduralised (Gass & MacKey, 2012, 2014; MacWhinney, 2012; DeKeyser, 2000; DeKeyser & Larson-Hall, 2005). This process is called proceduralisation deficit hypothesis (PDH).

On the other hand, proponents of the unified competition model suggested that adult L2 learners can still develop proceduralisation. Referring to studies in artificial language systems, they claim that proceduralisation could be supported as long as adult L2 learners were given consistent, simple and reliable rules of the target language (Gass & MacKey, 2012, 2014; MacWhinney, 2012; Robinson et al., 2012). The crucial factor for proceduralisation, according to this theory, is not the age of the learner but rather the shape of the input (MacWhinney, 1997; Tokowicz and MacWhinney, 2005).

3.3 The research Gap in Related Studies

This section discusses research on task engagement (see Chapter Two) and lexical learning (see Section 3.2) of to identify the research gap in relation to the current study. It begins with a discussion of recent studies in task engagement which have been variously adapted and expanded. Although some still follow the former linguistic-based construct of engagement, with a focus on language related episodes (e.g. Garcia-Mayo & Zeitler, 2016), corrective feedback (e.g. Coyle & de Larios, 2020; Koltovskaia, 2020), peer engagement/disengagement influences (e.g. Tanaka, 2017), involvement load (e.g. Rahimpour et al., 2013; Sarbazi, 2014; Silva & Otwinowska, 2018; Soleimani & Rahmanian, 2015a; Soleimani & Rahmanian, 2015b), other studies have begun to focus on engagement in the virtual world, such as online learning management system (e.g. Hossan, 2017) and in 3D game-based platforms (e.g. Chen, 2016, 2020, Chen & Kent, 2020).

Hiver et al. (2021) critiqued several issues surrounding L2 engagement. Firstly, they claimed that the definitions in the majority of studies on L2 engagement research are vague. They found, for example, that less than 35% of studies included a solid operationalisation of the construct of engagement. Secondly, there is an issue with focusing on one or two domains of engagement. Most of the reports focused more on the behavioural dimension of engagement, and some on cognitive engagement, but less on social engagement. Lastly, there is a problem related to the boundary of the construct of engagement, as such reports confuse the line between the construct of motivation and engagement.

The emergence of the construct of multidimensional task engagement in the last decade has resulted in research that has investigated the impact of student engagement in task based language settings. Some studies focus only on a particular aspect of engagement whereas others view learners' engagement as a holistic construct. The examples of these aspects are cognitive and behavioural engagement (Qiu & Lo, 2017), engagement as interactional flow (Aubrey, 2017), and behavioural engagement (Szabo, 2014).

For example, Qiu and Lo's (2017) study was concerned with content familiarity and task repetition and their impact on cognitive and behavioural engagement. Sixty university students with proficiency levels ranging from lower-intermediate to intermediate participated in the study by performing four narrative tasks, two of which were based on familiar contexts and two on unfamiliar contexts. Students' narratives were analysed using several behavioural and cognitive engagement measures. The findings

included that topic familiarity positively influenced behavioural and cognitive engagement, while task repetition had a negative influence, albeit the fact that participants were more motivated in repeating unfamiliar topics. The findings from the qualitative analysis also revealed that topic familiarity attracted more positive affective response.

Aubrey's (2017) study, in turn, examined engagement in terms of flow, focusing on learners' interaction, as well as the cultural demographic of the respondents. The study was based on the flow theory which sees flow as a representation of total involvement or engagement in doing a task. A quasi-experimental design was used with two groups of 18 participants, comprising an inter-cultural group (with international interlocutors) and an intra-cultural group. Both groups completed five oral tasks. The analysis of a questionnaire and transcripts revealed that the inter-cultural group exhibited a better flow and turn-taking (aspect of engagement), which was also significantly correlated. The authors recommended the provision of inter-cultural contact in ESL classes as well as to design more flow-enhancing tasks.

Szabo's (2014) study of task-related perception and task engagement, in contrast, used qualitative analysis to assess behavioural engagement and link it with motivation (or engagement effort). The purpose of her study was to explore student perceptions and opinions about tasks, and what factors could influence their motivation and engagement in task lessons. Seventeen international students in the USA, comprising six nationalities (mostly from East Asia, while the rests were from India and the Middle East) participated in interviews, both individually and in focus groups. The study also included classroom observation of a task-based lesson which relied on field notes and research journal. The findings of the study included an indication that "learners tend to think about learning tasks in terms of distinguishable categories" (Szabo, 2014, p. 2).

Other research about multidimensional engagement sought to examine the differences related to task design and the level of engagement. Phung (2017), for example, compared two types of task design: learner preferred and not-preferred communicative tasks and their effect on learner engagement. Phung's (2017) study was concerned with the manifestation of engagement in learners' use of language in task performance and the place of engagement in task design. It investigated the correlation between learners' expressed preference for two tasks and learners' engagement in L2 use. The participants were 21 ESL learners, who performed two tasks each and participated in an interview. Several engagement

measures were used to compare learners' behavioural, cognitive, and social engagement between a more preferred task and a less preferred task. Results revealed that preferred tasks entailed higher levels of cognitive engagement (as indicated by greater negotiation of meaning and form). Task preferences were found to be based on the opportunity to create ideas and addressing genuine communicate needs.

Lambert et al.'s (2017) study of task engagement compared learner-generated content with teacher generated content task design and found that the former had a better effect on learners' L2 performance compared to the latter. Lambert et al.'s (2017) found that learner-generated content enabled the learners to relate to their personal experience and, therefore, provided extra motivation with language use. The participants were thirty-two Japanese university students in three levels on proficiency (i.e., B2 and C1 level on CEFR for high-level group, B1 for middle, and A2 for low-level group) who completed both learner-generated and-teacher generated content tasks. Information about their behavioural, cognitive and social engagement was obtained using several coding measures of student transcripts. Findings revealed that learners were more engaged in learner-generated tasks as measured by all aspects of engagement. A questionnaire also indicated that learner-generated tasks stimulated emotional engagement more that teacher-generated tasks.

One of the problems in the study of multidimensional task engagement is that insufficient coding schemes are available to elicit the emotional dimension of engagement. Lambert et al.'s (2017) study used coding of back-channelling (see Section 5.2.9 more examples on back-channelling) as a way of assessing the emotional dimension, although it should be noted back-channelling could depict both the social and emotional dimension of engagement. This problem, however, was resolved in Lambert's later study (Lambert & Zhang, 2019) by applying a mixed method design to provide a clearer picture of multidimensional engagement. Lambert and Zhang's (2019) mixed method study triangulated several sources of data to observe learners' engagement in a task. Again, the objective of this study was to compare student engagement in the performance of learner-generated and teacher-generated content tasks. The participants were four advanced learners of Chinese and English, who completed six oral communication tasks (three learner-generated and three teacher-generated content tasks). The result showed that tasks with learner-generated content stimulated a more socially and emotionally oriented engagement, as opposed to teacher-generated tasks. Participants' engagement was also positively correlated to fluency and accuracy of the L2 produced.

Whilst the abovementioned studies on multidimensional task engagement have identified several key factors for successful learner engagement, to date, there is little evidence concerning the relationship between task engagement and language learning, especially in relation to evidence of lexical learning.

In relation to studies of lexical learning, Tseng and Schmitt (2008) claimed more than a decade ago that the field of vocabulary should be listed under unknown territory, since there was no generally accepted theory of vocabulary acquisition, nor was there any theory to explain the complexity of the vocabulary learning process. To close this gap, Tseng and Schmitt (2008) proposed a model of motivated vocabulary learning, incorporating six latent variables: an initial appraisal of vocabulary learning experience, self-regulating capacity of vocabulary learning, strategic vocabulary learning involvement, mastery of vocabulary learning tactics, vocabulary knowledge, and post appraisal of the effectiveness of vocabulary learning tactics.

Associating learner engagement and lexical learning had been the concern of several studies, particularly those which employed involvement load as the main construct of engagement. Silva and Otwinowska's (2016) study, for example, compared several task sequences with different types of involvement tasks. Similarly, Soleimani & Rahmanian (2015a, 2015b) also compared task induced involvement load and found that sentence making tasks yielded better results than blank filling tasks and reading comprehension tasks. The work of Sarbazi (2014) also showed that target word retention was facilitated by learners' involvement. Lastly, Touti and Maleki's (2016) mixed method study attempted to seek both quantitative and qualitative evidence of task-based vocabulary instruction and word retention.

Moving away from involvement load construct, Tanaka's (2017) study attempted to examine the connection between engagement in terms of self-determination theory and vocabulary learning of NNS of English. A regression analysis of questionnaire data revealed that peer influences can be seen as crucial factors for successful vocabulary learning, especially for non-native English speakers in a demotivating learning context.

Relating student engagement in terms of types of input and comprehension as well as vocabulary acquisition was the concern Ellis, Saitama and Tokyo's (1999) study. Again, in this study input-based tasks were used, which were divided into three types of input: the baseline, pre-modified and

interactionally modified input. The latter allows negotiation of meaning to take place, although the interaction was between unequal partner, which is learner and teacher. The result suggested that the pre-modified and interactionally modified input groups outperformed the baseline input group in terms of vocabulary tests. This study supports the argument that negotiated comprehension of the interactionally modified input may facilitate higher vocabulary achievement scores.

Closely related to Ellis et al.'s (1999) study, was that by He and Ellis (1999) which used input and output tasks and compared their results in terms of comprehension and vocabulary acquisition. There were three type of tasks, a pre-modified input task, an interactionally modified input task and a negotiated output tasks. In this study, the modified output group interacted with their peers and informed their assigned partner how to do a task using their own resources to describe or define the target words. The result of this study suggested that the modified output group outperformed both input groups in the vocabulary scores. This result suggested that peer interaction which allowed learners to use and negotiate new vocabulary was more effective than teacher-controlled interaction in fostering lexical learning.

After a careful analysis of these studies, there are several things to note in regard of finding the gap of research in multidimensional engagement in using tasks and L2 lexical learning. First of all, the construct of multidimensional task engagement in SLA research is relatively new - having just come into existence in the last five years. There are only some studies grounded in this area, namely: Philp and Duchesne (2016), Aubrey (2017), Lambert, et al (2017), Phung, (2017); Qiu and Lo, 2017; and more recently Lambert & Zhang, 2019). Each of these studies has its unique focus of engagement, for example the flow in engagement in Aubrey's (2017) study, task repetition in Qiu and Lo's (2017) study, preference of topic in Phung's (2017) study, and teacher and student generated content in Lambert et al (2017) and Lambert and Zhang's (2019) study.

The uniqueness of each study could also be traced in terms of the methodology used. Each one of these studies has its own unique and limitations, for example, although Philp and Duchesne (2016) study has paved the way for the research in this area, it lacked quantitative measures. On the other hand, Lambert et al., (2017) focus only on the quantitative, but not qualitative data. And although all these study used both quantitative and qualitative methods (Aubrey, 2017; Phung, 2017; Qiu and Lo, 2017; Lambert & Zhang, 2019), none of them included discourse analysis or content analysis to explore the constructs in

depth. Next, although these mixed methods studies viewed engagement as multidimensional, not all included all four dimensions of engagement - cognitive, behavioural, emotional, and social in both quantitative and qualitative analysis. Moreover, all of these studies involved only intermediate and advance (not low) level students. Hence, there is a need to demonstrate task engagement study could be used with lower-level students.

Concerning lexical learning, it seems that there is only one mixed method study related engagement to lexical retention (Touti & Maleki, 2016), however, the construct of engagement in the study was limited to involvement load instead of multidimensional engagement. The last two studies were the closest to this present study in terms of investigating the lexical learning in the light of engaging student in pre-modified input and negotiation (Ellis et al, 1999) and pre-modified output and interaction (He and Ellis, 1999). Furthermore, although learner's engagement in a task based situation is investigated, the focus is not on engagement as multidimensional construct.

The current study aims to address these gaps by investigating the relationship between task engagement and lexical language learning. In this research task engagement is examined in four ways, namely: 1) cognitively, that is, in terms of the mental effort invested in clarifying meaning; 2) behaviourally, that is, in terms of the persistence demonstrated in completing the task; 3) socially, that is, in terms of the responsiveness and willingness to be involved with others; and 4) affectively, that is, in terms of the emotional response toward the task. Lexical learning was determined using a comparison of vocabulary test results obtained before and after the task-based instruction (see Chapter Four, Sub-section 4.4.2 Data analysis).

3.4 Hypothesis

Based on the conceptual frameworks and literature on multidimensional task engagement and lexical learning as discussed above and in the previous chapter (Chapter Two), the hypothesis for this study is as follows:

1. There is a significant relationship between learners' task engagement (as measured in various ways) and their lexical learning.
2. There is qualitative evidence that lexical learning occurs when tasks are used.

3.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented a review of literature on lexical learning (Section 3.2). It discussed the theories related to three steps of vocabulary acquisition: intake, retention, and automatization-retrieval. It included a discussion of implicit knowledge and incidental learning, the role of input and input-output in language learning and their relation to vocabulary intake. It also examined the theories explaining retention and the automatization processes.

Following this, studies in the area of engagement in task-based approach were reviewed to identify the research gap in relation to lexical learning (Section 3.3). Lastly, drawing on the conceptual frameworks and literature reviewed in this and previous chapter, the hypotheses for this study were presented (Section 3.4).

Chapter Four

METHODS

4.1 Overview

This chapter describes the methodology employed in the current study and used to answer the research questions. It starts with a description of the research design and the variables in Section 4.2. Next, the description of the sample, the materials and equipment used for the research are explained in Sections 4.3 and 4.4. Following this, the data collection procedures for both the pilot and for the main study are described in Section 4.5. The process of analysis, including the coding and data treatment, is also outlined in this section. The chapter concludes with a summary in Section 4.6.

4.2 The Design of the Research

This study used a mixed method design combining both qualitative and quantitative methods (Creswell, 2012; Fraenkel et al., 2015; Johnson et al., 2007; Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). As Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) indicate, mixed methods involve “studies that are products of pragmatists paradigm and that combine qualitative and quantitative within different phases of the research process” (p. 4).

The choice of mixed-methodology was made because it combines robust quantitative statistics with in-depth qualitative data mining providing the opportunity for triangulation. As a first step, a quantitative and experimental design was used to examine the relationship between task engagement and lexical learning. This was followed by qualitative analysis allowing for in-depth exploration of the participants’ interactions that may help to strengthen the generalisations based on the quantitative data (Creswell, 2012).

A quantitative design was used for the main study, but this was complemented by a qualitative analysis to provide the level of in depth exploration needed to answer the research question. This was done as

there was first a need to show that lexical learning and task engagement exist and are measurable before further analysis could provide an understanding of how the latter could support the former.

4.3 Participants

The participants in this study were 72 Indonesian freshmen who studied English as a foreign language (EFL) and enrolled at a university in North Sulawesi, Indonesia. Participation was voluntary. Interested participants were recruited using posters, fliers, and other written announcements. The participants were given an information sheet about the research and this was also described to them orally before they provided their informed and signed consent. Their language proficiency, gender and age are outlined in Table 4.1.

Both posters and flyers (see Appendix A.7) contained the same information. The difference was only in size, as posters were printed on A3 paper (29.7 x 42 cm), whereas flyers were printed on A5 paper (14.85 x 21 cm). The poster was printed in both English and Indonesian, and stated that participants would be rewarded with a souvenir from Australia (AU\$ 5 in value).

Participants were selected to be of similar language proficiency as determined by the host university placement test scores (Cambridge English placement test), which in all cases had been taken within six months of the study. As with those who participated in the pilot study (a description of which appears in Section 4.5.1), these participants were classified as being proficiency level 1, level 2 and level 3 students (see definition on terms, p. xxiii), which correspond to the A1, A2 and B1 level of English proficiency according to the Common European Framework Reference (CEFR).

Once selected, the participants were paired to form 36 dyads (12 x male only, 12 x female only and 12 x female/male pairs, (see definition of terms p. xxiii for a description of the gender groupings) based on the similarity of their proficiency and vocabulary pre-test score (see Table 4.1). These pairs then worked together on the tasks (see Table 4.4).

Table 4.1*Age, gender, and proficiency levels of main study participants*

Dyad	Proficiency			Dyad gender			Age		
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Male- Male	Male- Female	Female - Female	17-18	19-20	20+
1-4	4			2	2		4		
5-8	4			2	1	1	3	1	
9-12	4				1	3		3	1
13-16		4		3	1		2	1	1
17-20		4		1	3		2	2	
21-24		4				4		3	1
25-28			4	1	2	1	4		
29-32			4	2	1	1	3	1	
33-36			4	1	1	2	4		
Total	12	12	12	24	24	24	22	11	3

In order to satisfy the Curtin University ethical requirements for conducting research involving humans, institutional approvals were secured before the study commenced. In particular, this study addressed the following ethical principles:

- Informed consent: Consent from the university and the students was obtained. The students were advised that participation was on a voluntary basis, and they were free to withdraw at any time without prejudice.
- Confidentiality and privacy: Pseudonyms were used for both the participants and the university in which the research took place. Participants' anonymity has been protected.
- To address risks: The research was not to be intrusive, and participants were not to experience any preferential treatment or disadvantage.
- External institutional approval: The researcher and supervisor assumed responsibility to ensure reliable and valid data collection.

On this basis Curtin University HREC low-risk ethics clearance was granted.

4.4 Instruments

The instruments used for the data collection consisted of a vocabulary test, a questionnaire, interaction tasks, and a focus group interview schedule. Details of these instruments are provided in the following subsections:

Vocabulary tests: These were developed based on the vocabulary section of the Cambridge English Preliminary Test with appropriate revisions that were informed by the pilot study (again see Section 4.5.1). These tests included a pre-test, post-test, and delayed post-test. The target words were selected because of their focus on two themes, namely 1) house and homes, and 2) work and jobs. That is, the test items were limited to specific vocabulary sets. These words and themes were also reflected in the design of the tasks. The vocabulary test consisted of 60 multiple choice items, with three different, but parallel versions for the pre-test, post-test, and delayed post-test.

The topic selection was based on the assumption that the topic of house and home would suit their situation as most of the participants reside in at dorm or in an appointed rental rooms, and therefore it was a context with which the participants would be familiar. The topic of work and job was relevant because, as a university students, they had already start thinking about careers and future jobs. It is also happened to correspond to the first two themes used in the Cambridge English test, where many options for test items were available.

In order to determine the lexical knowledge of the participants, test items for the pre, post and delayed post-test incorporated at least two types of lexical forms:

- the base form of a word, (e.g., curtain, mirror, desk, judge, rent)
- the inflected form of the same word (e.g., politician, furnished, occupation, qualification)

Table 4.2*Vocabulary test*

No	Theme	Task	Target words
1	House and homes	Room inventory	Towel, dustbin, fan, mirror, vase, kettle, pillow
2		Room furniture	Sink, antique, desk, dish, cupboard, handle
3		Floor plans	Lounge, cloakroom, chimney, lavatory, basement
4		The right accommodation	Property, upstairs, lawn, furnished, ceiling, hedge
5		Dorm living	sheet, tap, curtain
6		House bills	Bulb, switch, shower, rent
7	work and jobs	Delivery route	Gallery, city hall, factory
8		In the court room	Clerk, defendant, judge, lawyer, courtroom, guard
9		My dream job	Chef, diver, porter, steward,
10		Jobs and partners	Carpenter, butcher, chemist, greengrocer, profession,
11		Profiles and jobs	Artist, CV, employ, occupation, qualification, diploma, newsagent
12		Career comparison	Candidate, pension, quit, wage

Twelve interaction tasks: These were designed for use and trialled in the pilot study. They involved different procedures (e.g., spot the difference, information gap, following direction, etc.) with different vocabulary that reflected the themes as outlined above. These task were purposely designed for this study to bring about specific types of interactions (Skehan, 2003; see also Long, 2015; R. Ellis, 2003) which are: 1) open interaction task, where there is no single correct solution and learners may arrive at their own solution, 2) and divided two-way information flow where the information is divided between learners, therefore, they need to share in order to learn the complete information, and 3) multiple level

of demand from describe and identify to giving opinion and make decision (see Appendix A for a copy of the tasks).

Short questionnaire: This consisted of nine questions and was given to each of the participants at the end of each session after they had met with the researcher and completed the tasks. It provided an extra measure of the participants' affective engagement with the task and it was also used to explore their vocabulary learning (see Appendix B for a copy of this instrument). The first eight items involved a Likert scale of one to five, translating to strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, and strongly agree. The first six items dealt with the participant's engagement in the tasks, especially related to their preference for the topic, their participation and contribution, and their motivation for completing the tasks. Item eight of the questionnaire also explored the participants' lexical learning and, in particular, whether or not they noticed and/or repeated new words. The final item was an open-ended short-answer question that asked the participants to write down any words they recalled learning during their task interactions (see Appendix B for the questionnaire items).

The focus group interview schedule: This was designed to elicit learners' perceptions about their engagement in the tasks and their experience with using the new words. It consisted of 10 basic questions that were followed, as appropriate, with several further questions. The first six dealt specifically with task engagement and the last four with the lexical knowledge. The engagement questions examined the learners' responses regarding preferred task topics, how their partnership worked, their motivation, how much effort they expended in completing the tasks and how they resolved individual differences. The lexical questions were about the learners' experience with new words, as well as their participation in the tasks.

Other resources: The recordings of the task interactions and the interviews were undertaken in English laboratories so that any outside noise could be reduced. Other equipment used for data collection were eight audio recorders. This allowed simultaneous recording of eight dyads each time.

4.5 The Data Collection Procedure

There were two phases in the data collection: the pilot study, and the main study. The main study was conducted after the results of the pilot study were analysed.

4.5.1 Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted from May to June 2018 at a university in North Sulawesi, Indonesia. The purpose was to test the reliability of the data collection instruments, especially the tasks to be used, but also the methods of analysis. The data collection for the pilot study mirrored that used in the main study. Specifically the instruments used in the pilot test, as with the main study included: vocabulary tests, tasks and the questionnaire, which (as described above) was designed to ascertain the learners' self-assessment of their engagement and lexical learning. This self-assessment used by way of a focus group interview to elicit the data (note: details about these instruments are provided below). By trialing the materials in the pilot study, it was possible to ensure the suitability of tasks: the readability of the instructions, and the practicality of the content (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). Cronbach alpha was used to measure the reliability of the instruments. Piloting the instruments also proved to be a useful way to help refine the procedural conditions and methods of analysis.

Pilot Study Participants: Twelve university students with various English proficiency levels participated in the pilot study. Based on the university placement system of the institution in which they were enrolled, there could be classified as two at A1, four at A2, and six at B1 levels of proficiency (see Appendix D for a description of these levels). Note: These pilot study participants did not participate in the main study. Age, gender and proficiency levels of pilot study participants are outlined in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3*Age, gender and proficiency levels of pilot study participants*

Dyad	Proficiency			Gender		Age		
	A1	A2	B1	Female	Male	17-18	19-20	21-22
1	2				2	1	1	
2		2			2		1	1
3		2		2			1	1
4			2	2		1	1	
5			2	1	1	1	1	
6			2	2		2		
Total	2	4	6	7	5	5	5	2

As a first step, informed consent was collected from all the pilot study participants. They then undertook and completed three vocabulary tests (these are described in the next section). To undertake the tasks the participants were paired to form six dyads with the partners being of a similar proficiency level. Each dyad was assigned four out of twelve possible tasks, with most completing each of the tasks in under 10 minutes. Their interactions were recorded for transcription and coding. Finally, all twelve participants participated in one of the three focus group interviews.

Pilot Study Instruments: As noted above the instruments for the pilot study consisted of the drafted version of the vocabulary test, the questionnaire, the interaction tasks (see Table 4.4) and the focus group interview schedule. These instruments were tested to see if they would provide the necessary data to answer the research questions. Based on an analysis of pilot study results a revision of the tasks was undertaken (also see Table 4.7 later in this section for a description of the tasks and notes about modifications that were deemed necessary).

Table 4.4*Tasks used in the pilot study*

No	Task Type	Task description	Target words
1	Spot the difference	<i>Room inventories:</i> Learners compare room objects at the beginning and the end of the semester to check the inventory list.	Window, blanket, mirror, desk, microwave, fan.
2	Similarities and differences	<i>Floor plans:</i> Learners compare two kinds of floor plans and give their preference.	Living room, basement, bedroom, chimney, corridor, garage
3	Similarities and differences	<i>Court system:</i> Learners compare the role of participants in two court-rooms, the Indonesian and the USA.	Politician, judge, lawyer, staff
4	Information gap	<i>The right accommodation:</i> Learners match several accommodation options with prospective tenants.	Furnished, coal, upstairs, rent, ceiling, hedge
5	Information gap	<i>Dorm rules and problems:</i> Learners design a guide for choosing dorm-based rules.	Electricity, phone, rent, curtain, furniture
6	Information gap	<i>House bills:</i> Learners split the house bills for three house tenants based on the appliance and electronic use.	Phone, gas, fan, rent, property
7	Information gap	<i>Profiles and jobs:</i> Learners match personal profiles and advertised jobs.	CV, career, occupation, colleague, diploma, qualification
8	Information gap	<i>Career comparison:</i> Learners compare career choices in different companies.	Pension, quit, wage, candidate
9	Line drawing	<i>Delivery route:</i> Learners give and receive directions using two incomplete maps.	Cinema, bank, museum, factory
10	Picture matching	<i>Jobs and workplace:</i> Learners match different jobs and workplaces.	Dentist, artist, banker, designer, housewife
11	Picture placement	<i>Furniture and appliances:</i> Learners give and receive advice on how to place the objects in a picture.	Antique, armchair, desk, cupboard, sink, dish, carpet
12	Picture matching	<i>Job and uniform:</i> Learners match job and working related uniform/appearance.	Dancer, labourer, mechanic, postman, nurse

Pilot Study Procedure: The pilot study consisted of five stages, as follows: 1) Pre-test, 2) Task performance, 3) Post-test, 4) Focus group interview, and 5) delayed post-test. This is shown diagrammatically below.

Table 4.5

Pilot study procedure and stages

Stage no	Stages	Activity
Prior	Cambridge English placement test	Participant selection Research information and consent.
1	Pre-test	Vocabulary test 1
2	Task performance (in dyads)	Performance of four language tasks – 2 meetings x 2 tasks. Questionnaire following two meetings.
3	Post-test	Vocabulary test 2
4	Focus group	Focus group interview – 10 initial questions.
5	Delayed post-test	Vocabulary test 3

As with the main study, prior to conducting the pilot study, written materials were developed for the recruitment of potential participants. From the list of volunteers, twelve university students were selected based on their placement in the English program – namely those at level A1, A2 and B1. The twelve participants were assigned an identifying number and then paired with another participant, matching their level of English proficiency. Next, the information about the research was communicated both orally and in writing to the participants before their consent was gained.

In the pre-test, post-test and delayed post-test stages, vocabulary tests #1, #2 and #3 were administered. The test procedures that were used followed common university guidelines, that is, no noise or other interruptions, no communication amongst the participants nor access to information, and one-metre distance between the participants during the test. There was a one-week interval between the pre- and the post-test, and there was another two-week interval between the post-test and the delayed post-test. The tests results were checked for their feasibility and the results were computed.

The task performance stage was conducted over two sessions and each dyad completed four different tasks. The relevant instructions were given at the beginning of each task, and then fifteen minutes was allowed for task completion. The dyads were set up with at least a three-metre distance between each pair to ensure less disturbance. The task interactions were recorded, transcribed and coded.

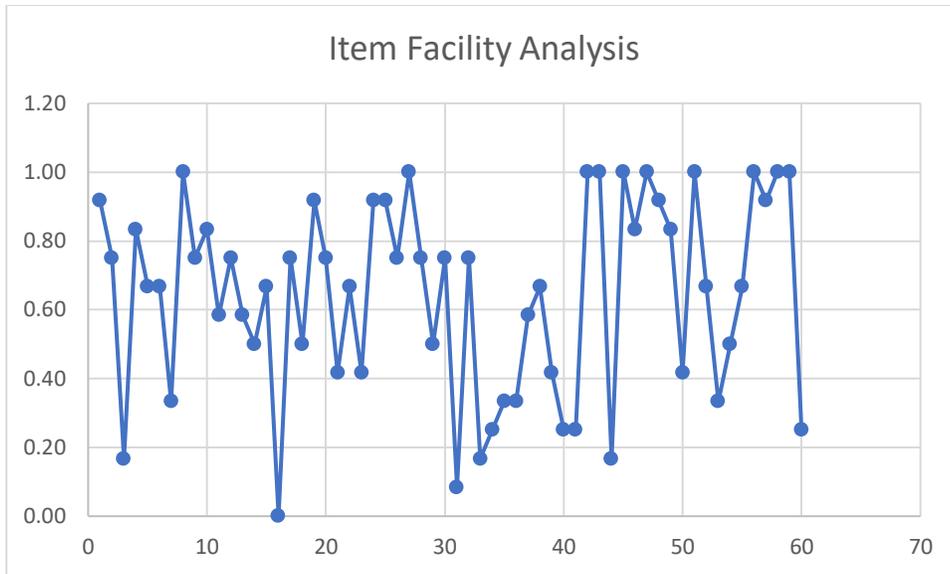
The participants completed their self-assessment (as described above) after each session. In addition, focus group discussions were conducted after the participants had finished all the assigned tasks. There were four focus groups in total, made up of 3-5 students. During the 15-20-minute discussion, the participants were allowed to answer the questions in either English or Indonesian depending on their preference.

Pilot study analysis: The following analysis of the pilot study firstly includes a description of the outcome of the: 1) vocabulary tests, 2) task interactions, 3) questionnaire, 4) focus group interview, and 5) feedback from teachers and, secondly, a discussion about the usefulness of the instruments. An outline of what modifications were necessary prior to stage one of the data collection for the main study is then provided.

Vocabulary tests and the target words

A key part of analysing the pilot tests was to see whether the participant knew the target words prior to the instruction, whether learning took place or not and, finally, whether the time allocation was sufficient. As a first step it was important to check whether the participants were familiar with target words before treatment, as learning could not take place if the participants had previously acquired these words. The prior knowledge of target words was assessed through the use of pre-test scores.

Specifically, data from the pre-test scores were analysed using Item facility analysis to see how many participants correctly answered each item of the tests. An index of item facility (IF) shows the proportion of correct answers per total participants. As such the higher the index the easier the keywords (i.e., an IF of .7 suggests that the item was too easy, and the particular keyword was previously acquired).

Figure 4.1*Item facility analysis of target words*

The Item facility (IF) analysis indicated that out of the 60 target words, 29 had an IF score of 0.7 or greater (see data on Figure 4.1). These 29 words were replaced by new target words taken from the Cambridge English Preliminary test word bank. The new target words were selected based on consultation with English teachers in the university the participants attended, a review of their lexical difficulty level, and how they could be used in the tasks (see Appendix Table A-2 for the complete IF analysis of the target words).

The change of these 29 target words resulted in an extensive modification of task #1, #2, task #3, #7, #9, #10, #11 and #12 to accommodate these changes (see Table 4.6). These changes also involved ensuring that the target words were not repeated in different tasks.

Table 4.6*Changes in target words*

No	Original target words			New target words		
1	Armchair	Dancer	Living room	Bulb	Diver	Newsagent
2	Bank	Dentist	Mechanic	Butcher	Dustbin	Pillow
3	Banker	Designer	Microwave	Carpenter	Greengrocer	Sheet
4	Bedroom	Electricity	Museum	Chemist	Guard	Shower
5	Blanket	Furniture	Nurse	City hall	Handle	Steward
6	Corridor	Gas	Phone	Clerk	Hedge	Switch
7	Carpet	Garage	Politician	Cloakroom	Kettle	Tap
8	Cinema	Housewife	Physician	Courtroom	Lavatory	Towel
9	Coal	Labourer	Staff	Defendant	Lawn	Vase
10	Colleagues	Laundry		Dish	Lounge	

The second part of the analysis of the pilot tests was concerned with determining whether learning had taken place or not. Learning could be ascertained by the improvement of scores (i.e., when the participants scored higher in the post-tests than in the pre-test).

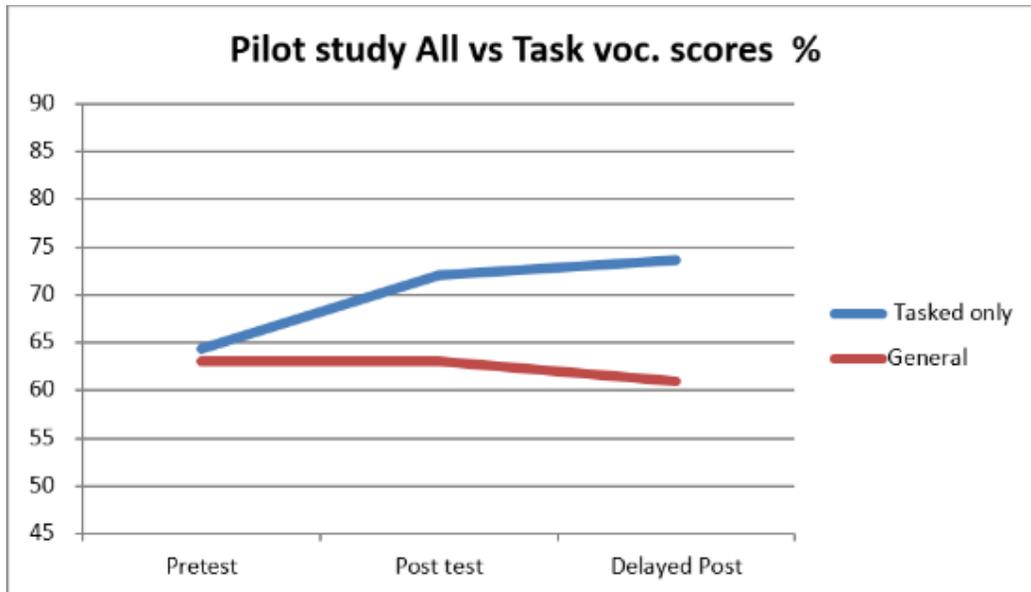
During the pilot study, each dyad only completed a sample of tasks (specifically four out of the twelve tasks), where each part of the task had a particular set of target words that made up the items in the tests. The participants, therefore, acquired only a certain set of keywords, and these were different in each of the dyads. Thus, the evidence of learning only could be seen in the improvement on scores of the particular items relevant to the different participants and the tasks they completed, and in comparison, to the rest of the items.

The analysis showed that the pre-test scores of the task items and the general items were comparable (task item $X = 64.35\%$ and general items $X = 62.78\%$). In the post test, the results displayed a different trend with the task items much improved, while the general items remained quite similar. This means that the gap between the two types of items widened (task items $X = 72.11\%$ and general items $X = 63.33\%$). This was increased further in the delayed post-test (task items $X = 73.61\%$ and general items

X = 60.69%) (see Figure 4.2). Taken together this suggests that learning occurred and was maintained (in fact increased) over time.

Figure 4.2

Percentage of the tasked item and general item scores in the pilot study



On a practical level, the time allocation given for completion of the test was deemed to be sufficient as the students needed less than 25 minutes to complete the tests. The range of scores also suggested that the test was suitable to the levels of the participants.

Task procedures and interactions

To determine whether the task instructions were appropriate and the task interactions of a type acceptable for the intent of the study, first the interactions were transcribed and then the content of the transcripts was carefully examined. In the first instance, the transcripts were viewed to see if the tasks could be undertaken by the pilot study participants (i.e., they could understand the instructions) and, then secondly, in terms of whether or not they: 1) interacted naturally; 2) used the target words; 3) completed the task satisfactorily; and, 4) finished within the given time.

An analysis of the transcripts revealed that the task instructions were not clear enough. Participants were hesitant to start after the cue, and some asked questions in the middle of their task interactions. It was apparent that the participants needed to confirm their understanding with their partners using their native language (L1). There were also instances when the dyads checked with other pairs about whether they were doing the task correctly or not. Therefore, it seemed that the written directions were not sufficiently clear, and more time was needed during the pre-task to explain orally to the participants what was required of them.

The difficulty in understanding the task instructions could be attributed firstly to the participants' lack of familiarity with doing tasks. To cope with this, it was apparent that more time was needed for explaining the tasks and giving examples in the pre-task stage. Furthermore, it did seem that the tasks needed to be made simpler to ensure they prompted more authentic interactions. It was also deemed necessary to sequence the tasks from simple to more complex as a way to support the participants' interactions and to enhance their opportunity for learning. Secondly, because the tasks were designed to accommodate complex target words, there were readability issues with the instructions. To overcome this, it was decided to incorporate visual clues into the tasks to support the learners, such as by using infographics (combination of text and icons, characters, text balloons, boxes, and objects) for illustrative purposes. The use of visual aids also meant that the number of words required could be reduced overcoming the problem of some task sheets containing too much information. In turn, this measure also served to help the participants complete the tasks.

The analysis of the transcripts indicated that participants conversed quite naturally in the majority of the tasks, although most of their sentences were short and limited to simple questions and answers. The majority of dyads appeared to have a balanced participation, both in terms of time, total words produced, and turn taking. However, in a few of the dyads a dominant participant would initiate almost all the exchanges in the conversation (reflecting findings of Storch, 2002). Despite this, for all the dyads the interaction flowed naturally from one topic to another. Some exchanges stopped abruptly because the speaker could not recall the right word. At these times the participants would switch to their L1 as way to find the correct word.

Although the target words were included at the pre-task stage, the analysis of the transcripts revealed that some lexical items were not used in the interactions at all. Participants would either use an easier

substitute or switched to their L1 for that particular lexical item. To address this, and further encourage the use of the target words in the dyadic interaction, it seemed necessary to make the words more readily available. This was achieved by adding them to the task sheet – see notes in Table 4.7 (e.g., adding names close to the object or for abstract words provided as a glossary). In the pilot study these vocabulary resources seemed useful and served to prompt the participants during the times when they could not recall the target words.

Although most dyads were able to complete the tasks, they did so with some degree of difficulty. In fact, it was found that three tasks were too complex for the participants:

1. Task #5 – In this task the participants were required to construct new rules based on problems encountered by each dorm. To do this one participant received information about three dorms and the problems associated with each, and the other partner received information about five common rules in dorms. The participants discussed which rules should be used in which particular dorm. The discussion was long and demanding, time consuming and most dyads did not resolve the problem, but simply assigned all the given rules to each dorm. To address this, the task was modified as one in which the participants had to calculate the amount of different fines a person should pay according to the dorm rules that were violated.
2. Task #7 – For this task the pairs needed to match personal profiles with advertised jobs. One participant received the information about three people, including their CV, while the other partner received information about seven job openings. The participants discussed the most appropriate job for these people. It was found that the discussion was too broad, demanding and time consuming. It also seemed that there was too much information provided resulting in the participants focusing only on the salary levels of two jobs, and a failure to talk about the remaining five. To simplify this task, it was changed to involve information about a job swap so as to reduce the amount of unnecessary information such as salary, travel, health cover, etc.
3. Task #11 – This was a picture placement task, where one participant gave advice on how to place the objects in a picture and the other cut out and placed the objects in the correct position and pasted them on to a sheet. This activity was fun, but too much time was needed for things not related to the objective of the task (e.g., cutting and pasting the pictures) and, therefore, proved to be impractical. The task was replaced with a spot the difference task, which is more practical and beneficial.

Several other minor adjustments were also required for other tasks, based on this analysis and also from the feedback provided by the participants in the focus group interview (as described below) mostly involving the reduction of unnecessary detail. The details are shown in the notes column of Table 4.7

Table 4.7

Changes in tasks after the pilot study

No	Task Type	Task description	Target words	Notes
1	Spot the difference	1. Room Inventories – compare two dorm rooms to spot the differences	Towel, dustbin, fan, mirror, vase, kettle, pillow	This task needed to be simplified as it was found to be confusing to most learners. Objects in the pictures needed to be labelled with keywords to assist the learners to easily recall the words and use them in their communication. Other objects needed to be removed from the pictures to avoid confusion.
2	Similarities and differences	3. Floor plans – Compare floor plans of two houses	Lounge, cloakroom, chimney, lavatory, basement	Both pictures needed to be changed as they appeared blurry to the learners. Objects in new pictures needed to be labelled with keywords to assist the learners to easily recall the words and use them in their communication. Other objects needed to be removed from the pictures to avoid confusion.
3	Similarities and differences	8. In the courtroom – Compare Indonesian court system with the one of the USA	Judge, guard, clerk, lawyer, courtroom, defendant	The picture in Part B needed to be changed to better portray the Indonesian court system. Objects in both pictures needed to be labelled with keywords to assist the learners to easily recall the words and use them in their communication.
4	Information gap	4. The right accommodation – Advise the best accommodation for three tenants	Property, upstairs, lawn, furnished, ceiling, hedge	Visual references needed to be added to illustrate the keywords and so labels were added to assist the learners to easily recall the words and use them in their communication. A glossary translation needed to be provided for the learners and there was a need to replace visual reference for abstract target words.
5	Information gap	5. Dorm living – Count the fine based on how many rules are violated	sheet, tap, curtain	This task needed to be simplified as it was found to be confusing to most learners. Visual references (particularly icons) needed to be added to illustrate the keywords. Labels were also needed to assist the learners to easily recall the words and use them in their communication. A glossary translation needed to be provided for the learners to replace visual reference for abstract target words.

6	Information gap	6. House bills – Split the house bills based on appliance and electronic use	Bulb, switch, shower, rent	Visual references (particularly icons) needed to be added to illustrate the keywords. Labels were also needed to assist the learners to easily recall the words and use them in their communication. A glossary translation needed to be provided for the learners to replace visual reference for abstract target words.
7	Information gap	11. Profiles and jobs – Match personal profiles and advertised future job	Artist, employ, occupation, qualification, diploma, newsagent, CV	This task needed to be modified to as it was found to be too demanding for all the learners. Visual references (particularly icons) needed to be added to illustrate the keywords. Labels were also needed to assist the learners to easily recall the words and use them in their communication. A glossary translation needed to be provided for the learners to replace visual reference for abstract target words.
8	Information gap	12. Career comparison – Compare career development among several companies	Candidate, pension, quit, wage	Visual references (particularly icons) needed to be added to illustrate the keywords. Labels were also needed to assist the learners to easily recall the words and use them in their communication. A glossary translation needed to be provided for the learners to replace visual reference for abstract target words.
9	Line drawing	7. Delivery route – Give delivery route directions with two incomplete maps	Gallery, city hall, factory	Objects in picture A needed to be labelled with keywords to assist the learners to easily recall the words and use them in their communication.
10	Picture matching	9. My dream job – Checking if a person has fulfilled his or her dream job or not	Chef, diver, porter, steward, profession,	This task needed to be modified as it was too confusing for the learners. Pictures needed to be replaced to match new tasks. Visual references (particularly icons) needed to be added to illustrate the keywords. Labels were also needed to assist the learners to easily recall the words and use them in their communication. A glossary translation needed to be provided for the learners to replace visual reference for abstract target words.
11	Spot the difference	2. Room furniture – Comparing two dorm rooms to spot the difference	Sink, antique, desk, dish, cupboard, handle	This task needed to be changed as it was too demanding for the learners and it took too much time for the cutting and pasting of the objects. In the new task, objects in both pictures needed to be labelled with keywords to assist the learners to easily recall the words and use them in their communication.

12	Picture matching	10. Job and partner – Matching job and people	Carpenter, butcher, chemist, greengrocer,	This task needed to be modified as it was too confusing for the learners. Pictures needed to be replaced to match new tasks. Visual references (particularly icons) needed to be added to illustrate the keywords. Labels were also needed to assist the learners to easily recall the words and use them in their communication. A glossary translation needed to be provided for the learners to replace visual reference for abstract target words.
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Finally, an analysis of the transcripts indicated that the allocated time for each task (15 minutes) was more than enough. The majority of the participants completed each task in 3-7 minutes and so this modification was made to the procedure.

The next step in pilot study was to check the coding analysis. Informed by the literature, the following nine-part coding system was used:

1. Elaborative clauses,
2. Negotiation moves,
3. Disagreements,
4. Recasts,
5. Completing peer utterances,
6. Word count,
7. Time on task,
8. Turn count, and
9. Backchannels.

Details of these coding categories are described in full in Data Analysis (see Section 4.5.2 in the description of the main study, with some examples on Section 5.2).

For the pilot study, the coding was undertaken based on individual not dyadic, contributions. It was done in this way because the vocabulary test scores were also tallied individually. The result of the pilot study's coding was outlined in Table 4.8 (again note the definition of the various measures are provided in Section 4.5.2 Main study).

Table 4.8*Pilot study participant's coding scores*

No	Measure	Mean	SD
1	Frequency of elaborative clauses	2.8	0.2
2	Frequency of negotiation moves	3.3	0.3
3	Disagreement	1.2	0.1
4	Recast	0.5	0.1
5	Completing peer utterances	2.2	0.1
6	Word counts	306	9.8
7	Time on task (in seconds) (Per dyads)	340	12.5
8	Turn counts (per dyad)	12.2	2.9
9	Number of backchannels	4.3	1.2

Questionnaire

The questionnaire was distributed twice during the pilot study – after each dyad had completed the tasks – which they did in two different sessions. Participants gave scores ranging from 1 to 5 indicating strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, and strongly agree. The results are outlined in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9
Result of pilot study questionnaire

Items	Ratings (Mean)	Rating (SD)
Part 1: Engagement		
1. "I liked talking about this topic"	4.04	0.51
2. "I took notice of what my partner said"	3.75	0.73
3. "I participated to complete of the task"	4.04	0.48
4. "I felt bored with this task"	4.13	0.55
5. "My partner and I resolved our difference opinion"	3.88	0.69
6. "I think my partner and I did a great job on the task"	4.04	0.44
Part 2: Lexical Learning		
7. "I noticed words that were new to me."	4.13	0.42
8. "When my partner used words new to me, I tried to use them myself"	3.92	0.55
9. "By completing these tasks today, I learnt the following words: _____"	49 words Ranging from 1-5	

The result of the first six items indicated a high socio-emotional engagement by the pilot study participants in undertaking the tasks. Items #7 and #8 of the questionnaire explored the participants' lexical learning and, in particular, whether or not they noticed and repeated new words. The results suggest that the participants self-reported a high level of lexical learning.

However, the final item was an open-ended short-answer question that asked the participants to write down any words they recalled learning during their task interactions and the participants recorded that they learnt between one and five words. The top five words were: delivery, factory, fan, furniture, and lavatory. Despite the low number of words reported, it did seem that the tasks were conducive of vocabulary learning, as shown in Figure 4.1. Furthermore, a Cronbach Alpha score of .808 ($df = 23$) indicates a high level of reliability and, therefore, no changes were deemed necessary for the questionnaire.

Focus group interviews

The focus group interview with the pilot study participants was conducted only briefly. There were two main topics covered during the interview: task engagement and lexical learning. Regarding task engagement, the participants reported feeling inclined to participate in the tasks, although they showed a preference for particular topics. The participants enjoyed working with the assigned partner, with no preference regarding gender. They described resolving differences with their partners, but indicated they did not always manage to do so. When the issue was too difficult, they said they would opt to skip the task, or use L1 to easily solve the problem. They also indicated that they used their L1 when they got bored talking in English for a long time and as a way to extend the conversation, especially when they did not know what to say.

Although some participants did their best in completing the tasks, some admitted not giving their best effort. The reason for this they said was due to the lack of clarity around the task directions and the difficulty they experienced with the tasks. They did indicate that they were more motivated when the directions and keywords were clear, and the complexity level was just right. The participants were asked to give a score for their effort, and they gave varying answers ranging from six to nine, with eight and nine as the most frequent scores.

When asked about lexical learning, the participants reported that they learned new words from their partner and tried to use the words in the interactions. The participants also had a positive perception about their task interactions, indicating that they thought this activity would help them to make progress in learning English. However, they did provide valuable feedback that contributed to the revision of tasks, which informed the modifications, as indicated above. Furthermore, the information provided by the participants suggested that they understood the questions and were able to provide their opinions and, therefore, the interview schedule remained unchanged for the main study.

Input from the teachers

After the pilot study, two EFL teachers in the pilot institution were consulted. These teachers were present during the vocabulary post-test and some of the task performances. Based on what they observed they suggested substituting 29 of the original target words with those from the Cambridge English Preliminary test word bank (see Vocabulary tests and the target words section on *Pilot study analysis*). They also provided their reflections on the task interactions, especially about the difficulty of

the tasks. Along with the participants' responses, their feedback was used to revise those tasks deemed too demanding for the learners.

4.5.2 Main study

The data collection for the main study was conducted after the revision of the instruments based on the analysis of the pilot study results, as described above. In this phase, data were collected using the vocabulary test, by recording the task interactions and then transcribing and coding these interactions, and by analysing the questionnaire data.

The following sections provide a description of 1) the procedures of how the data were collected, including how the participants were recruited, the methods of data collection and the timeline, 2) the methods of analysis including a description of the transcription conventions, the coding and the analysis for interrater reliability, and 3) the statistical treatment used in this study, including those used for calculating lexical learning and the correlation between task engagement and learning.

Procedure

This phase of the data collection occurred from October 2018 to February 2019. As with the pilot study (see Table 4-5), this consisted of five stages as follows: 1. Pre-test, 2. Task performance, 3. Post-test, 4. Focus group interview, and 5. delayed post-test.

Prior to the study commencing, a brochure for recruitment was posted to enlist potential participants. From the list, 72 university students were selected from those who signed up. The selection was based on their gender and level of English proficiency. The information about the research was communicated both in oral and in written form before gaining their informed, signed consent. The participants were assigned an identifying number and then paired according to the test results, with the dyads being made up of pairs with close levels of English proficiency.

In the pre-test, post-test and delayed post-test stages, the revised vocabulary tests 1, 2 and 3 were administered to all students. The test procedures followed the standard university guidelines as described previously with regard to the pilot study. There were three weeks between the pre- and the

post-test, as well as a two-week interval from the post-test to the delayed post-test. These tests were scored and the results were computed.

The task performance stage was conducted over the course of six meetings, with each dyad completing 12 tasks in total (i.e., two each session). These were done in a closed room to minimise disturbance. Before the tasks began instructions were given both orally and in writing. Any questions about the task procedure were answered at this time. The pairs were then provided with a maximum of 15 minutes to complete the tasks. The dyad interactions in the first and the last meeting were recorded, transcribed and coded. After these sessions the participants completed their self-assessment questionnaire. In the second to fifth sessions, eight language tasks were completed by participants in dyads as lessons to cover all the target words, but these were not recorded nor were questionnaires administered at task completion. The reason for recording only four out of twelve tasks is because doing all 12 were seen as redundant repetition in terms of analysis. The four recorded tasks have supplied more than 24 hours of recording data, and therefore were deemed sufficient to cover coding and analysis of engagement and for interaction and content analysis. Furthermore, in comparison to other related studies, the amount of recorded data surpassed the length of time of these. In addition, there were also recordings of interview to supplement the qualitative data.

A focus group interview was conducted at the end of the course, that is, right after the post-test stage. A summary and timeline for this phase of data collection is shown in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10*Timeline of main study data collection*

Stage	Dates	Activity	Instruments
Prior	Oct – Dec 2018	Announcing participant recruitment	Recruitment posters and flyers, and announcements
	3 Jan	Selecting and grouping the eligible participants	Participants information and Entrance test result
Pre-test	7-8 Jan	Explaining the research information and collecting the signed consent	Information sheet and consent form
	7-8 Jan	Pre-test	Vocabulary test 1
Task performance	9-10 Jan	Task performance meeting 1 Dialogue task recording student self-assessment 1	Task no 1 and 2 Questionnaire
	14-24 Jan	Task performance meeting 2 - 5	Task no 3 - 10
	28-29 Jan	Task performance meeting 6 Dialogue task recording student self-assessment 2	Task no 11 and 12 Questionnaire
Post test	28-29 Jan	Post-test	Vocabulary test 2
Interview	28-29 Jan	Focus group interview (2 times)	Focus group interview schedule
Delayed post-test	14 Feb	Delayed post-test	Vocabulary test 3

Data Analysis

There were four sets of data obtained in the main study data collection. The first were the scores of three vocabulary tests used to measure lexical learning; the second were the recording of four tasks which were transcribed and coded for task engagement and analysed using content analysis; thirdly the scores and transcript from two five-Likert-scale questionnaires; and, fourthly the recording of focus group interview, which were transcribed. The details for how these were analysed are provided below:

Vocabulary tests scores

The analysis of vocabulary test scores was done to see whether lexical learning took place (i.e., the participants scored higher in the post-tests than in the pre-test). To achieve these two sets of data were compared, firstly the scores in the pre-test and post-test, and secondly, in the pre-test and delayed post-tests. To do this, it was necessary to determine if a parametric or non-parametric analysis was appropriate to check whether significant differences were obtained in the learning scores.

A normality test of Kolmogorov Smirnov was run using an IBM SPSS Ver. 26 program and it was found that both sets of data were normally distributed with $p < 0.05$ (this analysis output is available on Appendix C). Therefore, a parametric analysis was used to compare the differences. Specifically, a one sample t-test was used to determine if significance existed between the pre-test and post-tests scores.

Although using multiple t-tests might lead to type 1 error, that is rejecting a true hypothesis, this analysis was chosen over ANOVA because the t-test analysis was performed independently to show that learning took place (i.e., there was a difference in mean scores between pre-test and post-test, and between pre-test and delayed post-test). These parametric analyses were used in different ways in this study. T-tests were used to compare two sets of scores (pre-test and post-test, and pre-test and delayed post-test), while ANOVA compared one set of scores (post-test only, or delayed post-test) of different gender groups (i.e., male-male, male-female, female-female) and proficiency levels (i.e., level 1, level 2 and level 3).

The type of t-test used was one sample t-test or independent sample and it was used for two different comparisons, pre-test and post-test, and pre-test and delayed post-test. However, for comparing the frequency of coding schemes per type of task (see Chapter Five), a paired t-test was used.

Task performance

Once the data from the task interactions were transcribed, they were analysed firstly to examine 1) the nature of the interactions and then 2) in terms of content of these interactions.

With respect to 1) **nature of the interactions**, the data were coded to explore the way learners interacted, especially in ways that reflected their cognitive, behavioural, emotional and social engagement. Following the pilot study, the analysis of the transcripts included a nine-part coding system consisting of:

1. Elaborative clauses,
2. Negotiation moves,
3. Disagreements,
4. Recasts,
5. Completing peer utterances,
6. Word count,
7. Time on task,
8. Turn count, and
9. Backchannels

The definitions used to guide this analysis are described below with examples are available on Section 5.2:

i) Elaborative clauses: This involved coding the number of elaborative clauses the participants used to expand the semantic content of the task and was done as a measure of the attention invested in the task (Lambert et al, 2016; Lambert & Zhang, 2019). It gave an indication of sustained attention and mental effort, which is the primary construct of cognitive engagement (Helme & Clarke, 2001). In this study, an elaborative clause was operationally defined as the clause that immediately succeeded another clause by the same speaker, and expanded the content with a suggestion, proposition, elaboration, reason, and opinion. A rephrase or use of synonymous words without expansion of semantic content were not considered as an elaborative clause.

ii) Negotiation moves: These moves within interaction are used to help overcome communication breakdowns and provide opportunity to focus on linguistic form. It consists of several strategies, but in

this study were limited to clarification requests, confirmation checks, and comprehension checks (Azkarai & Oliver, 2019; Long, 1983, 1996; Oliver, 1995, 1998). They represent cognitive engagement as demonstrated by the responsiveness and attentive listening of the participants (Philp & Duchesne, 2016) and sustained attention and mental effort (Helme & Clarke, 2001). Note: Recasts were not counted in this category, as there is a separate coding for these.

iii) Disagreement: This is also an indicator of cognitive engagement (Philp & Duchesne, 2016) as it reflects reasoning and exemplification on the part of the speaker. In this study, disagreements were coded when a negative response, often followed by justification, was given.

iv) Recasts indicate learner noticing form (Oliver, 1995, 1998; Loewen & Philp, 2006). Recasts can also be seen as self-correction or as part of a language-related episode (Baralt et al., 2016; Svaberg, 2009), which in turn can be considered as one part of cognitive engagement (Philp & Duchesne, 2016). However, recasts are also closely related to social engagement (as described above), because they provide social support and scaffolding in the partner's reception. In this study, recasts involve the repetition of a learner's utterance (Azkarai & Oliver, 2019).

v) Completing peer utterances: This coding was included to measure both cognitive and social engagement. Completing utterances required cognitive engagement in collaborative activities (Helme & Clarke, 2001). As stated by Philp and Duchesne, (2016), this type of interaction suggests social support for a partner. In this study it included all intelligent responses when a partner got stuck and seemed to be looking for the correct words to use.

vi) Word count: This was undertaken to give a measure of the amount of effort, persistence, and active involvement of the participants (Philp & Duchesne, 2016). Word count has also been used in other studies to measure behavioural engagement (Bygate & Samuda, 2007; Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000). In this study, each word, including contracted words, were counted as a different word. Each morpheme that carried meaning was also counted as a word. This was done to accommodate shortened words, naming, and meaningful non-words used for backchannelling.

vii) Time on task: The amount of time used by learners to engage in completing the tasks has been used as measure of motivation and behavioural engagement (Adelman et al., 1996; Guthrie & Wigfield,

2000). Time of task (or academic learning time) is synonymous with behavioural engagement (Fredricks, Blumenfeld & Paris, 2004; Gettinger & Walter, 2012), involvement (Huitt, 1995) and persistence with learning (Lambert et al, 2017). Time on task in this study was calculated in seconds captured from the start and the end of the task interaction.

viii) Turn count: When completing interaction tasks turn-taking has been used an indicator of level of student engagement in terms of social support (Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000) because it reflects the learners' joint interaction, and behavioural engagement since it deems how much participation in a conversation (Pridham, 2001; Wong & Waring, 2010). In this study this was done by counting the turn made by individuals.

ix) Backchannels: This measure has been used to indicate responsiveness, including the use of acknowledgment of comprehension and also the provision of support and emotional expression (Lambert et al., 2017; Lambert & Zhang, 2019). In this study, backchannelling was defined as by the number of morpheme responses such as: ah, oh, uh, mm, hmm, okay, wow, yeah, or short expletive words: I see, really, fantastic, good, great or excellent.

With regard to 2) **analysis of the content of the interactions** the analysis consisted of three steps: i) Identifying newly learned vocabulary based on transcript data, ii) Analysing how these words were learned, and iii) Triangulating the analysis with the findings from the quantitative analysis.

In identifying newly learned vocabulary items, the 60 target words were carefully scrutinised with the particular changes in learner's interlanguage, in terms of lexical use (evidence of words now known in pre-test, acquired in post-test and delayed post-test, and used in the transcript) carefully noted. After these items were listed, an in-depth analysis using inductive coding was used to explore what occurred in terms of interactional strategies that appeared to promote lexical acquisition (e.g., explicit provision, prompts, negotiation strategies and recasts etc. For example: "what does X mean?" "Draw an X? What is that?" "I don't understand").

Once the data for both the interaction and content analysis were coded, in order to check if this was done reliably, part of the transcript was re-coded again by a second rater and the two codings were

compared. An inter-rater reliability analysis was undertaken in for six codings, namely Elaborative clauses, Negotiation moves, Disagreement, Recast, Completing peer utterances, and Backchannels. The IBM SPSS Ver. 26 was used to calculate the Cohen Kappa analysis, and the result showed that there was a high agreement between the two raters with the Kappa value ranging from .730 to .970 (Elaborative clauses, $\kappa = .730$, $p = .015$, Negotiation moves, $\kappa = .970$ $p < .001$, Completing peer utterances $\kappa = .929$ $p < .001$, Recast $\kappa = .840$ $p = .002$, Disagreement = $.761$ $p = .012$, and Backchannels $\kappa = .916$ $p < .001$). Comparison for the other three interactional coding was deemed unnecessary since the word count (number of word), time on task (amount of time), and turn count (number of turns) were done automatically by a computer program (Microsoft Office 365).

The reliability of the content analysis of the qualitative data were enhanced by using dependability audit. Dependability audit concerns the process of inquiry, including the appropriateness of inquiry decision (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). This technique was endorsed by Lincoln and Guba (1985) for enhancing reliability in qualitative research. Furthermore, the credibility of qualitative interpretation was also enhanced by triangulation with the quantitative analysis to ensure credible reconstruction of data interpretation.

To complete the analysis, the frequency data were examined to determine if the data were normally distributed. A Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was run for this purpose, and it was found that this was indeed the case. As a result, a t-test was used to compare the interactional data between the tasks (i.e., t-test) and then Pearson-product correlation analysis to determine the relationship between the variables of the study.

As a final step in the analysis, the interactional and content analysis findings were interrogated to enable triangulation. For example, a comparison of the interactional analysis was made with the participants' self-assessment of lexical learning, and correlational results with learners' self-assessments – both of lexical learning and engagement.

Questionnaire data

The questionnaire data were subjected to both quantitative and qualitative analysis. Firstly, the data was examined in terms of frequency. Then to examine the relationship between these results and other findings, once more a normality test of Kolmogorov Smirnov was run using an IBM SPSS Ver. 26 program and it was found that both sets of data were normally distributed with $p < 0.05$ in all items (this analysis output is available in Appendix C). Therefore, a parametric analysis (i.e., Pearson Product Moment Correlation) was used for the correlation analysis.

Data from open-question items, that is, the participants' comments on task performance, were analysed qualitatively, that is, by sorting out the comments thematically based on the word connotation. This thematic grouping was elicited to portray participants self-engagement on the tasks. A thematic analysis of the data led to these participants' perception being group into three categories, positive, neutral and negative.

Focus group interview

Interview data were used to complement the content analysis, particularly to elicit learners' perceptions about their engagement in the tasks and their experience in the use of new words. Data from interview was first transcribed, and then organised systematically to elicit categories or themes, particularly positive, neutral and negative. These data were then tabulated as a percentage agreement summary of all the participants' perceptions.

Interviews were conducted three times, each time with a group of six to seven participants. Thus, 20 participants were involved in the interviews, and none of them were paired during the tasks. There were 10 male and 10 female participants, from all the three levels of English proficiency.

After the selection, the participants were labelled as respondent number #1 to #20. Odd numbers were used for female respondents and even numbers for male respondents. Respondents number #1 to #7 had a proficiency level of 1, respondents number #8 to #13 had a proficiency level of 2, and respondents number #14 to #20 had a proficiency level of 3.

After sitting down with one focus group, the researcher asked questions, starting with the guide question no #1 (Appendix B.5). In several cases, there were follow up questions to help the respondents

understand what was being asked, and to clarify their responses if there was ambiguity. This was repeated until all 10 guide questions were asked.

The respondents were told to respond either in English or Indonesian according to their preference; however, all of them preferred to respond in English. The procedure was repeated for the next focus group. Each interview lasted for approximately 15-25 minutes.

Both questionnaires and focus groups were used to elicit qualitative data to answer research question #2: “Is there additional evidence of lexical learning (in terms of the use of newly learned words and the student perception of learning new words by the use of task) when tasks are used?” Participants’ responses were recorded and categorised into the themes of task engagement, lexical learning, and the relationship between task engagement and lexical learning (for more information regarding the process of organising the data systematically to elicit categories and themes see Chapter Six, Section 6.2 Task Engagement: Questionnaire and Interview Findings, and Chapter Seven, Section 7.3 Lexical Learning: Analysis of the Questionnaire and Interviews)

4.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter has outlined the methodology employed in the current study. It started with an overview (Section 4.1) and provided an explanation of mixed method research design used in this study, (Section 4.2). It also outlined the main variables of the study, which are multidimensional task engagement and lexical learning. Sections 4.3 and 4.4 provided the details of the participants involved, as well as the material, and the equipment used in this study. The data collection procedure and methods of analysis were discussed in Section 4.5.

Chapter Five

RESULTS: MULTIDIMENSIONAL TASK ENGAGEMENT

5.1 Overview

In this study both quantitative and qualitative analysis were used. The data instruments and the process of analysis, including the coding and data treatment coding schemes, were discussed in the previous chapter (Chapter Four). The results of the study are reported in the next three chapters, beginning with results on task engagement in this chapter (Chapter Five), followed by the results on students' perceptions of task engagement (Chapter Six), and on lexical learning (Chapter Seven). These three chapters (Five, Six and Seven) present the findings of the data analyses which together endeavour to answer the two research questions, as presented in Chapter One (Section 1.5 Research Questions) of this thesis: (1) "What is the relationship between learners' task engagement (as measured by the frequency of elaborative clauses, negotiation moves, disagreements, recasts, completing peer utterances, word count, time on task, turn count, and backchannelling) and their lexical learning?" and (2) "Is there additional evidence of lexical learning (in terms of the use of newly learned words and students' perceptions of learning new words through the use of tasks) when tasks are used?".

First, in response to Research Question 1, the findings on task engagement are presented in Chapter Five and Chapter Six describing whether or not multidimensional engagement occurred. Next, in response to Research Question 2 about whether there is a relationship between learners' task engagement and their lexical learning the findings on lexical learning are presented in Chapter Seven to determine whether lexical learning occurred. The question whether there is a relationship between learners' task engagement and their lexical learning is addressed in Chapter Seven, which also discusses what additional evidence there is of lexical learning in response to Research Question 2.

This chapter (Chapter Five) presents the results emanating from coding of different types of engagement and the frequency of these (Section 5.2). The findings are presented in the following order:

Elaborative clauses (Sub-section 5.2.1), Negotiation moves (Sub-section 5.2.2), Disagreement (Sub-section 5.2.3), Recasts (Sub-section 5.2.4), Completing peer utterances (Sub section 5.2.5), Word counts (Sub section 5.2.6), Time on task (Sub section 5.2.7), Turn counts (Sub section 5.2.1), and Back-channelling (Sub section 5.2.1). The chapter concludes with a summary in Section 5.3.

5.2 The Coding Scheme and Frequency Analysis of Task Engagement

This section reports the findings from the 72 Indonesian participants' interaction tasks as revealed by the coding schemes used to analyse the transcripts and by the frequency scores obtained from the questionnaires. The interaction tasks and coding categories are described in detail in the previous chapter (Chapter Four, Section 3.4. Instruments, and Sub-section 3.5.2 Data analysis, respectively). In doing so, this section first revisits the coding scheme used for the analysis of the tasks performed by the participants, and then presents the results obtained from the frequency analysis in terms of the coding measures used.

As explained in Chapter Four, the 72 participants were formed into 36 dyads based on gender and English proficiency levels. As a result, there were 12 all-male dyads, 12 male-female dyads, and 12 all-female dyads. Proficiency levels had been classified as Level 1, Level 2 and Level 3, with these proficiency levels being determined previously by a placement test (for more information, see discussion in Chapter Four Methods, Section 4.3 Participants). The different proficiency pairings were distributed as equally as possible across the three different types of gender pairings, as shown by Table 5.1 below.

Table 5.1

Number of proficiency pairings by gender

Gender/proficiency	All male	Male-female	All female	Total
Level 1	4	4	4	12
Level 2	4	4	4	12
Level 3	4	4	4	12
	12	12	12	36 dyads

These pairs then worked together on the tasks. Task types the dyads worked on ranged from spot the difference, similarities and differences, information gap, line drawing, and opinion tasks. As explained in Chapter Four, Section 4.5.2, only four tasks were selected for coding, specifically, the first two and the last two tasks (Task #1 and #2, and Task #11 and #12). Aside from the difference in sequence, with Task #1 and #2 being administered at the first meeting and Task #11 and #12 being administered at the end of the lesson, the four analysed tasks were also different in terms of task type. The first two tasks in the sequence, Task #1 and #2, were both spot the difference tasks, which required participants to compare two pictures of room inventories. In these tasks, participants needed to describe concrete objects which are found in their everyday routines. Task #11 and #12, in contrast, were both opinion tasks designed to elicit participants' evaluation and comments and connecting several abstract ideas that deal with things they may have never encountered before, such as career choice and job recruitment. The four analysed tasks are as summarised in Table 5.2 below.

Table 5.2

The four coded lesson tasks analysed in the study

No	Task Type	Task description	Target words
#1	Spot the difference	1. Room inventories – Compare two dorm rooms to spot the differences	Mirror, fan, kettle, pillow, dustbin, vase
#2	Spot the difference	2. Room furniture – Compare two dorm rooms to spot the difference	Antique, desk, cupboard, sink, dish, handle
#11	Information gap/ Opinion task	11. Profiles and jobs – Match personal profiles and advertised future job	CV, artist, diploma, employ, occupation, qualification, newsagent, shopkeeper
#12	Information gap/ Opinion task	12. Career comparison – Compare career development among several companies	Pension, career, colleague, quit, wage, candidate

The interactions in the four tasks were recorded, transcribed and coded based on the coding scheme used in this study, which was designed to quantify participants' task engagement scores obtained from an analysis of the transcripts (see Chapter Four-Methods, Section 4.5.2 for Coding description). As noted previously, there were nine coding measures used in this study, namely: elaborative clauses, negotiation moves, disagreements, recasts, completing peer utterances, word count, time on task, turn count and backchannels.

The task engagement frequency scores from these coding measures are summarised in Table 5.3. Note that the frequency counts for Task #1 and #2 and Task #11 and #12 were combined since the tasks were of a similar type.

Table 5.3

Frequency analysis of coding measures

Coding measures	Frequency (Sum)			Frequency per task		Frequency per gender pairing			Frequency per proficiency level		
	N	Frequency	Mean	Task #1	Task #2	Male-Male	Male-Female	Female-Female	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
No of participants		72 (Sum/72)		72	72	24	24	24	24	24	24
1. Elaborative clauses	72	424	5.889	211	213	163	127	134	95	175	154
2. Negotiation moves	72	235	3.264	130	105	98	60	77	47	64	124
3. Disagreements	72	35	.486	29	6	11	9	15	9	13	13
5. Recasts	72	160	2.222	94	66	80	43	37	55	52	53
4. Completing peer utterances	72	43	.597	28	15	14	12	17	16	15	12
8. Word count	72	22,882	290.028	10,188	10,994	8,118	6,538	6,226	6,773	6,679	7,430
9. Time on task	72	59,228	822.611	29,068	30,160	22,698	19,180	17,350	22,598	17,280	19,350
7. Turn count	72	933	25.917	1,112	754	772	550	544	566	572	728
6. Back-channelling	72	406	5.639	211	195	185	127	102	136	110	160

Note: N = Number of cases

Mean = Average

The analysis of each of the nine coding schemes is presented in the following subsections to reveal the level of participants' engagement in the four tasks. The data are presented in the following order for each of the nine coding schemes: First, a definition of the coding scheme is presented with a brief recount of how it is measured, followed by excerpts from the transcripts to provide examples of the coded features. Next, a frequency distribution histogram is used to portray the spread, the range and averages of the scores. The histogram is overlaid with an imaginary normal curve to illustrate the

variance of spread (in terms of skewedness). Lastly, a bar chart comparing participants' engagement scores in terms of task type and sequence, paired gender group, and proficiency levels, is presented.

5.2.1 Elaborative clauses

An elaborative clause [elaborate] is indicated by a clause that is immediately succeeded by another clause by the same speaker, and with the content expanded by way of a suggestion, proposition, elaboration, reason, and opinion. A rephrase or use of synonymous words without expansion of semantic content is not considered to be an elaborative clause.

Examples of elaborative clauses from the current data are as follows.

Task #1 Spot the difference (Dyad no 30, proficiency level 3, both male)

Male #1: Do you have a mirror?

Male #2: Mirror? Yes, I have! *But what kind of shape is your mirror?* ^[elaborate1]

Male #1: My mirror is a square.

Male #2: Oh square. I'm rectangle. uh... *We have a different mirror.* ^[elaborate2] Okay, Do you have a microwave?

Male #1: No I don't have.

Male #2: Oh. I have microwave... in my room and... how about chair?

Male #1: Yes. I have chair

Male #2: What... colour you chair?

Male #1: My chair is silver.

Male #2: Silver. Oh. *We have a same.* ^[elaborate3] How about carpet? Do you have a carpet on you room?

Male #1: No, I don't.

Task #2 Spot the difference (Dyad no 30, proficiency level 3, both male)

Male #2: What colour your wall?

Male #1: My wall is green.

Male #2: Oh it's green. *I have an orange wall.* ^[elaborate4] How about ceiling?

Male #1: My ceiling is brown.

Male #2: Oh . I have a white one. Okay! Uhm.. *My dorm have a sink for wash my hand, how about you?* ^[elaborate5]

Male #1: Yes. I have

Male #2: Oh the same. Okay. Green cupboard, do you have?

Male #1: Yes. I have.

Male #2: Uh, it's okay, *I think we have the same cupboard.* ^[elaborate6] Do you have

armchair?

Male #1: Armchair? Yes I have. *My with the colour silver.*^[elaborate7]

Male #2: Oh. My armchair is green

Male #1: Okay.

Task #12 Opinion Task (Dyad no 15, proficiency level 2, both male)

Male #1: Oh, for candidate one he can join in company C, because in... on... in company C... we have international colleagues and higher wage and easy to quit, *because you want short contract and try different thing right?*^[elaborate]

Male #2: Yes right, because I think you want.... and the second candidate she like to hang out and colleagues and meet new people but she don't like to commitment

Male #1: For the second candidate she can join to company A, because in company A we have long term contract, travel and retirement plan, *because she like to hang out with colleagues, sure?*^[elaborate2]

Male #2: Yes sure!

Male #1: Okay and third candidate what do you want?

Male #2: The third candidate want to have a career working in an office good salary and good pension, what do you think?

Male #1: Okay for candidate three I have a company B, in company B we have a carrier advancement, and the second good colleagues and employment assistants, *because I think you can join our company because your abilities...*^[elaborate3]

Male #2: Yeah!

Male #1: Because your abilities have ... have a ... have a ... have a carrier advancement and good colleges and employment assistant *so you can join to company B.*^[elaborate4]

Male #2: Huh!

Male #1: Thank you to our groups seven and God bless us

The following examples attempt to clarify the coding system, by differentiating between an elaborative clause [elaborate] and a recast [recast]. The major difference between a recast and an elaborative clause is that a recast only repeats the same idea (but in a more correct form), while an elaborative clause expands the first idea. (Recasts are elaborated upon separately in the subsection on 5) Recasts below).

Task #2 Spot the difference (Dyad no 30, proficiency level 3, both male)

Male #2: What dorm is yours?

Male #2: I'm dorm A. *How about you?*^[recast]

Male #1: Mine is dorm B

Male #2: Oh, I'm a lavender in dorm A. *How about you?*^[elaborate]

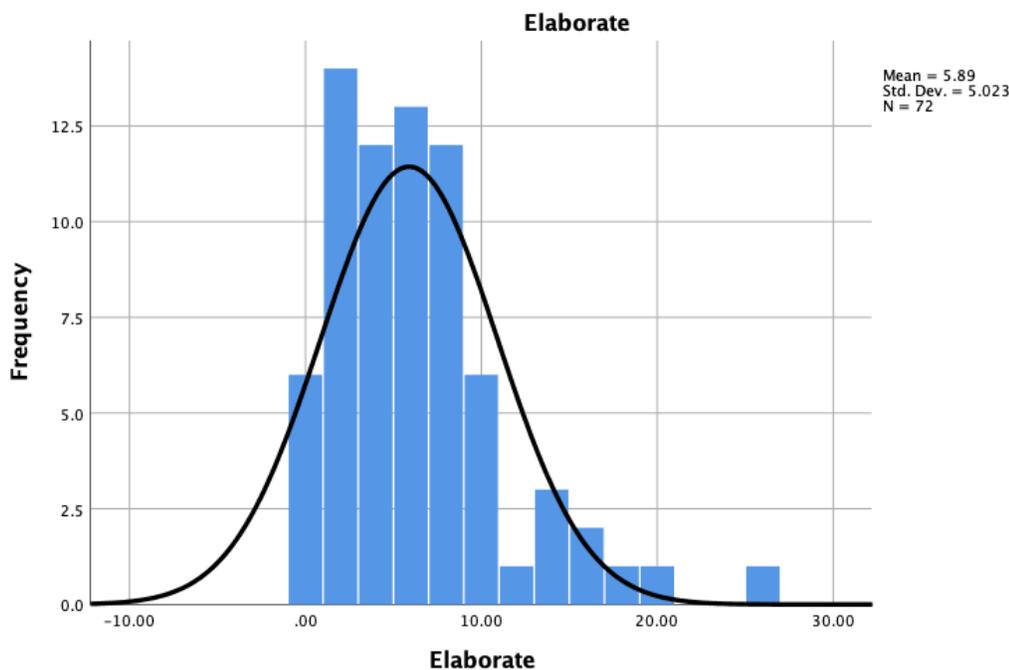
Male #1: Lilac.

Male #2: Okay Lilac. Okay. How long do you live in your dorm?
 Male #2: *Since first time you enter this dorm, how long until now?* [recast2]
 Male #1: I've been living here for three months
 Male #2: Three months okay.
 Male #1: In your dorm, what colour is the floor?
 Male #2: Floor in my dorm?
 Male #2: In my dorm, *my colour of my floor is I think is white.* I guess... yup white.
 [recast3]
 Male #1: Oh same one. *I have white floor.* [elaborate2]

The following figures are used to portray the frequency of elaborative clause. Figure 5.1 illustrates the frequency of elaborative clauses produced by the 72 participants in the four tasks in the form of a histogram with an imaginary normal curve. Figure 5.2 provides a comparison of elaborative clauses used in terms of task type, gender pairing and proficiency levels.

Figure 5.1

A histogram of frequency of elaborative clauses.



The histogram in Figure 5.1 is skewed to the right (i.e., where peak is on the left of centre, with a longer hand gradually tapering to the right side; Doane & Seward, 2011) and shows that the majority of the bars in the diagram are placed between a value of zero to ten on the x-axis. This means that the

majority of participants generated a total of no more than ten elaborative clauses over the four tasks, with only nine participants producing more than ten. The histogram also shows that in all four tasks, the participants' highest score is 25 and the mean score is 5.89 ($SD = 5.29$), meaning that the participants were averaging around less than one and a half elaborative clauses per task.

Figure 5.2

Frequency of elaborative clauses in terms of task types, gender pairings and proficiency levels

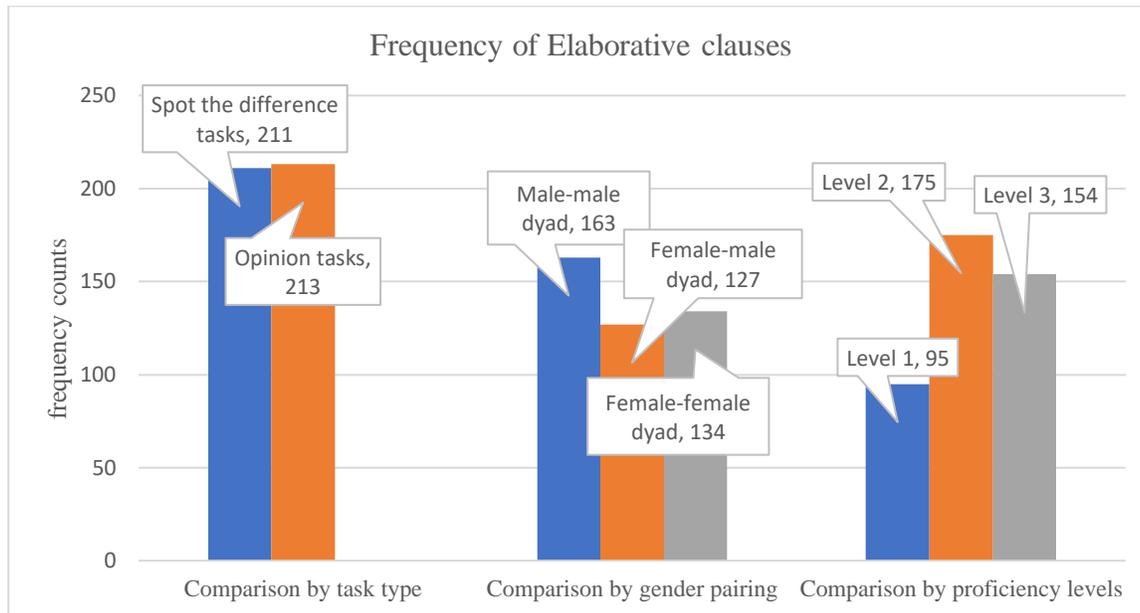


Figure 5.2 shows that there is little difference between the number of elaborative clauses produced for spot the difference and the opinion tasks, with a frequency of 211 and 213 respectively. This was confirmed by a paired differences analysis on a t-test (using the statistical IBM SPSS 26.0 computer program), which found that the difference is not significant, $t(71) = -0.07$, $p = .949$. When compared in terms of paired gender dyads, the frequency counts for each paired gender group were 163 for the all-male group, 127 for the male-female group, and 134 for the all-female group (total = 423 elaborate clauses). When compared in terms of proficiency levels, the analysis showed more dispersed results. For instance, the frequency of elaborative clauses produced by each group varied from 95 for Level 1, 175 for Level 2, and 154 for Level 3 (total = 423 elaborate). However, a one-way ANOVA test using a statistical program IBM SPSS 26.0 showed that the differences in terms of both gender pairing $F(2,71) = 0.6$, $p = 0.554$ and proficiency levels, $F(2,71) = 3.00$, $p = 0.056$ were not significant.

5.2.2 Negotiation moves

Negotiation moves [designated in the transcript as ‘negotiate’] are defined as moves within interactions which are used to help overcome communication breakdowns and provide opportunity to focus on linguistic form. In this study three types of negotiation moves are investigated, namely: 1) clarification requests, 2) confirmation checks, and 3) comprehension checks. Recasts, which are usually classified as part of negotiation moves, are coded separately in this study (see analysis in subsection on 5) Recasts below).

Examples of negotiation moves [negotiate] in the spot the difference task are follows.

Task #1 Spot the difference (Dyad no 05, proficiency level 1, both male).

Male #1: Mmm, now in your house what you have?

Male #2: In my room I have a three pillows and one towel one face one mirror and one chair peat and one fan and one chair and one table and one radio

Male #1: I don't have carpet in my house and I don't have vase and ... and I don't have a towel... eh, I have I have a towel mmm in my ...ah just it. In your house what you don't have in my house?

Male #2: In my room, I don't have ... dustbin, *I don't have a kettle?* I don't have,,,
[negotiate]

Male #1: Okay, I tell again in my house I have a... mirror, towel, dustbin, and kettle fan chairs and one table, *and I have one bed, okay?*[negotiate2] and *I don't have in your .. okay?* [negotiate3]

Male #2: In my room again I have a window and I have antique I have desk I have a pillow I have a door handle and I have arm...armch... and armchair, and your house what you have?

Male #1: In ... in my room I have cupboard I have sink I have wall I have ceiling I have dish I have table I have chair, I have floor and I have one sofa

Task #11 Opinion Task (Dyad no 21, proficiency level 2, both female).

Female #1: What the future careers they can ... do, or they can... get?

Female #2: This have a seven

Female #1: Job

Female #2: Job. I think uhm.. Aiden is...

Female #1: *Aiden...?* [negotiate]

Female #2: Is good. I think Aiden is good to be?

Female #1: *Is good to be what?* uhmm [negotiate2]

Female #2: Artist!

Female #1: *So Aiden is good to be an artist?*[negotiate3]

Female #2: Is good to be artist!

Female #1: At school... art school diploma! Ok, so the second is Melinda, what the job she?

Female #2: Melinda is good to be?

Female #1: Melinda is smart, good communication skill, like to study in university,.. So what's the job good for her?

Female #2: I think Melinda is to good to be a writer!

Female #1: *Writer?* [negotiate5]

Female #2: Yes. Writer is must have a university qualification and Melinda have it

Female #1: Ok, the last person Phoebe, strong and flexible, slim, strong CV in sports, prefer vocational school.

Female #2: Uhhh, ok I think... uhhh, Phoebe is good to be shopkeeper because she...

Female #1: Strong and flexible.

Female #2: Ok yes, strong and flexible and she prefer vocational schoo

Female #1: Ok but I think, Aiden is good to be uhhh.. *comedian maybe?* [negotiate6]

Female #2: *Why?* [negotiate5]

Female #1: She's umm an artist has an excellent taste in art, music, and humour.

Female #2: Ok!

Female #1: I think comedian, maybe short-term contract.

Female #2: Uhhh.. Okay

Female #1: Yes I think it's a good for Aiden. Ok finish!

The following example attempts to clarify the coding system by differentiating between negotiation moves [negotiate] and completing peer utterances [designated in the transcript as 'complete']. In a negotiation move, the intention of the partner is to ask for clarification, comprehension, and to confirm what the interlocutor has said without providing a new opinion or word, while in completing a peer utterance the partner helps to complete the utterance on the interlocutor's behalf by speculating what they intended to say.

Task #2 Spot the difference (Dyad no 05, proficiency level 1, both male).

Male #2: In your house and ... I'm not have... in your house *I don't have a ceiling I don't have* [negotiate]... I have a wall... yes I have a wall. [negotiate2]

Male #1: I have a sofa but you..

Male #2: *I don't have* [complete]

Male #1: *You don't have.* [negotiate3]

Male #2: I have...

Male #1: I don't have a window

Male #2: I have ...

Male #1: I have don't wall.

Male #2: I have a dish... *I have a dish...*^[negotiate4] I have a dish and I have a sink.

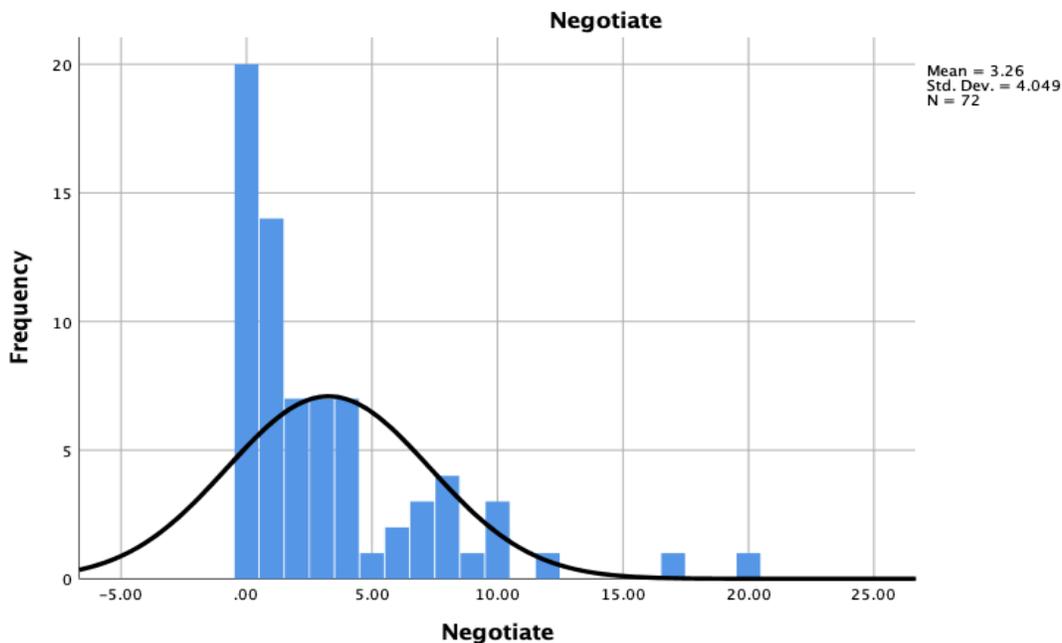
Male #1: I don't have a door handle but you have.

Male #2: I don't have one in your home just ceiling *I have in your I have a dish I have dish*^[negotiate5] I have a wall I have a door in here I have a sink and I have antique and I have a desk in my house you don't have just two, just window and door handle.

The following figures are used to portray the frequency of negotiation moves. Figure 5.3 illustrates the frequency of negotiation moves produced by the 72 participants in the four tasks in the form of a histogram with an imaginary normal curve. Figure 5.4 compares the frequency of negotiation moves in terms of task type, gender pairing and proficiency levels.

Figure 5.3

A histogram of frequency of negotiation moves.



Like the histogram in Figure 5.1, the histogram in Figure 5.3 is also skewed to the right, which shows that the majority of the bars in the diagram are placed between a value of zero to ten on the x-axis, with another smaller cluster placed on the right, between the values of five to ten. This means that the majority of participants generated less than five negotiation moves across the four tasks, although some produced five to ten, and only a fraction (three participants) produced more than ten negotiation moves. The histogram also shows that the maximum score for all tasks was twenty, with a mean score of 3.26

($SD = 4.05$) in all four tasks. This implies that on average less than one negotiation move was produced by participants in a single task.

Figure 5.4

Frequency of negotiation moves in terms of task type, gender pairing and proficiency levels

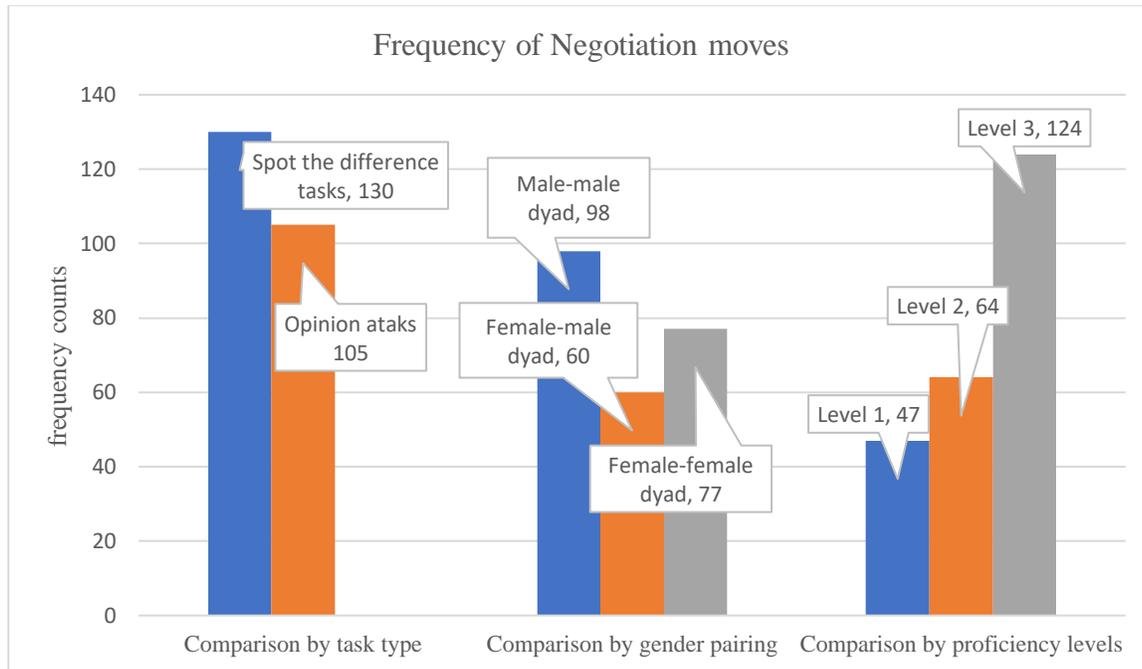


Figure 5.4 shows that participants used more negotiation moves in the two spot the difference tasks (= 130 negotiate) than in the two opinion tasks (= 105 negotiate). However, a paired differences analysis on a t-test found that the difference is not significant, $t(71) = 0.81$, $p = .418$. Therefore, it can be surmised that the type of task, did not make much difference in terms of negotiation moves used.

A comparison in terms of paired gender dyads and English proficiency levels produced mixed results. For example, the frequency counts for the paired gender groups were 98 for the all-male dyads, 60 for the male-female dyads, and 77 for the Female-female dyads (total = 235 negotiate moves. Nevertheless a one-way ANOVA test showed that the difference was not significant, $F(2,71) = 0.919$, $p = .404$. However, when analysed in terms of proficiency levels, the analysis shows that the negotiation moves produced by the three proficiency groups differed quite notably. For instance, the frequency counts for the different proficiency groups were 47 for Level 1, 64 for Level 2, and 124 for Level 3 (total = 235 negotiate moves). When examined using a one-way ANOVA, the difference was found to be significant, $F(2,71) = 4.578$, $p = .014$. The results thus suggest that the frequency of negotiation moves

produced may be dependent upon participants' proficiency levels. For example, the participants with a higher level of proficiency (Level 3) generated considerably more negotiation moves than those with lower proficiency levels.

5.2.3 Disagreements

Disagreement [i.e., labelled 'disagree'] is when a negative response to a proposition (or positive response to a negative statement), often followed by justification, is given. It reflects reasoning and exemplification. Examples from the current data of disagreement [disagree] in a spot the difference (Task #1) and opinion task (Task #12) are as follows.

Task #1 Spot the difference (Dyad no 03, proficiency level 1, male and female).

Male: This is my room... my room have a mirror, and you have a mirror?

Female: Yes, I have. And you have pillow?

Male: Yes, I have a pillow but my pillow uh.. white. And you?

Female: Blue!

Male: Uh, I have a towel. Can you have a towel?

Female: I not have

Male: Can I have... vase?

Female: Not I'm not vase.

Male: *I'm sorry, you have a towel.* This is towel. [disagree1]

Female: But your towel is a ...

Male: *Bad?* [complete]

Female: And, I'm not have a fan!

Male: *And you have a fan.* This is a fan in my room. [disagree2]

Female: Yes, I have!

Male: And a dustbin?

Female: No. You have chair?

Male: Yes I have. This is my chair.

Task #12 Opinion task (Dyad no 21, proficiency level 2, both female).

Female #1: Ok, what's the career...

Female #2: I think candidate one to be...

Female #1: Good for a company... wants a short contract and try different things and learn other cultures.

Female #2: So I think it's good to...

Female #1: What's company?

Female #2: Is good to be company ...?

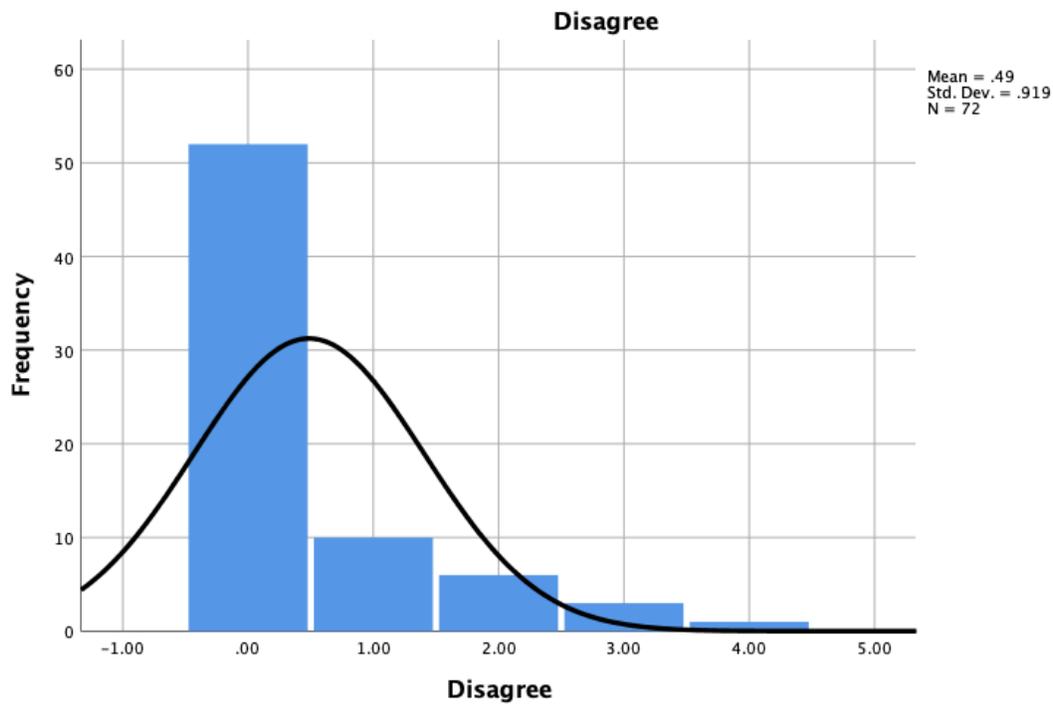
Female #1: B?

Female #2: Yes, company B
 Female #1: *But company B doesn't have a short contract!* [disagree1]
 Female #2: Yes...
 Female #1: And, how about candidate two?
 Female #2: Candidate two.
 Female #1: She likes to hang out with colleagues and meet new people but don't like commitment.
 Female #2: Uhhh, company A I think its good because she likes to hang out and company A, company A have travel...
 Female #1: *But she doesn't like commitment!* [disagree2]
 Female #2: Commitment, yes..
 Female #1: Okay next the last candidate, candidate three
 Female #2: Candidate three.
 Female #1: Wants to have a career working in an office, good salary, and good pension.
 Female #2: Maybe its good for company C?
 Female #1: C or?
 Female #2: No! because
 Female #1: I think company C right?
 Female #2: Oh yes, company C.
 Female #1: He' wants to good salary and company C higher wage
 Female #2: Ok.

The following figures are used to portray the frequency of disagreements. Figure 5.5 illustrates the frequency of disagreements produced by the 72 participants in the four tasks in the form of a histogram overlaid with an imaginary normal curve. Next, Figure 5.6 compares the frequency of disagreements in terms of task type, gender pairing and proficiency levels.

Figure 5.5

A histogram of frequency of disagreement.



This histogram in Figure 5.5. is also skewed-to-the-right and shows that the majority of the bars in the diagram are placed on the zero point on the x-axis, meaning that the majority of participants did not generate any disagreements. Only 20 out of the 72 participants produced disagreements, with a maximum point of four. The mean for all four tasks was 0.49 ($SD = 0.92$). This suggests a very low production of disagreements in the four tasks.

Figure 5.6

Frequency of disagreement in terms of task type, gender pairing and proficiency levels

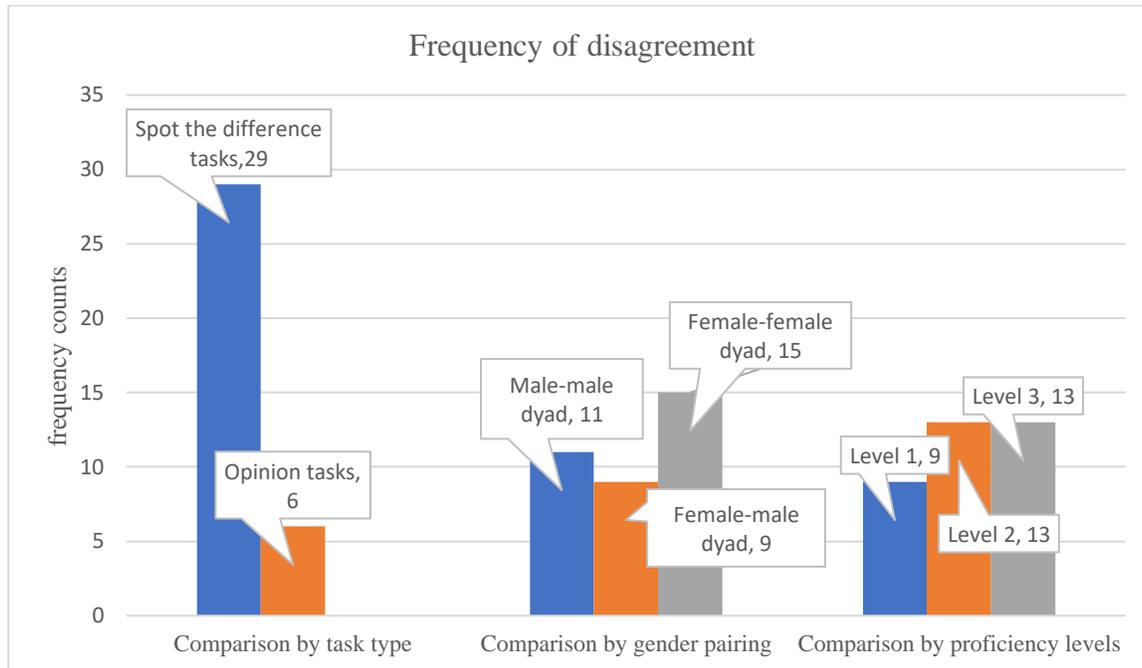


Figure 5.6 shows that spot the difference tasks produced considerably more disagreements (= 29 disagree) than opinion tasks (= 6 disagree). This was confirmed by a paired differences analysis on a *t*-test, which found that the difference is significant $t(71) = 3.72, p < .001$. Therefore, it can be surmised that the type of task makes a difference in terms of disagreements, as shown by those generated by the current participants, where spot the difference tasks resulted in more disagreements than opinion tasks. When compared in terms of gender and proficiency levels, the results showed little difference. The frequency counts for paired gender groups were 11 for the all-male dyads, 9 for the male-female dyads, and 15 for the all-female dyads (total = 35 disagreements). Analysed in terms of proficiency, the frequency counts were nine for the lower level (Level 1), and 13 for both Levels 2 and 3. A one-way ANOVA test confirmed that the difference was not significant for either gender, $F(2,71) = 0.453, p = .637$, or proficiency levels, $F(2,71) = 0.258, p = .774$.

5.2.4 Recasts

While recasts can be classified as part of negotiation moves, recasts [recast] in this study, were given a specific coding, namely, they were coded as the unrequested reiteration of part or a whole utterance, or a rephrase of an utterance used for both self-correction and as a provision of social scaffolding in the partner's reception toward a more correct form. Examples of recasts are as follows.

Task #1 Spot the difference task (Dyad no 17, proficiency level 2, both male).

Male #1: Do you have mirror in your bedroom?

Male #2: Mmm, I not have

Male #1: Mirror ... *you don't have mirror?*^[recast1]

Male #2: Oh, I have, ... *yah, I have* ^[recast2]

Male #1: How, how about fan? Do you have fan in your bedroom?

Male #2: Mmm ...

Male #1: Fan... *fan!* ^[recast3]

Male #2: I have fan fan in my bedroom.

Male #1: Are they small or big

Male #2: Aaa... small, *I think small* ^[recast4]

Male #1: Do you have dustbin?

Male #2: Uuh, I not have

Male #1: What shape... is your shape is your mirror?

Male #2: Hmm little? Eh... circle! *My mirror circle.* ^[recast5]

Male #1: Do you have kettle in your bedroom?

Male #2: Mmm I not have. *I not have.* ^[recast6]

Male #1: So... how many

Male #2: Ah, thanks thank you thank you

Task #11 Opinion task (Dyad no 36, proficiency level 3, both female).

Female #1: Phoebe is a strong and flexible, slim, strong CV in sport, prefer vocational school, and the job match for phoebe is ... Sport..

Female #2: Mmm maybe... shop keeper?

Female #1: Strong and flexible, slim, strong CV in sport

Female #2: Maybe will be.... detective.. Vocational school... *yeah, vocational school* ^[recast]

Female #1: Phoebe is a detective. Phoebe is matches. And next Melinda, Melinda is a smart, good communication skill, like to study in university.

Female #2: Newsagent..? Oh.. Study in university... smart, good communication.

Female #1: Melinda smart, *good communication skill,* ^[recast2] Writer..?

Female #2: *She will be the writer?* ^[recast3]

Female #1: Writer!

Female #1: Yes! Ok.. Melinda match... writer, will be writer. ^[recast4] Next Aiden. Aiden an artist, has an excellent taste ... in music and humour ... don't like to be employed! *He doesn't like to be employed.* ^[recast5] Maybe....

Female #2: Singer..

Female #1: Emm!

Female #2: An artist...!

Female #1: Hm ...

Female #2: And now.

Female #1: What?

Female #2: Finally.

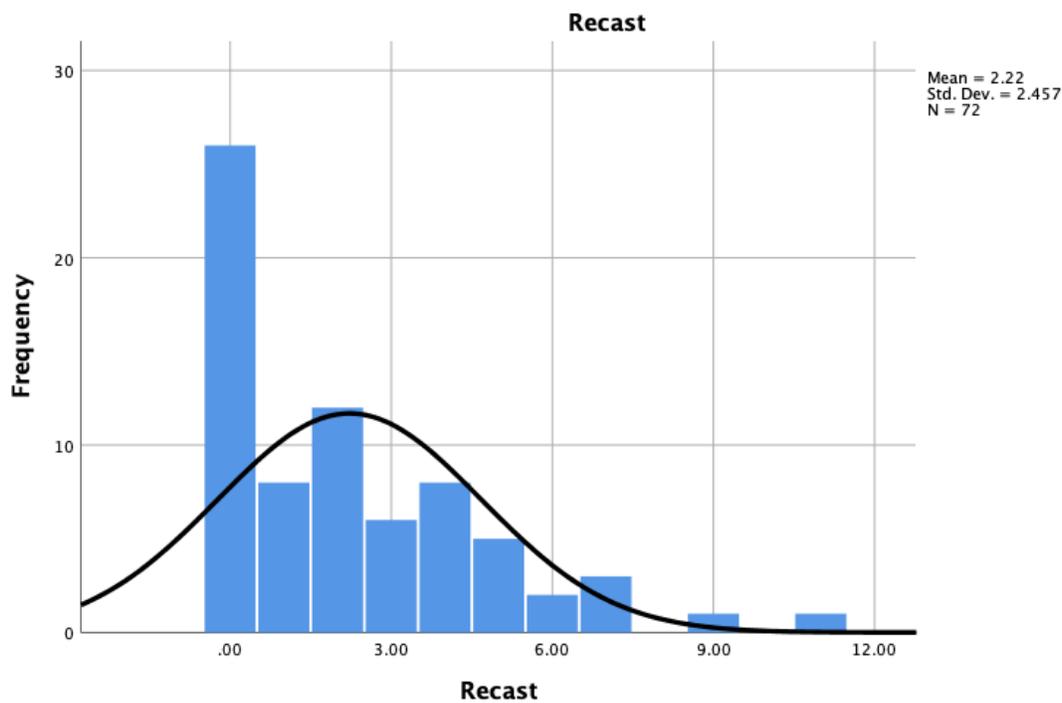
Female #1: Ok. Phoebe is a detective.. Has done ... detective right?

Female #2: *Phoebe is a detective*^[recast6], Melinda is writer, and Aiden is an artist

The following figures are used to portray the frequency of disagreements. Figure 5.7 illustrates the frequency of recasts generated by the 72 participants in the four tasks in the form of a histogram with an imaginary normal curve. Next, Figure 5.8 compares the frequency of recasts in terms of task type, gender pairing and proficiency levels.

Figure 5.7

A histogram of frequency of recasts.



Even though the histogram in Figure 5.7 is also skewed-to-the-right, there is greater variation of distribution compared to other frequency histograms. It shows that the majority of the bars in the diagram are placed between a value of zero and seven on the x-axis. This means that the majority of participants generated seven or less recasts for all tasks. The histogram also reveals that only five participants produced more than seven recasts. The maximum score was eleven, with 2.22 as the mean. It shows that on average, participants produced less than one recast per task ($M = 0.56$, $SD 2.46$). This suggests a low production of recasts.

Figure 5.8

Frequency of recasts in terms of task type, gender pairing and proficiency levels

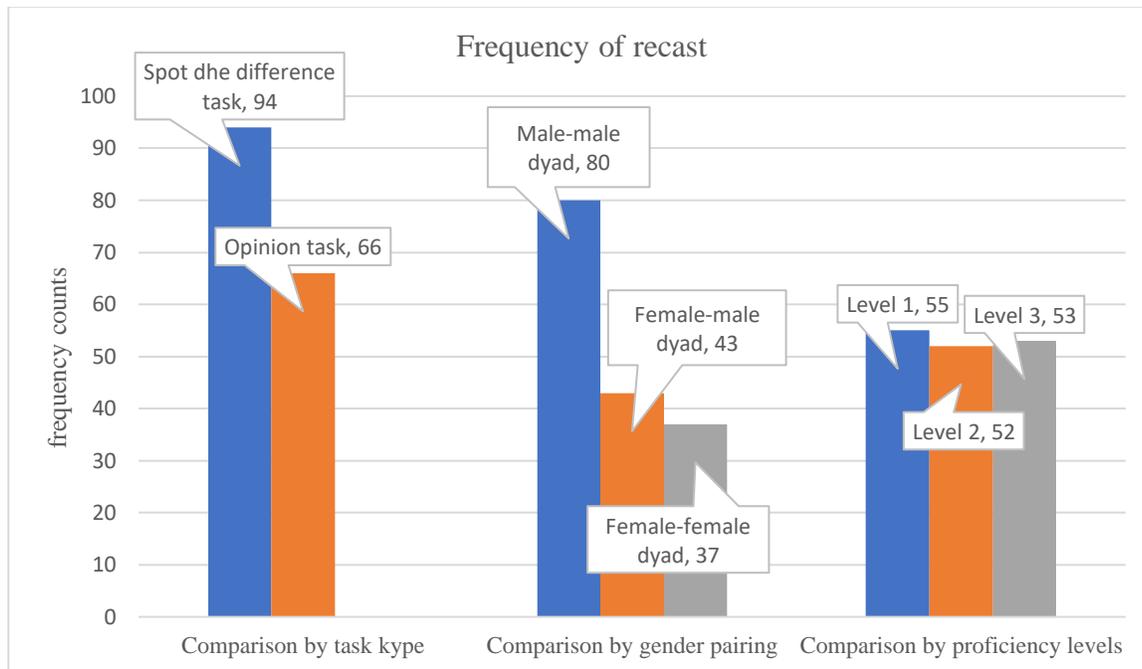


Figure 5.8 shows that in spot the difference tasks more recasts were produced (= 94 recast) than in opinion tasks (= 66 recast). However, a paired differences analysis on a t-test found that the difference is not significant, $t(71) = 0.39$, $p = .137$. Therefore, it can be surmised that the type of task in sequence did not make much difference in terms of recasts. A comparison in terms of paired gender groups and English proficiency levels produced mixed results. For instance, the frequency counts for paired gender groups were 80 for the all-male dyads, 43 for the male-female dyads, and 37 for the all-female dyads (total = 160 recast). Due to its uneven spread, a one-way ANOVA test was performed which found that the difference is significant, $(F(2,71) = 4.068$, $p = .021)$. However, when compared in terms of the

three proficiency levels, the frequency of recasts used by each group differed only slightly. The frequency counts for each group were 55 for Level 1, 52 for Level 2, and 53 for Level 3 (total = 160 recasts). When treated using a one-way ANOVA test, however, the difference in this case was found to be not significant, $F(2,71) = 0.02$, $p = .984$.

5.2.5 Completing peer utterances

In this study, completing peer utterances [complete] included all intelligent responses when a partner got stuck and seemed to be looking for the correct words to use. Examples of completing peer utterances are as follows:

Task #1 Spot the difference task (Dyad no 11, proficiency level 1, male and female)

Male: Student B have a kettle while student A doesn't have... I think just it and ... student A and B both have towel, mirror, chair

Female: Chair!

Male: Student A have a carpet but student B doesn't have ...

Female: And then student B doesn't have pillow but student A have...

Male: A pillow!^[complete1]

Female: Have a pillow? what about vase? Student B doesn't have.

Male: Student B doesn't have, but ...

Female: *But student A...* ^[complete2]

Male: But I have a kettle. My bedroom I don't have a kettle and I don't have fan.

Female: Yes!

Male: In my dorm I don't have, I have vase but you doesn't have vase.

Female: Yes.

Male: And I have carpet but you doesn't have a...

Female: I have a carpet so we'll compare to my partner room dorm B or student B doesn't have carpet maybe I have vase in my dorm but my friend dorm doesn't have

Male: I have a mirror towel dustbin kettle and fan, mmm... in dorm B, dorm A you doesn't have dustbin, maybe kettle but you have vase carpet, I think?

Female: *Pillow!* ^[complete3]

Male: Oh you have pillow I doesn't have.

Female: Yes so our dorm so many different

Male: Yes many different to our...

Female: *Our furniture* ^[complete4]

Male: I think, that's all.

Female: Time is finish.

Task #12 Opinion task (Dyad no 24, proficiency level 2, both female).

Female #1: And company C?

Female #2: Company C has international colleagues, higher wage and easy to quit

Female #1: Ok... So, candidate one ...

Female #2: *Are suitable...* ^[complete]

Female #1: Suitable?

Female #2: Suitable!

Female #1: With company...

Female #2: *With company B.* ^[complete2] Because candidate one wants a short contract and try different things and learn other cultures.

Female #1: And candidate two?

Female #2: Candidate two suitable with company A because he likes to hang out with colleagues and Company A has... company A has travel.

Female #1: And, candidate three?

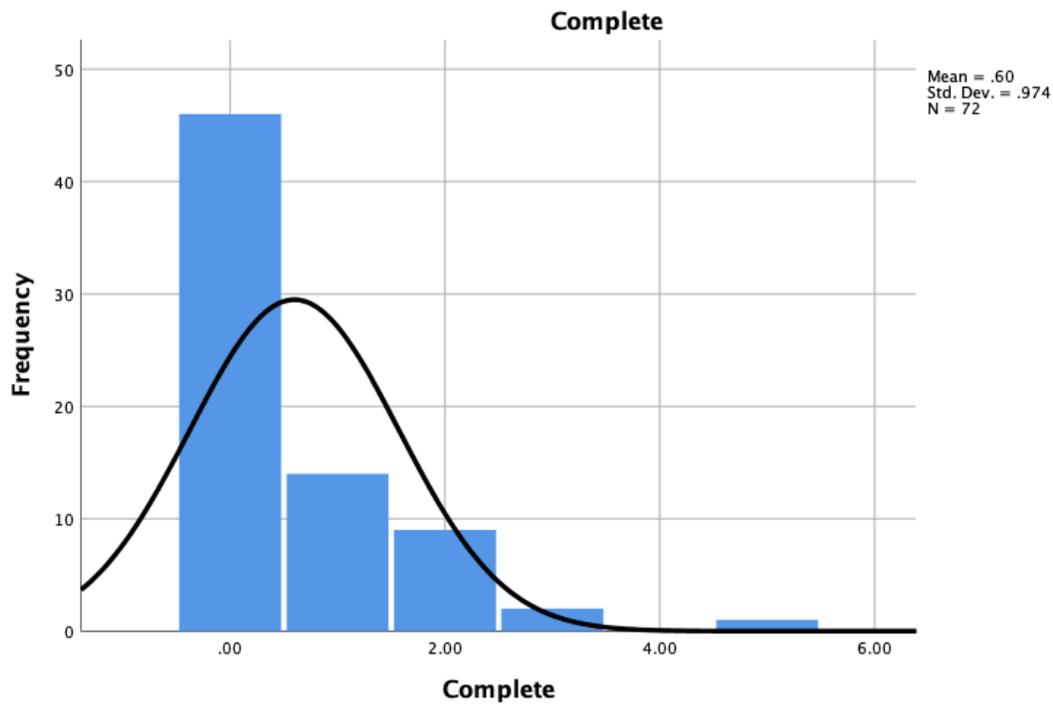
Female #2: Candidate three is suitable with company C because he has career working in an office with good salary and good pension

Female #1: And company C ... company C has international colleagues, higher wage and easy to quit.

The following figures are used to portray the frequency of completing peer utterances. Figure 5.9 illustrates the frequency of completing peer utterances in the form of a histogram with an imaginary normal curve. Figure 5.10 compares the frequency of completing peer utterances in terms of task type, gender pairing and proficiency levels.

Figure 5.9

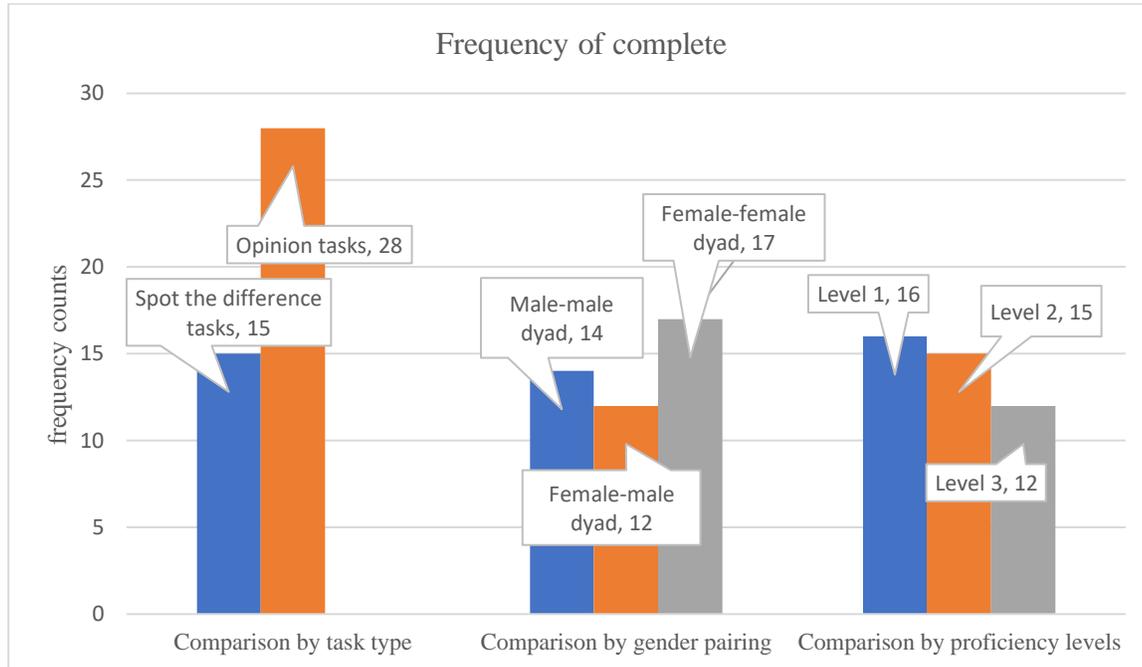
A histogram of frequency of completing peer utterances.



As with the previous histograms, the histogram in Figure 5.9 is also skewed-to-the-right. It shows that the majority of the bars in the diagram are placed between a value of zero and two on the x-axis. This means that the majority of participants completed two or fewer peer utterances. In fact, only five participants completed more than two peer utterances. The histogram also reveals that the maximum score was five, with 0.60 as the mean in all four tasks ($SD = .97$). This suggests a very low production rate of completing peer utterances, which is just slightly higher than that of disagreement.

Figure 5.10

Frequency of completing peer utterances in terms of task type, gender pairing and proficiency levels



When comparing the frequency of completing peer utterances between spot the difference and opinion tasks, Figure 5.10 shows that the latter resulted in more of such moves (= 28 complete) than the former (=15 complete). However, a paired differences analysis on a t-test found that the difference is not significant, $t(71) = 0.273$, $p = .762$. A comparison in terms of gender and proficiency levels showed similar results. For instance, the frequency count for each paired gender group was 14 for the all-male dyads, 15 for the male-female dyads, and 17 for the all-female dyads (total = 43 complete peer utterances). Similarly, the frequency counts for each group were 16 for Level 1, 15 for Level 2, and 12 for Level 3 (total = 43 complete). This was confirmed by a one-way ANOVA test, which showed that the difference for both paired gender groups ($F(2,71) = 0.273$, $p = .762$) and proficiency levels was not significant ($F(2,71) = 0.186$, $p = .831$).

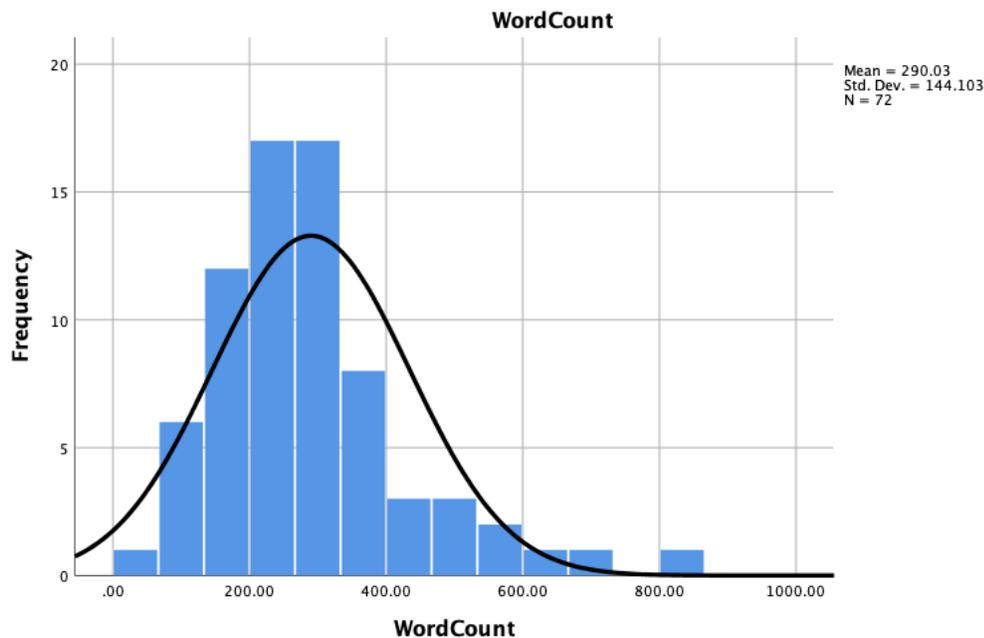
5.2.6 Word Counts

The amount of words in a dialogue task denotes behavioural measures of engagement, particularly effort, persistence, and involvement. In this study, contracted words were counted as a different word, and each morpheme that carried meaning was also counted as a word (i.e., shortened words, naming, and meaningful non-words used for backchannelling).

The following figures are used to portray the frequency of words. Figure 5.11 illustrates the number of words generated by 72 participants in the four tasks in the form of a histogram with an imaginary normal curve. Figure 5.12 compares the number of words in terms of task type, gender pairing and proficiency levels.

Figure 5.11

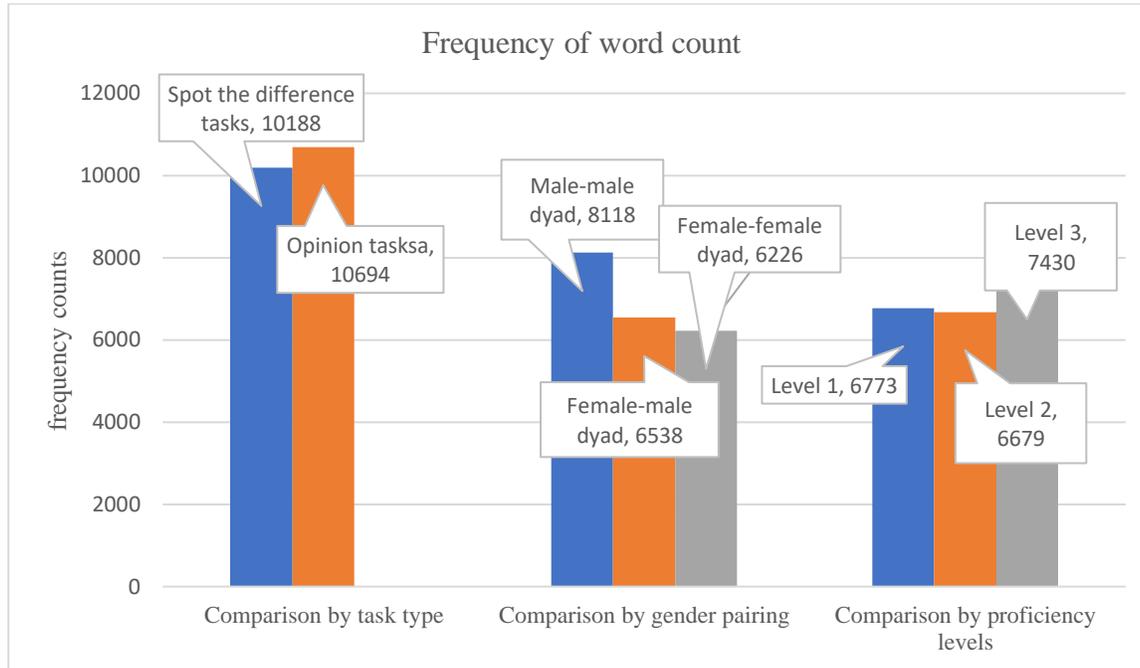
A histogram of frequency of words



The histogram in Figure 5.11 shows a fairly balanced bell curve culminating at around 200 points with a mean score of 290.028 ($SD = 144.1$) and ranging from 50 to 850 words. The frequency analysis showed that overall there were 20,882 words in all six tasks (see Table 5.3). Therefore, an average dyad would produce just over five thousand words in all four tasks ($M = 5,220$ wordcount per dyad).

Figure 5.12

Frequency of word count in terms of task type, gender pairing and proficiency levels



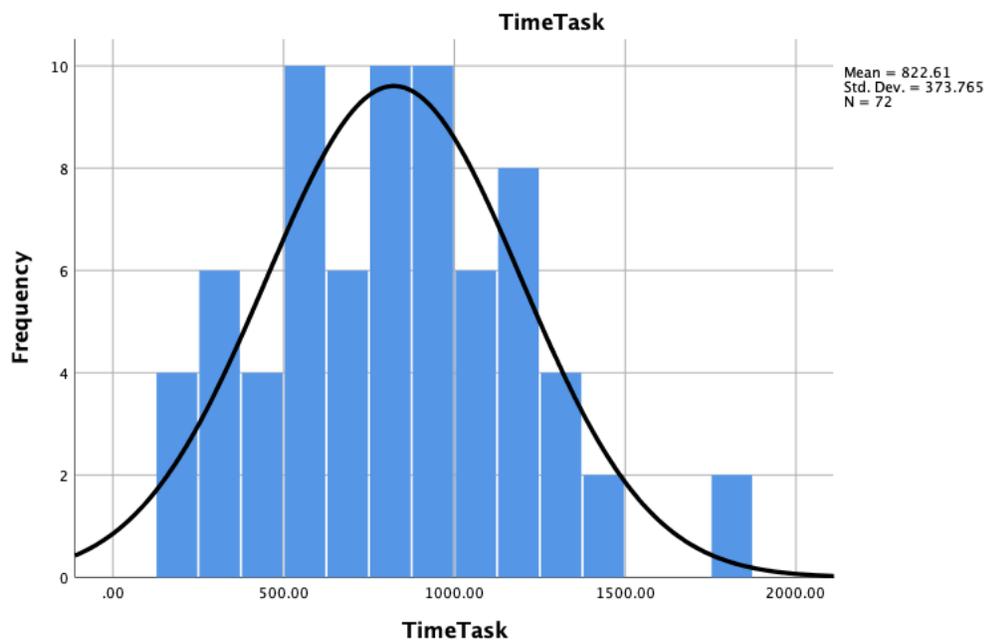
When compared in terms of task type, Figure 5.16 shows that the word counts were evenly distributed with slightly less than half in the spot the difference tasks, and slightly more than half of the words in the opinion tasks. Using a paired differences analysis on a t-test it was found that the difference is not significant, $t(71) = -0.57$, $p = .57$). A comparison in terms of gender shows that the frequency counts for each paired gender group were 8,118 for the all-male dyads, 6,538 for the male-female dyads, and 6,226 for the all-female dyads (total = 20,882 words). When compared in terms of proficiency levels, the participants in middle proficiency level group (Level 2) generated fewer turns than the groups with the lowest and the highest proficiency level. Specifically, the frequency counts for each group from were 6,773 for Level 1, 6,679 for Level 2, and 7,430 for Level 3 (total = 20,882 words). However, when treated using a one-way ANOVA test, the differences in terms of gender pairing ($F(2,71) = 2.13$, $p = .127$) and proficiency levels ($F(2,71) = 0.33$, $p = .72$) were found not to be significant.

5.2.7 Time on task

The amount of time spent in performing a dialogue task [timetask] may also denote behavioural measures of engagement, reflecting involvement or persistence in learning. In this study, time on task [timetask] was calculated in seconds captured from the start to the end of the task interaction.

The following figures are used to portray the frequency of time spend on task (seconds). Figure 5.13 illustrates the amount of time used by the 72 participants to complete the four tasks, in the form of a histogram with a normal curve. Next, Figure 5.14 compares the amount of time on task in terms of task type, gender pairing and proficiency levels.

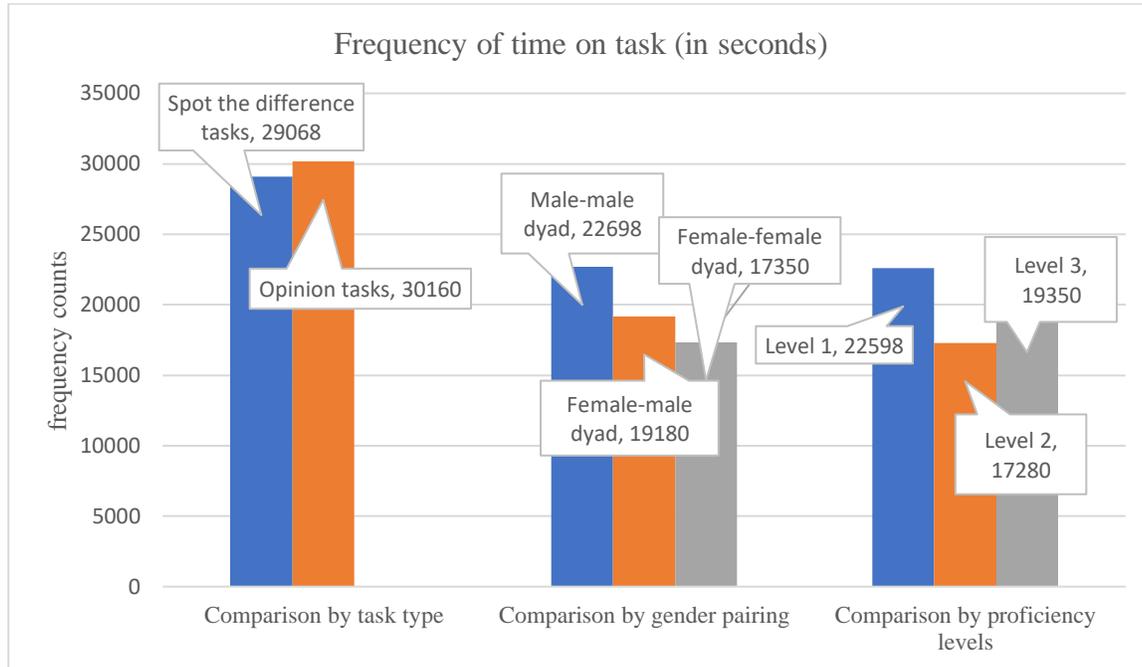
Figure 5.13 A histogram of the frequency of time on task (seconds)



The histogram in Figure 5.13 shows a fairly balanced bell curve culminating with 800 seconds ($M = 822.611$, $SD = 373.77$), ranging from around 150 to 1,800 seconds. The frequency analysis showed that overall it took 59,228 seconds to complete all tasks (see Table 5.3). Therefore, an average dyad would spend about 27 minutes on all four tasks, or a slightly less than seven minutes per task ($X = 14,807$ seconds per dyad, and = 411 seconds per dyad per task).

Figure 5.14

Frequency of amount of time on task in terms of task type, gender pairing and proficiency levels



When compared in terms of task type, participants spent an almost equal amount of time on spot the difference and opinion tasks (= 29,068 and 30,160 respectively). A paired differences analysis on a t-test confirmed that the difference is not significant, $t(71) = -0.45$, $p = .651$. When compared in terms of paired gender groups, Figure 5.18 shows that the frequency counts for each paired gender group were 22,698 seconds for the all-male dyads, 19,180 seconds for the male-female dyads, and 17,350 seconds for the all-female dyads (total = 59,228 wordcounts). When compared in terms of proficiency levels, the participants in middle level of proficiency group (Level 2) completed the task quicker than the participant groups with a lower and higher level of proficiency. The frequency counts for each group were 22,598 for Level 1, 17,280 for Level 2, and 19,350 for Level 3 (total = 59,228 time on task). However, when analysed using a one-way ANOVA test, the difference for paired gender groups ($F(2,71) = 2.283$, $p = .11$) and proficiency levels ($F(2,71) = 2.217$, $p = .117$) was found not to be significant.

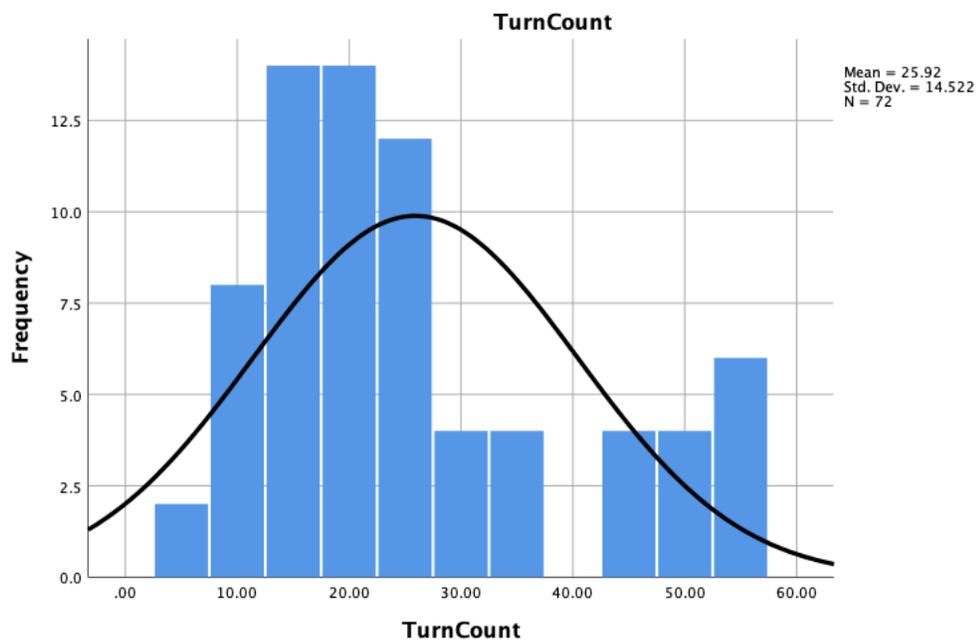
5.2.8 Turn Counts

Counting the number of turns in a dialogue task reflects joint participation and social support. In this study, the number of turns was counted per dyad, rather than per participant. Therefore, participants from the same dyad were assigned a same number of turns, regardless of the order of the first speaker.

The following figures are used to portray the frequency of turns. Figure 5.15 illustrates the frequency of turns generated by 72 participants (36 dyads) in the form of a histogram with an imaginary normal curve. Next, Figure 5.16 compares the frequency of turns in terms of task type, gender pairing and proficiency levels.

Figure 5.15

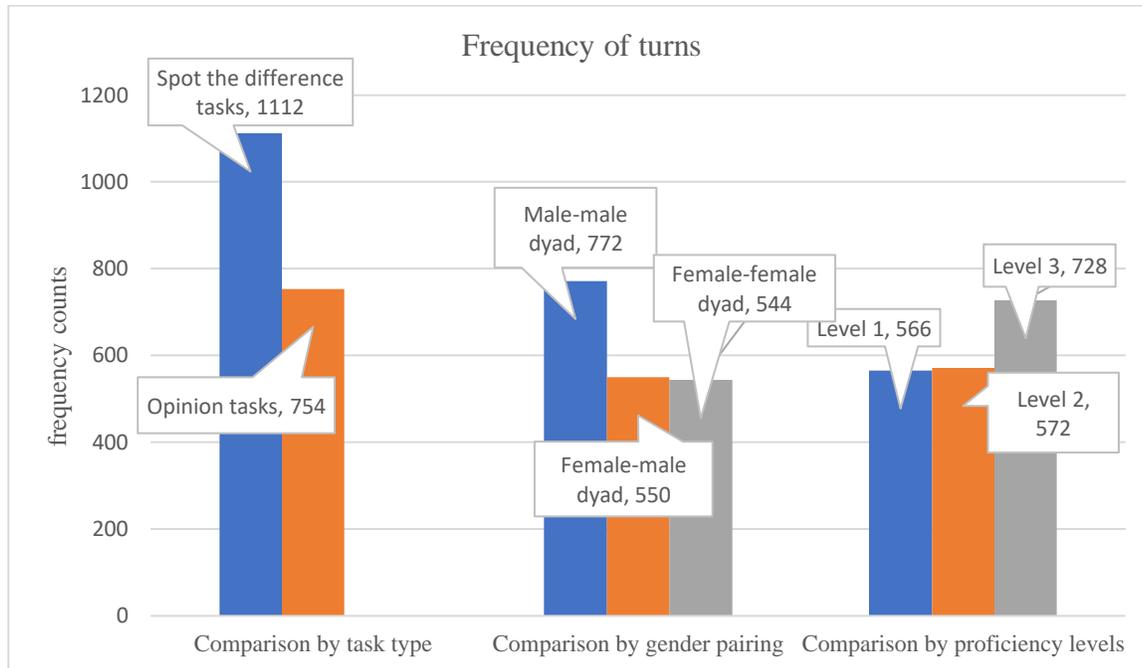
A histogram of frequency of turns



The histogram in Figure 5.15 shows that the bars in the diagram have a bi-modal distribution, with a larger cluster placed between the values of five and thirty-five on the x-axis, and another cluster between placed between the values of 45 and 55 on the x-axis. It appears that the second group are participants who were willing to extend their joint participation and provide extra support for their peers, and thus were highly engaged in terms of turn counts.

Figure 5.16

Frequency of turns in terms of task type, gender pairing and proficiency levels



As summarised in Table 5.3, overall there were 1,866 turns in all tasks. Therefore, an average dyad would produce around 13 turns in all four tasks ($X = 466.3$ turns per dyad, and $= 12.958$ turns per dyad per task). When compared per task types, Figure 5.16 shows that 1,112 turns were recorded in spot the difference tasks, while the remaining 754 turns were found in the opinion tasks. A paired differences analysis on a t-test found that the difference is significant, $t(71) = 4.97$, $p = .003$. When compared in terms of gender, the frequency counts for each paired gender group were 772 for the all-male dyads, 550 for the male-female dyads, and 544 for the all-female dyads (total = 1,866 turns). A one-way ANOVA test for paired gender groups found a significant difference among the paired groups, $F(2,71) = 3.58$, $p = .033$. When compared in terms of proficiency level, the participants in the lower proficiency group generated fewer turns than the middle and the higher proficiency level groups. For instance, the frequency counts for each group were 566 for Level 1, 572 for Level 2, and 728 for Level 3 (total = 406 complete). However, when examined using a one-way ANOVA test, the difference in terms of proficiency levels was found not to be significant, $F(2,71) = 1.7$, $p = .19$.

5.2.9 Back-channellings

Back-channelling [backchannel] usually denotes responsiveness, whereby the interlocutors acknowledge comprehension and expression of support. In this study, it takes a form of responses such as: ah, oh, uh, mm, hmm, okay, wow, yeah, or short exclamatory words signalling affirmation: I see, really, fantastic, good, great or excellent. Examples of backchannels are as follows:

Task #1 Spot the difference task (Dyad no 4, proficiency level 1, both male).

Male #1: Claudio, do you have a mirror?

Male #2: Yes I have

Male #1: **Okay**. Do you have a fan? [backchannel]

Male #2: Yes!

Male #1: **Oh**... how many fan in your dorm? [backchannel2]

Male #2: My dorm my fan have one

Male #1: Oh? Just one? [backchannel3]

Male #2: Yes just one

Male #1: Okay [backchannel4]

Male #2: How many chair... in your dorm?

Male #2: One

Male #1: Okay, and my dorm have a towel have a dustbin have a kettle, do you have ... [backchannel5]

Male #2: Towel, dustbin and Kettle? I just have towel

Male #1: Oh! How many a towel? [backchannel6]

Male #2: One.

Male #1: Just one?

Male #2: yes just one.

Male #1: Okay, do you have a pillow? [backchannel7]

Male #2: Yes I have!

Male #1: Oh good. Mmmh table? [backchannel8]

Male #2: Yes.

Male #1: *Oh*, do you have mirror? [backchannel9]

Male #2: Yes.

Task #11 Opinion task (Dyad no 24, proficiency level 2, both female).

Female #2: *Okay. Mmm.* [backchannel] What about Melinda? Can you repeat that please? [

Female #1: Melinda is smart.

Female #2: Smart

Female #1: Good communication skill.

Female #2: Communication skill.

Female #1: And she's like to study in university

Female #2: *Oh thank you okay.* [backchannel2] Phoebe strong flexible ... strong flexible slim. Phoebe strong flexible slim strong CV in sport or...

Female #1: Prefer vocational school

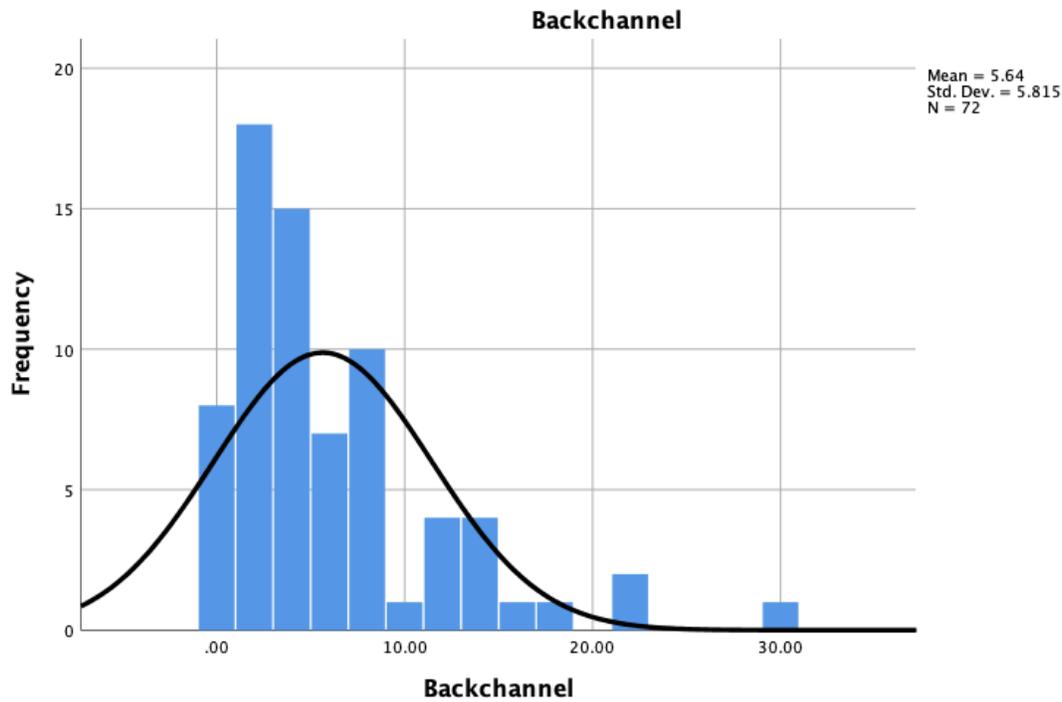
Female #2: CV in sport I think Phoebe is suitable to be artist or singer.

- Female #1: Phoebe?
- Female #2: Yes ... she is strong flexible slim strong CV sport and prefer vocational school. Yes, I think Phoebe is suitable to be an singer or artist.
- Female #2: *Oh no no.* ^[backchannel3] I think Phoebe suitable to be an detective because she is strong CV sport flexible ... what do you think? And Aiden artist diligent like music employee and what? Aiden artist?
- Female #1: Has an excellent taste in art!
- Female #2: *Oh uuhh.* ^[backchannel4] I think Aiden is suitable in artist because she is very like music artist and mmm employee . And the last Melinda she is smart good communication and can you repeat that please? Sorry.
- Female #1: Smart good communication skill
- Female #2: *Aha...!* ^[backchannel5]
- Female #1: And like to study in university.
- Female #2: *Oh mmm,* ^[backchannel6] Good communication *smart good, communication.* ^[backchannel7]
- Female #2: She is smart good communication and like to school because she is smart. I think Melinda is suitable to be an writer.
- Female #1: *Yeah...!* ^[backchannel8]
- Female #2: Because she is smart good communication like to ...
- Female #1: Study.
- Female #2: *Mmm?* ^[backchannel9] Like to study in university I think she is suitable an writer.
- Female #1: Yeah, writer!
- Female #2: *Uhum* ^[backchannel10] because she is smart and have good communication or singer

The following figures are used to portray the frequency of back-channelling. Figure 5.17 illustrates the frequency of back-channelling generated by the 72 participants in the four tasks in the form of a histogram with an imaginary normal curve. Figure 5.18 compares the frequency of back-channelling in terms of task type, gender pairing and proficiency levels.

Figure 5.17

A histogram of frequency of back-channelling



The histogram in Figure 5.17 is also skewed-to-the-right, but more dispersed when compared with other coding measures. It shows that the majority of the bars in the diagram are placed between a value of zero and ten on the x-axis. This means that the majority of participants generated ten or less back-channellings. The histogram also reveals that only thirteen participants produced more than ten back-channellings. The maximum score ranged from zero to thirty, with a score of 5.639 as the mean ($SD = 5.812$), which is roughly about the same as the mean score for elaborative clauses.

Figure 5.18

Frequency of back-channellings in terms of task type, gender pairing and proficiency levels

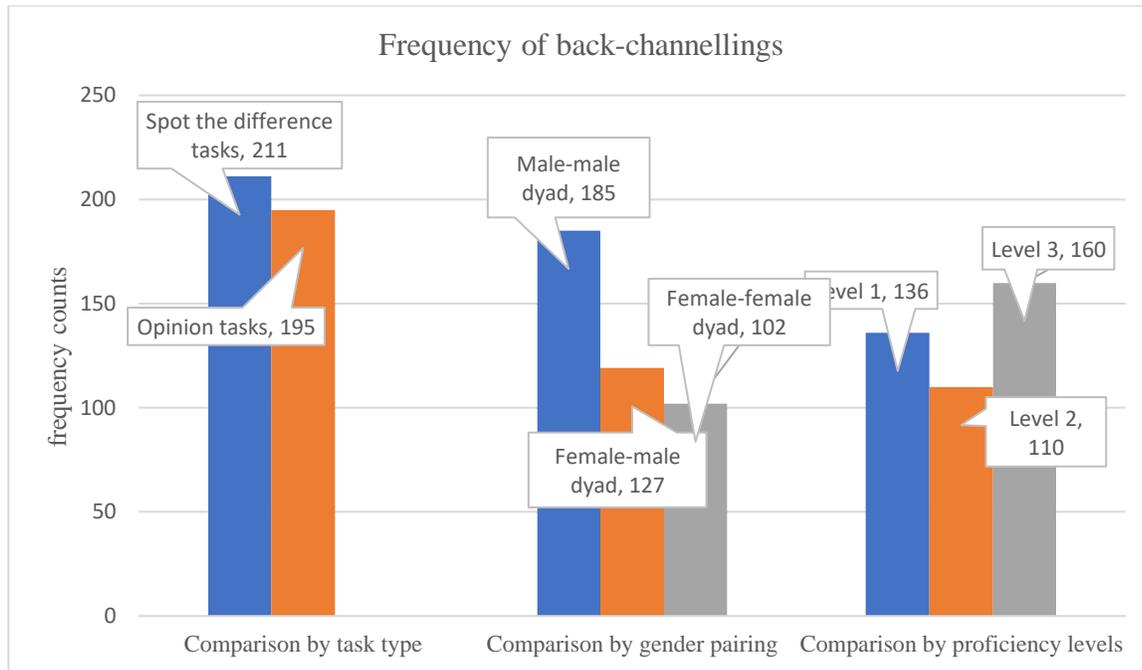


Figure 5.18 shows that spot the difference tasks resulted in more back-channellings (= 211 backchannels) than opinion tasks (=195 backchannels). However, a paired differences analysis on a t-test found that the difference is not significant, $t(71) = 0.36$, $p = .722$. A comparison in terms of gender and proficiency levels produced mixed results. For instance, the frequency counts for each paired gender group were 185 for the all-male dyads, 119 for the male-female dyads, and 102 for the all-female dyads (total = 406 backchannels). When compared by proficiency level, the frequency analysis showed a greater similarity of results. For example, the frequency counts of backchannelling for each group were 136 for Level 1, 110 for Level 2, and 160 for Level 3 (total = 406 backchannels). However, when treated using a one-way ANOVA test, the differences for both the paired gender groups ($F(2,71) = 2.47$, $p = .092$) and proficiency levels ($F(2,71) = 0.77$, $p = .469$) were not significant.

5.3 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the findings of learners' task engagement which emerged from the coding of different types of engagement and the frequency analysis for each of the nine coding measures (Section 5.2). The findings were presented in the following order: Elaborative clauses (Sub-section 5.2.1), Negotiation moves (Sub-section 5.2.2), Disagreement (Sub-section 5.2.3), Recasts (Sub-section 5.2.4), Completing peer utterances (Sub-section 5.2.5), Word counts (Sub-section 5.2.6), Time on task (Sub-section 5.2.7), Turn counts (Sub-section 5.2.8) and finally, Back-channellings (Sub-section 5.2.9).

On the one hand, the statistical analysis presented in this chapter reflected a high level of task engagement, based on several indicators such as elaborative clauses, negotiation moves, back-channelling, turn counts, word counts and time of task. On the other hand, the results also showed a fairly low use of recasts, while disagreements and completing peer utterances were used even more sparingly. In terms of the spread of scores, the histogram analysis showed that most of the indicators were skewed to the right except for three measures of behaviour engagement, namely turn counts, word counts, and time on task. When compared in terms of type of task, frequency scores for spot the difference tasks were significantly higher than for opinion tasks for two indicators only: disagreement and turn counts. When compared in terms of paired gender groups, the difference was significant for both recasts and turn count, where all-male groups outperformed the male-female and all-female groups. Lastly, when compared in terms of the three proficiency levels, participants with higher levels of proficiency produced significantly more negotiation moves than participants with lower proficiency levels.

To provide additional insights on task engagement, the statistical analysis is complemented by a thematic analysis of the questionnaire and the focus group interview data to illustrate the concept of multidimensional engagement. The findings from students' perceptions of task engagement which emerged from the thematic analysis of the questionnaire and interview data are discussed in the next chapter (Chapter Six). This is followed by the results of lexical learning which are presented in Chapter Seven.

Chapter Six

RESULTS: STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF TASK ENGAGEMENT

6.1 Overview

As discussed in the previous chapter (Chapter Five), the results of this study are reported in three chapters. The findings presented in these three chapters together endeavour to answer the two research questions, as presented in Chapter One (Section 1.5) of this thesis: (1) "What is the relationship between learners' task engagement (as measured by the frequency of elaborative clauses, negotiation moves, disagreements, recasts, completing peer utterances, word count, time on task, turn count, and backchannelling) and their lexical learning?" and (2) "Is there additional evidence of lexical learning (in terms of the use of newly learned words and students' perceptions of learning new words through the use of tasks) when tasks are used?".

Chapter Five presented the results of multidimensional task engagement which emerged from the coding of different types of engagement and the frequency analysis for these. This chapter (Chapter Six) presents the result of students' perceptions of task engagement which emerged from the thematic analysis of the questionnaire and interview data. It first provides a description of the thematic analysis of task engagement (Section 6.2). The findings that emerged from the five themes of task engagement are then presented as follows: Theme 1) Mental exertion and motivation in task completion (Sub section 6.2.1), Theme 2) Effort and involvement in interaction (Sub section 6.2.2), Theme 3) Topic attachment and engagement (Sub section 6.2.3), Theme 4) Engagement in working with a partner (Sub section 6.2.4), and Theme 5) Task difficulty (Sub section 6.2.5). The chapter concludes with a summary in Section 6.3.

6.2 Task Engagement: Questionnaire and Interview Findings

This thematic analysis of task engagement resulted from data extracted from the questionnaire and the interview transcripts. The process of developing themes was as follows. The questionnaire had six items related to task engagement, each representing a predetermined theme for task engagement, namely: 1) effort in completing task, 2) involvement in the interaction, 3) topic interest, and 4) working with a partner. These four themes were designed to reflect multidimensional engagement, that is, as cognitive, behavioural, emotional and social engagement. However, additional themes emerged from the open-ended questions in the questionnaire, specifically - task difficulty and challenges in speaking English, as discussed below.

The questionnaire was distributed twice to the participants. The first survey after the first meeting (Task #1 and #2), and the second survey after the last (Task #11 and #12). The questionnaire data were analysed from both a quantitative and qualitative perspective (e.g., see Chapter 3, Section 3.4). The quantitative data were analysed in terms of mean scores. The self-assessment questionnaire consisted of six items used to elicit task engagement responses from the participants, concerning their preference for the topic, their participation and contribution, and their motivation for completing the tasks (the detailed list of questionnaire items can be found in Appendix B). The results from the 5-Likert scale questionnaire, ranging from (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) neutral, (4) agree, to (5) strongly agree). The mean responses of task engagement for each individual item are displayed in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1

Task engagements mean scores from questionnaire

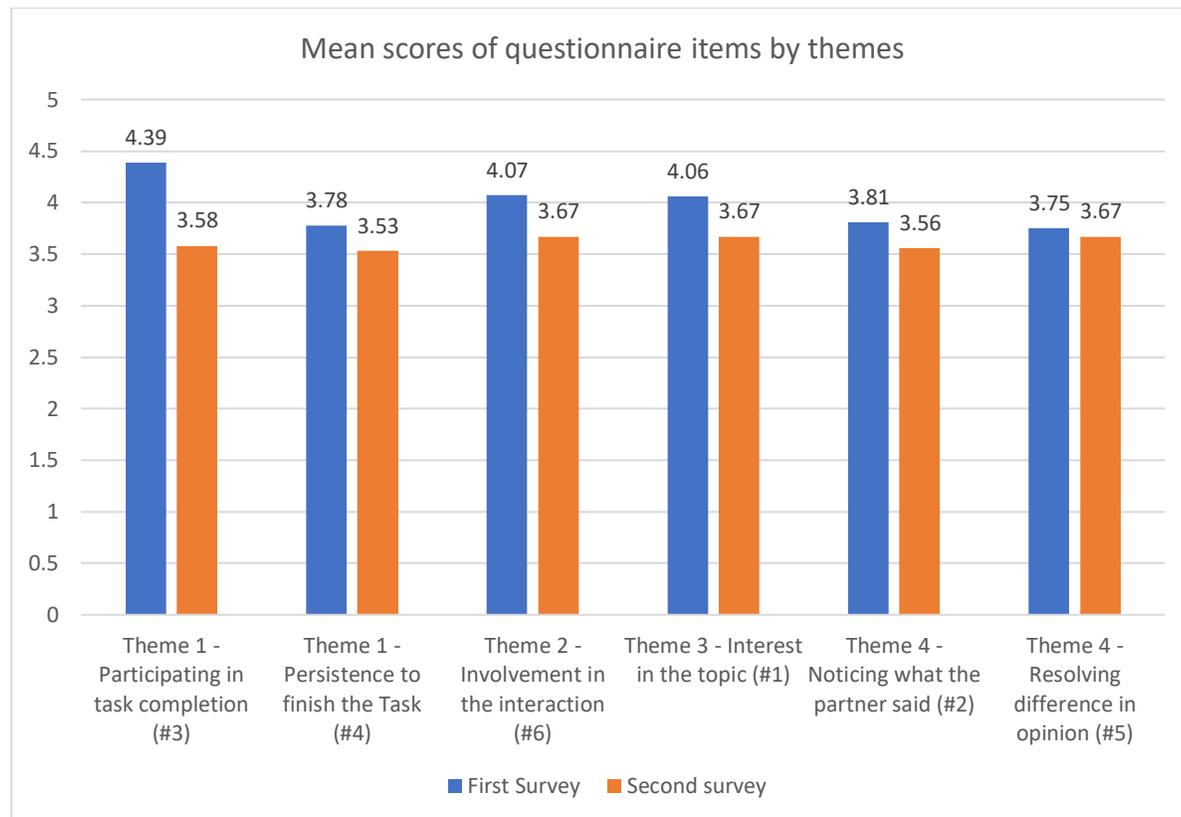
Dimension	Questionnaire item (#)	First survey	Second survey
Cognitive engagement	Participating in task completion (#3)	4.39	3.58
	Persistence to finish the Task (#4)	3.78	3.53
Behavioural engagement	Involvement in the interaction (#6)	4.07	3.67
Emotional engagement	Interest in the topic (#1)	4.06	3.67
Social engagement	Noticing what the partner said (#2)	3.81	3.56
	Resolving difference in opinion (#5)	3.75	3.67

Note: The same survey was administered twice, the first time was after the first meeting, that is, after completing spot the difference tasks, and the second time was in the last meeting after the participants finished the opinion tasks.

Figure 6.1 compares the mean scores from the students' responses to the questionnaire items arranged according to the four pre-determined themes, that is: 1) effort in completing task, 2) involvement in the interaction, 3) topic interest, and 4) working with a partner. The table shows that, firstly, the mean scores ranged from 3.53 - 4.39 for all questionnaire items. Secondly, it also shows that the results for the first survey, conducted after the first meeting involving spot the difference tasks (Task #1 and Task #2) were higher than the results of the second survey, conducted after the last meeting of the participants involving opinion tasks (Task #11 and #12). This could indicate that opinion tasks were less interesting and engaging for students, perhaps due to being more difficult and demanding.

Figure 6.1

Task engagement mean scores from questionnaires



In a similar manner the questionnaire, the focus group interviews were also structured around six guide questions, which aligned with the questionnaire, and which were representative of the four main themes for this study. The additional themes that emerged from the interaction in focus group interviews were task difficulty and participants' challenges in speaking English. The interviews were conducted in a casual setting led by the researcher, where five or six participants discussed their responses to ten guide questions (six for task engagement and four for lexical learning). These guide questions were then followed by several follow-up questions to clarify their respondents' answers. The interview was conducted in English; however, when needed, participants were allowed to continue their conversation in their native language (Bahasa Indonesia). The set of guide questions and follow-up questions that concerned task engagement in the different dimensions, namely, cognitive, behavioural, emotional and social, are presented in Table 6.2 below.

Table 6.2*Task engagement interview questions*

Dimension	Guide questions (item #)	Follow-up questions
Cognitive engagement	Do you easily get bored? (#3)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do you usually get bored when studying English? • Do you like talking to your partner in English?
	Did you give your best in completing the task? (#4)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How far did you go to complete the task? What motivated you to complete the task?
Behavioural engagement	How would you grade your work? (#6)	
Emotional engagement	Which topic do you like the best? (#1)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What do you like about these topics? • Do you engage more when you like the topic?
Social engagement	Do you enjoy working with your partner? (#2)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How well do you know her or him? • Do you prefer working with others (same gender/different gender)? • How well did you listen to your partner? • Will you participate more when given different partner?
	Did you have a difference in opinion with your partner regarding the task? (#5)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Did you resolve it? Did your partner challenge you when you had a different opinion? Did you?

Table 6.3 provides an overview of the main themes and subsidiary themes of task engagement that emerged from the participants' responses. These are a combination of both predetermined and newly emergent themes, and subsidiary themes which arose from the questionnaire and interview data. The first main theme is concerned with cognitive engagement. It addresses mental exertion and motivation in task completion with two sub themes: persistence in completing the tasks, and motivation in doing the task. The second main theme is concerned with the behavioural dimension of engagement and focuses on weighing the effort and involvement in the task with two subthemes: grading your effort, and involvement in interaction. The third main theme is concerned with the emotional dimension of engagement and deals with the topic of attachment and engagement with an emphasis on participants' interest in talking about the topic. To this, a new subtheme was added to address participants'

familiarity with the topics. The fourth main theme attends to the social issues of working with a partner, with four subthemes: acquaintance with partner, noticing and ignoring partner in communication, encouragement and challenges from the partner, and resolving differences with the partner. The fifth main theme is a newly emergent theme which deals with the issue of task difficulty, with the two subthemes of difficulty in meeting the task demand, and difficulty in using English to convey intentions.

Table 6.3

The main and subsidiary themes of task engagement

Pre-set theme coverage	Main theme	Subthemes	Q item no	IGQ item no
Cognitive engagement	1. Mental exertion and motivation in task completion	1.1 Persistence in completing the tasks	#3	#4
		1.2 Motivation in doing the task	#4	#3
Behavioural engagement	2. Effort and involvement in interaction	2.1 Grading your effort		#6
		2.2 Involvement in interaction	#6	#2
Emotional engagement	3. Topic attachment and engagement	3.1 Interest to talk about the topics	#1	#1
		3.2 Familiarity with the topics (the new subtheme)		#1
Social engagement	4. Engagement in working with a partner	4.1 Acquaintance with the partner		#2
		4.2 Partner's noticing and ignoring in communication	#2	#2
		4.3 Encouragement and challenge from the partner		#5
		4.4 Resolving differences with the partner	#5	#5
Multi-dimensional engagement in meeting task demand	5. Task difficulty*	4.1 Difficulty in meeting the task demand		#3
		4.2 Difficulty in using English to convey intentions		#4

Note: Q item no = Questionnaire item no.

IGQ item no = Interview guide questions no.

* The newly emerged theme

The findings from the questionnaire and interview data with regard to the four main themes, subsidiary themes, and the newly emergent theme, as displayed in Table 6.3, are discussed in greater detail below.

6.2.1 Mental exertion and motivation in task completion

The first main theme of engagement deals with cognitive engagement, i.e., the invested attention or mental exertion and motivation in doing the tasks well, and the persistence need for getting the tasks done. There were two subthemes that emerged from the data, namely: 1) persistence in completing the tasks, which deals with invested attention and mental exertion and in overcoming boredom, and 2) motivation in doing the task, that is, it is concerned with the personal motives or rationale for participating in the task-based lessons.

Persistence in completing the tasks

In this study, persistence is interpreted in a cognitive sense, which deals with participants' heightened attention and mental exertion to complete the task and is also indicated by efforts to overcome boredom or distraction. As the task could be quite challenging for some participants and required their utmost mental strength, their willingness to invest their attention is seen as an indication of their cognitive engagement in the task.

This subtheme was addressed by questionnaire item #4, which was negatively stated and read: "I felt bored with this task". The questionnaire item returned a mean score of 3.78 for the survey on Task #1 and #2, and 3.53 for the survey on Task #11 and #12. This implied a quite high level of engagement on both occasions even though it returned the lowest mean scores from the survey overall (see Table 6.1).

In the interview, guide questions #3 and #4, as well as the follow-up questions addressed the issue as follows: #3 "Did you give your best in completing the task? How far did you go to complete the task? What motivated you to complete the task?", and #4 "Do you easily get bored? Do you usually get bored when studying English?". Excerpts from the interview transcripts concerning this issue are as follows:

Yeah, we were able to complete all the task.

Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #1 female

This showed the respondent's persistence to complete the tasks.

Because since the first lesson we feel like learn something. There are many things that we did not know before, and then we learned it. Therefore, we gradually become more serious in doing the task, because we knew that we would learn something.

Interview transcript no #3 Respondent #14 male

This response clearly showed persistence to complete the task that appears to be guided by his intrinsic motivation to learn English.

I will not get bored when I am involved actively, particularly in doing task like this.

Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #6 male

But we will never become bored with this type of lesson.

Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #7 female

We won't be bored with this lesson, because it allows us to be active. If get bored when we don't do anything.

Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #10 male

In these three responses, the participants showed that they were actively engaged in the task. It also shows that they were committed to finish the task and they did not feeling bored when doing so.

No, not really. Even though we do tasks all the time. This type of lesson is not boring for me.

Interview transcript no #4 Respondent #18 male

Yeah, for me it is okay, but maybe not all the times. Sometimes we need to do other type of lesson not just task. Because if it is doing tasks every lesson, it will be a bit boring.

Interview transcript no #4 Respondent #19 female

Again, in these two excerpts, the participants showed persistence by overcoming boredom. Overall, there is a sense of completeness or achieving something when the participants exercise their mental effort to finish the task.

Motivation in doing the tasks

In this study, motivation in doing the task concerns participants' motive or rationale for getting involved in the task-based lessons, which in turn denotes participants' engagement in the cognitive dimension. Based on the fact that participants were willing to spend 180 minutes per week for four weeks undertaking task-based instruction in a class-based situation, it is assumed that there must be

something that motivates them. Accordingly, this subtheme examines participants' reasons and rationale for signing up.

This subtheme was addressed by questionnaire item #3, which read: "I participated to complete the task". The questionnaire item returned a mean score of 4.39 for the survey on Task #1 and #2, and 3.58 for the survey on Task #11 and #12. This implied a quite high level of engagement on both occasions (see Table 6.1).

Motivation in doing the tasks was partially addressed in the interview with the guide questions #3: "Did you give your best in completing the task? How far did you go to complete the task? What motivated you to complete the task?". The answers revealed that the participants were generally motivated to improve their English proficiency, and particularly their oral production skill. These 'free' English activities were also seen as an opportunity for them to use a task-based approach in learning English. Some excerpts from the interview transcripts dealing with the issue of motivation are as follows:

It depends mostly on who is the teacher. For example, in one of the English classes, most of the things we do at class is doing assignment but never practice, so we feel bored. Well, actually it is easy to get good grade by doing the assignment, but we feel that we are lacking comprehension in using English.

Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #7 female

This response showed the student's motivation in engaging in the task lesson—this activity allowed them to practice their English, rather than just do assignments.

For me my motivation is I can apply this knowledge in everyday situation, especially if I meet any foreigner, I can easily show them the direction. That what I like.

Interview transcript no #3 Respondent #14 male

Here, the participant expressed a different motivation in engaging with task lesson, which was to be able to use it in conversation when needed.

It gave me extra motivation that I am able to communicate with English, and I have confidence to speak it. Because I know many of my friend has never done it. We have a good experience and provide more motivation to speak English.

Interview transcript no #4 Respondent #17 female

My motivation is to practice my English, especially my speaking will be more fluently.
Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #3 female

These two responses clearly state the participants' motivation in participating in this lesson, which is to enhance their speaking skills.

Yeah, to improve my English, especially I can depend on myself to speak English.
Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #4 female

Again, in this response, the participant revealed their motivation which is to gain confidence in oral communication. Although their reasons may vary, they were able to motivate the participants in doing this task lessons.

6.2.2 Effort and involvement in interaction

The second main theme deals with the behavioural dimensions of engagement, i.e., the effort to engage in an interaction and participants' involvement in the task. There were two subthemes that emerged from this theme, namely: 1) grading your effort, which encouraged participants to self-evaluate their effort by quantifying it on a scale from 1 to 10, and 2) involvement in interaction, that is, the act of participating in the interaction. The last two subthemes deal particularly with behavioural engagement and focus more on quantitative data.

Grading your effort

In this study, grading your effort provided opportunity for participants to self-evaluate their effort vested in the task, by quantifying it on a scale from 1 to 10. This type of activity elicits participants' behavioural dimension of engagement as they put a grade on their effort. Although the focus is mainly on quantitative data, several comments on effort, however, support their grade projection.

In the interview, this sub-theme was addressed by guide question #6: "How would you grade your work?". Their answers ranged from 7 to 9.5, with the majority of focus group participants returning a grade of eight. Their comments were as follows:

Scoring my effort will be eight.

Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #2 male

Yeah, I give myself an 8 as well for effort.

Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #4 male

These responses suggest that the participants rated their effort highly

I give myself a 9 point.

Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #1 female

I rate my effort as 9.5 point.

Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #5 female

These two responses show a high rating, signifying effort in their engagement in task lessons. It also provides further support to the notion that they were behaviourally engaged with the tasks.

Involvement in the interaction

In this study, involvement in the task is seen as being concerned with the behavioural dimension of engagement. Involvement in this sense refers to physical participation in interaction, in terms of giving and receiving contributions in the tasks in their interaction with a peer.

This sub theme was addressed by item #6 in the questionnaire which read: "I think my partner and I did great job on the task". This item basically deals with involvement and participation in the task performance. The questionnaire item returned a mean score of 4.07 for the survey on Task #1 and #2, and 3.67 for the survey on Task #11 and #12. This implied a quite high social engagement on both occasions. Although there was no guide question specially assigned for this issue, some of their answers suggest that the participants were involved in the interaction. Examples from the interview transcripts are as follows:

I will not get bored when I am involved actively, particularly in doing task like this.

Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #6 male

With this comment, the respondent confirmed his active involvement in the task lessons.

Yes, more I participate in this activity

Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #10 male

Again, this comment suggests active involvement and participation in the task lessons, which is translated as behavioural engagement.

6.2.3 Topic attachment and engagement

The third main theme deals mostly with the emotional dimension of engagement. The theme was divided into two subthemes, namely, topic interest and topic familiarity. Topic interest refers to participants' attachment to the topic (usually emotionally), which causes them to engage in conversation about the topic. The second subtheme, topic familiarity, denotes participants' acquaintance with the topic, that is, how well the participants knew what is to be expected when talking about this topic. Furthermore, it could also imply the topic's relevance to the participants' life, or their daily routines.

The topics used for the questionnaire were room inventory (Task #1), and room furniture (Task #2) for the first survey, and profiles and jobs (Task #11), and career comparisons (Task #12) for the second survey. For more information on task topics, see Table 4.7 in Chapter 4, Section 3.5 Data collection.

Topic interest

In order to assess whether the participants were emotionally attached to the topic, the first questionnaire item and the first interview guide question addressed this issue. The questionnaire returned a mean score of 4.06 for participants' interest in the topics related to spot the difference tasks (i.e., room inventory and room furniture), and 3.67 for interest in the topics related to the opinion tasks (i.e., profiles and jobs and career comparisons). This implied that the participants liked the topics, however speaking about room inventory and room furniture were found to be more stimulating than speaking about profiles, jobs and career comparisons.

Topic interest was also addressed in the interview, specifically in the participants' responses to the guide question #1: "Which topic do you like the best? What do you like about these topics? Do you engage more when you like the topic?". The responses to the interview questions confirms participant's interest with the topic and their preference to talk about room inventory and room furniture rather than profiles and jobs and career comparisons. Examples of their responses are as follows:

My preferred topic is the one when we talked about dormitory

Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #1 female

Same with me, the dorms

Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #2 male

I want to talk more about room inventory

Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #5 female

These three comments show the participants' preference for the topic, which in turn led them to talk about the topic.

Room furniture! Yeah, I will be more active when I like the topic.

Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #3 female

This response clearly shows that topic preference can lead to more active engagement.

Yeah definitely. I when I like the topic, I will have something to talk about. So that we can see what it is like living in other countries.

Interview transcript no #4 Respondent #18 male

With this response, the participant showed that topic selection help motivated them to communicate.

I like to talk about delivery route, because it is interesting. We are challenged to give and receive direction and it is like real. Because we have to make choices whether to turn left or right, it allows us to think, and It is really challenging, therefore we are interested to learn.

Interview transcript no #3 Respondent #14 male

This comment showed that a realistic and authentic task design could challenge and motivate the participant.

It is easier to talk when you know the topic. And we can make long talk from the topic.

Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #6 male

I like drawing the line because we feel like we are smart and when we finish the task, we feel good about ourselves.

Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #4 male

Topic interest was again important in eliciting participants' involvement. Overall, it does seem that the participants were emotionally engaged with the tasks, however, their topic preferences did mitigate the level of their engagement.

Topic familiarity

The subtheme of topic familiarity emerged as a result of participants' responses to the guide interview questions which partly addressed this issue as follows: "Which topic do you like the best? What do you like about these topics? Do you engage more when you like the topic?" The responses showed that the participants were more engaged when they knew what they were talking about. That is, a more familiar topic led to a higher engagement.

After reviewing the interview transcripts, topic familiarity was separated from topic interest, and classified as a new subtheme because participants appeared to appreciate tasks relevant to their experience. Some of the responses from the focus group interview dealing with this issue were as follows:

I like this topic, because of it is relevance with our student life, especially we as dorm students.... because it will give more motivation. When we like it, we are motivated to learn more.

Interview transcript no #3 Respondent #11 female

This participant highlighted the importance of topic relevance in providing motivation to engage in the task.

For me it is interesting to learn new culture. In Indonesia there are many tourists, and I met some of them. And most of them ask me about the direction where to go, so I want to learn more on giving direction.

Interview transcript no #3 Respondent #12 male

A topic that could be applied in real life was important for this respondent.

It is easier to talk when you know the topic. And we can make long talk out of the topic.

Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #7 female

Again, the familiarity of the topic appears to enhance the level of talk in a task lesson.

I like it because I recently watch a movie about it.

Interview transcript no #4 Respondent #18 male

Yes, I can share my personal experience, and tell my partner what to do, you know.

Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #2 male

With these two comments, the participants drew from personal experience and highlighted how this was relevant to the tasks. Again, like topic interest, topic familiarity could be linked to participants' engagement because it provided extra motivation to talk about past experiences.

6.2.4 Engagement while working with a partner

The fourth main theme deals mostly with the social dimension of engagement. It mainly addresses the issue of working with a partner and how it may affect engagement. There were four subthemes that emerged from the data, namely: 1) acquaintance with the partner, that is, attending to personal relationship with a member of a dyad, 2) noticing and ignoring partners in communication, that is, tackling the unequal role or domination in the conversation, 3) encouragement and challenges by the partner, which refers to how much interaction is demanded from the partner, and, 4) resolving differences with a partner, which deals with the compromises made to reach mutual agreement.

In this study, participants were paired by the researcher without taking into account participants' previous relationships. Dyadic selection was performed by matching up participants' proficiency levels based on pre-test scores and gender in order to result in an equal number of cluster groups (see Section 5.2.1; see also discussion in Chapter 4, Section 4.3 Participants).

Acquaintance with the partner

In this study, an 'acquainted partner' is defined as someone who had a close relationship with a participant prior to the task lessons. In order to assess whether the participants had a previous relationship with their partner, the focus group question that addressed this was as follows: "Do you enjoy working with your partner? How well do you know her or him?"

The interview data revealed diverse results about how close a respondent was to his or her partner. For example, some dyads met for the first-time when undertaking the tasks, at first barely knowing each other, but then becoming closer after being paired together. However, others had known each other before the data collection. When asked whether being acquainted with a partner made any difference for them, the answers revealed that they experienced some form of inhibition when talking to partner

with whom they were not acquainted. Excerpts from the interview transcripts concerning this issue are as follows:

Yes of course, if I know them, we can communicate better.

Interview transcript no #4 Respondent #19 female

This response from a female respondent suggested familiarity with a partner helps enhance communication.

It depends, I don't think it will be the same. Sometimes when we talk to partner of different gender, we feel shy. We cannot just talk about everything, especially when we did not know each other.

Interview transcript no #3 Respondent #11 female

With this comment, a female respondent suggested that having a conversational partner of a different gender could affect the level of communication.

Even the same gender, but we just know each other, there is always a shyness between us. We need to adapt to the way our partner talk.

Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #7 female

With this response, a female participant pointed out that shyness could hinder natural communication

So, it basically depends on whether we know our partner or not. It easier to connect to someone that we knew before, even though we are not the same gender.

Interview transcript no #4 Respondent #16 male

Contrary to the other responses, this respondent downplayed the gender as an issue in communication. Instead, he suggested that it was the previous acquaintance that mattered.

Partner's noticing and ignoring in conversation

Therefore, acquaintance with a partner did appear to influence engagement with a task.

In this study, a 'good' partner was described as someone who is a good listener and easy to talk to. The key appears to be their contribution to the conversation, participating without either dominating or ignoring a partner. In order to assess whether the participants were involved in a 'good conversation' with their partner, questionnaire item #2 was "Noticing what the partner said". The questionnaire returned a score of 3.81 for the survey on Task #1 and #2, and 3.56 for the survey on Task #11 and #12. This implied a quite high social engagement on both occasions.

Other guide interview questions that addressed this issue were "Do you enjoy working with your partner? How well did you listen to your partner?". The interview responses indicated that ignoring a partner was rare, although dominating a conversation could happen more often. In this regard, unequal roles in conversation were acknowledged by several participants. However, this was seen as a positive indicator, since it could be a sign of assistance to a partner's receptive needs, and thus implying social engagement. Some examples from the transcripts dealing with this issue are as follows:

No, my partner listens to me like I listen to her.

Interview transcript no #3 Respondent #11 female

This response suggested that noticing occurred in both her and her partner.

I also sometimes ask her to repeat if she talks too fast

Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #3 female

No, my partner is not dominating the conversation, because we try to explain everything together. He also listens to me.

Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #2 male

Again, these responses suggest not only that noticing occurred, but that it was also enhanced by the partner.

Yeah, but because of the characteristic of the task. In some task, the information was not distributed evenly, but one person knows more than the other. So maybe I speak more in one task, but we both do it together.

Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #8 male

Even when there was an imbalance in the talk time due to the nature of the task, noticing was maintained.

Encouragement and challenge from a partner

Encouragement and challenge from a partner reflects how much interaction is demanded within the dyad. In this sense, a 'good' partner is defined as someone who provides encouragement to keep talking rather than challenging (i.e., making it harder) or discouraging their partner from presenting an idea.

This issue was addressed in the sub-questions to interview question #2 "Do you prefer working with others (same gender/different gender)? Will you participate more when given different partner?", and guide question #5 "Did your partner challenge you when you had a different opinion? Did you?".

This subtheme emerged when the participants responded on the issue of opposite gender in a dyad. Their answers revealed that rather than gender, the type of partner were more likely to affect their interactions. For example, a partner who could motivate them to engage in the conversation and demand more ideas from them was preferred over someone who was disinterested in the partnership (i.e., someone who liked to work alone), or someone who prevented them from exploring ideas and discouraged them from talking. Excerpts from the focus group interview data dealing with this are as follows:

It depends on which person, not really about gender but more on the personality.
Whether he or she can work together in a team or not.

Interview transcript no #3 Respondent #12 male

It depends on whether the person is compatible to me, then it would be better.

Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #9 female

These comments suggest compatibility with a partner is important for enhancing communication.

Yeah, if I change my peer, this could easily affect my work.

Interview transcript no #4 Respondent #16 male

Yeah, the partner will definitely give influence on your work, however it is not about gender, but about the person.

Interview transcript no #4 Respondent #18 male

These two comments revealed that finding the right partner is important as it enhances communication.

Yes, for me, especially if the partner knows better about the topic than me, so we will be motivated, and not only motivated but also, I can ask questions like, how to pronounce this... so it is like we can learn new things from the partner. That's why it is better.

Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #4 male

This comments again highlights the idea that with the right partner there is greater guidance and assistance in communication.

Resolving differences with a partner

Having a difference of opinion in a conversation is a common occurrence in communication, however, clinging to one's idea and insisting that one's opinion is 'right' can have a negative impact. Resolving differences with a partner reflects how the dyads were willing to make compromises in order to reach mutual agreement. For example, in the giving directions task (Task 7, Delivery route, see Appendix B.3 page 285), the participants resolved their differences of opinion by discussing and then realising that the road map in the second task had been altered. As a result, instead of following the shortest route (as in the first task), they understood they needed to make a detour. However, only some pairs were able to resolve this without problem.

Questionnaire item #5 "Noticing what the partner said" addressed this issue. The questionnaire returned a mean score of 3.75 for the survey on task #1 and #2, and 3.67 for the survey on task #11 and #12. This implies a quite high social engagement on both occasions with respect to resolving differences.

The guide interview questions #5 "Did you have a difference in opinion with your partner regarding the task? Did you resolve it? Did your partner challenge you when you had a different opinion? Did you?" also deals with this issue. The answers revealed that the participants resolved their disputes and were willing to address differences to the extent that they were willing to go back to the start of the task. Respondents also made compromises to reach common ground. Some of the excerpts from interview transcripts dealing with resolving differences are as follows:

We check it again to see what the problem is and try to match our information again.

Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #1 female

This comment showed that the pair resolved differences regarding the tasks.

Give more time to explain it, find a common ground first, and then work on to find solution.

Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #5 female

Here, resolving differences in opinion could involve the pairs having to track back to find common ground.

I just need to listen again to what she said, and so does she.

Interview transcript no #3 Respondent #12 female

We try to repeat the question again, and search for solution together. Because usually disagreement only happen when we misunderstand the task.

Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #16 male

These two comments suggest that the pairs worked to resolve their differences by repeating and listening to each other. Even when differences of opinion did exist, the responses do reflect a level of social engagement from the participants and points to the usefulness of tasks in this regard.

6.2.5 Task difficulty

This theme deals with participants' problems in tackling several tasks which were challenging for them, especially tasks which required participants to provide an opinion or pass judgment on some issue. From this theme, two further subthemes emerged, namely, difficulty meeting task demands, and difficulty in using English to convey intentions.

Difficulties in meeting task demand

This sub theme deals with the challenges and problems that participants encountered in meeting the demands of the task. This subtheme emerged from the discussions on Theme #1 Mental exertion and motivation in task completion.

This subtheme was addressed by guide question #3 in the interview, which read: "Did you give your best in completing the task? How far did you go to complete the task? What motivated you to complete the task?". Their comments were as follows:

I think the level of this task is quite high..., and I are not performing the best.

Interview transcript no #4 Respondent #19 female

The participant felt that the demands of the task reduced her ability to perform well.

Because my speaking is not so good. It is quite difficult for me to recognise what word should I use, and difficult to arrange it for talk.

Interview transcript no #4 Respondent #16 male

Well, sometimes it is difficult to understand what my partner is talking about, especially because I think I am bad at listening. This is my weakness.

Interview transcript no #4 Respondent #17 female

In this way, tackling difficulties is part of cognitive engagement when interacting partners during tasks. and one of the biggest problems for them is word recognition and selection.

Challenges in learning English

This subtheme is concerned with the challenges and problems that participants encountered in using English. This sub-theme was addressed partially by guide question #4 in the interview, which read: "Do you like talking to your partner in English?" The question is mostly concerned with social engagement.

The answers revealed that participants were challenged by the requirement to generate oral utterances mainly because they were not accustomed to speaking English in natural conversation and because of this they had reservations about engaging in this new activity. In fact, most of their speech was produced when they read the task instructions aloud. Examples of participants' comments were as follow:

We are not accustomed to speaking, we usually do exercise on paper.

Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #6 male

The participant encountered a challenge in the way task was designed.

Yeah, I second it. We have lack of practice in English, especially doing a conversation like this. I like to be able to converse like this.

Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #8 male

We still can improve. We need to practice talking like this again and again, and especially in the English class we need time to speak.

Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #9 female

I think ... English proficiency level is not that high, and I are not performing the best.

Interview transcript no #4 Respondent #19 female

In these responses, the participant realised the need to use English for authentic conversations.

We never speak English outside the class.

Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #5 female

This response showed that the participant recognised the lack of English used outside the class.

6.3 Chapter Summary

This chapter focused on students' perceptions of task engagement, which complements the quantitative findings on task engagement present previous chapter (Chapter Five). This chapter (Chapter Six) presented the findings of the thematic analysis of the questionnaire data and the interview transcripts. It first provided a description of the themes that resulted from the questionnaire and interview data (Section 6.2). The findings that emerged from the five themes of task engagement were then presented in the following order: Theme 1) Mental exertion and motivation in task completion (Sub section 6.2.1), Theme 2), Effort and involvement in interaction (Sub section 6.2.2), Theme 3) Topic attachment and engagement (Sub section 6.2.3), Theme 4) Engagement in working with a partner (Sub section 6.2.4), and lastly, Theme 5) Task difficulty (Sub section 6.2.5).

The findings from the thematic analysis were interpreted in terms of multidimensional engagement, that is, in terms of cognitive, behavioural, emotional and social engagement. Cognitively, participants perceived to have high mental exertion and were able to complete the tasks without getting bored. Their greatest motivation was the ability to converse in English, which they believed, in turn, would improve their proficiency. Behaviourally, the participants indicated they felt that they made a good effort, with the majority quantifying their effort as eight on a scale from 1 to 10. Emotionally, they reported that their familiarity with the topic contributed to their engagement, and topics with high relevancy were preferred. In terms of the social dimension, some participants admitted that they felt inhibited when talking to partners that they had just met. Although gender was not a concern, the findings from the interview data suggested that having the right partner could result in higher engagement.

The results further revealed that participants did notice their partner's contributions and that they were also willing to resolve their differences. Some participants admitted that opinion tasks were perhaps a little bit too demanding for them. They also acknowledged that their lack of practice in speaking

English may have prevented them from conversing naturally. The results on lexical learning and the relationship between task engagement and lexical learning are presented in Chapter Seven.

Chapter Seven

RESULTS: LEXICAL LEARNING

7.1 Overview

As discussed in the previous chapters (Chapters Five and Six), the results of this study are reported in three chapters. The findings presented in these three chapters together endeavour to answer the two research questions, as presented in Chapter One (Section 1.5) of this thesis: (1) “What is the relationship between learners’ task engagement (as measured by the frequency of elaborative clauses, negotiation moves, disagreements, recasts, completing peer utterances, word count, time on task, turn count, and backchannelling) and their lexical learning?” and (2) “Is there additional evidence of lexical learning (in terms of the use of newly learned words and students’ perceptions of learning new words through the use of tasks) when tasks are used?”.

Chapter Five presented the results of multidimensional task engagement which emerged from the coding of different types of engagement and the frequency analysis for these. Chapter Six presented the result of students’ perceptions of task engagement which emerged from the thematic analysis of the questionnaire and interview data. This chapter (Chapter Seven) reports the results of the study in terms of lexical learning and the relationship between task engagement and lexical learning. The chapter presents the findings of the quantitative and qualitative data analysis and is arranged as follows: The first section presents the result of the vocabulary tests (Section 7.2), followed by the analysis of students’ responses drawn from the questionnaire and interview data (Section 7.3), and a content analysis highlighting the use of target words in the transcripts (Section 7.4), which together provide evidence of lexical learning. Lastly, the analysis of the relationship between multidimensional engagement and lexical learning is presented in Section 7.5. The chapter concludes with a summary in Section 7.6.

7.2 Frequency Analysis of Lexical Learning

This section presents the results obtained from the vocabulary tests in terms of frequency scores. Three different, but parallel versions of the test were administered - so although the form differed the content was the same. While the results discussed in the previous chapters pertained to only four tasks, namely the first two and the last two tasks (Task #1 and #2, and Task #11 and #12), the vocabulary tests focused on the target words for all twelve tasks (see Chapter Four-Methods, Section 4.5.2). The reason to include the target words from all tasks in the analysis was to see whether lexical learning could be supported by various task-based opportunities. Nevertheless, the target words from the first two and the last two tasks are highlighted in the discussion below, where relevant.

The three versions of the vocabulary test were given to participants on three separate occasions: the first was a pre-test which was administered before the participants engaged in doing the tasks, the second was a post-test which was administered right after the participants completed the tasks, and the third was a delayed post-test administered two weeks after the last tasks were done. The vocabulary test consisted of 60 multiple choice items. As such, the highest attainable score is 60.

As explained in the Methods chapter (Chapter 3), the tests were developed based on the vocabulary section of the Cambridge English Preliminary Test with appropriate revisions that were informed by the pilot study (see Chapter Four-Methods, Section 4.5.1). The tests were based on the target words which had been selected in view of their focus on two themes in the interaction tasks, namely 1) houses and homes, and 2) work and jobs. That is, the test items were limited to specific vocabulary sets. These words and themes were also reflected in the design of the tasks (see Table 4.2, Chapter Four-Methods, Section 4.4 Instruments).

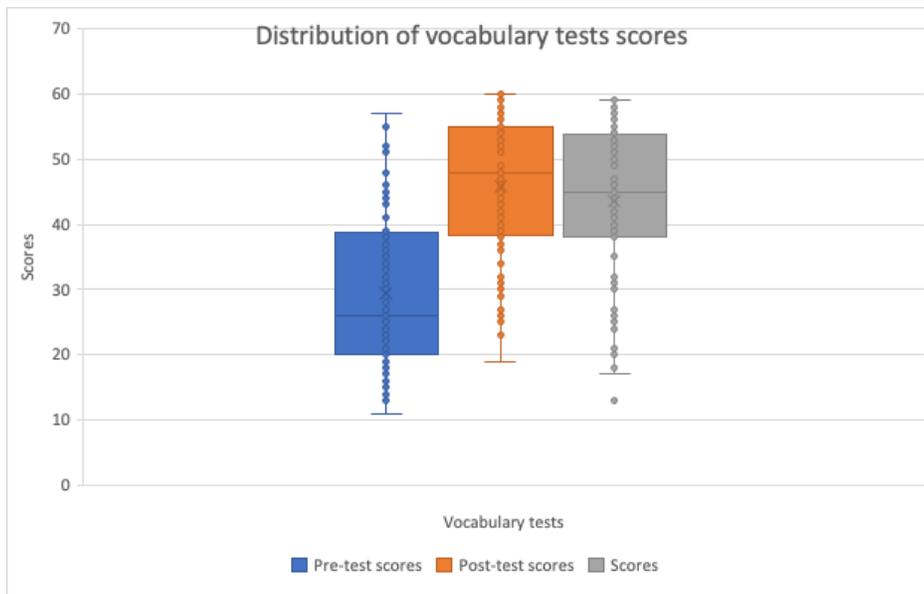
The function of the frequency analysis of the vocabulary test is twofold. Firstly, it is intended to see if learning takes place, by comparing the difference between the pre-test and the post tests. The analysis also included an analysis based on gender and proficiency levels. The key focus, however, was on which target words were learned and which were not. This was achieved by measuring the target words learning gain score. This is elaborated in the subsections below.

7.2.1 Frequency analysis of vocabulary test scores

Evidence of lexical learning was verified by comparing the result of the pre-test with the post-test and delayed post-test results. Figure 7.1 below displays the results from the vocabulary tests in terms of the distribution of scores from the three tests. The scores here represent the correct answers from the test. The shaded rectangles portray the scores which fall between a standard deviation of +1 and -1. The dots spread along the vertical line above and below the rectangles represent clusters of scores which fall between a standard deviation of +2 and -2. The mean scores are indicated by horizontal lines within the rectangles. Figure 7.1 indicates that the scores are spread within a range of 11-57 for the pre-test, 18-60 for the post-test, and 13-59 for the delayed post-test, with a mean score of 29.38, 45.65, 43.63 respectively. The trend suggests that, for the participant cohort as a whole, there was a substantial improvement of scores for the post test, and a slight decrease for the delayed post-test. Taken together this suggests that learning occurred and was generally maintained over time.

Figure 7.1

Frequency analysis of vocabulary test result

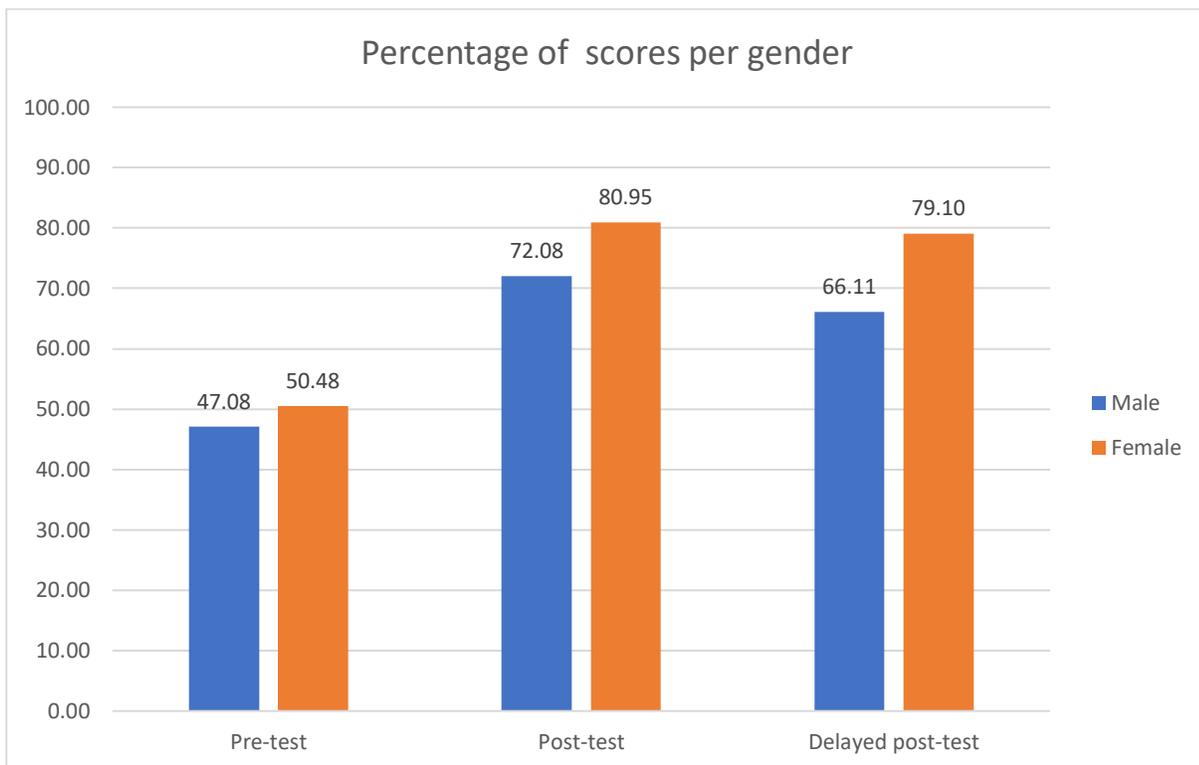


Comparing the results of the pre-test, post-test and delayed post-test, a pair differences t-test (conducted with IBM SPSS Ver. 26.0) returned a significant difference between pre-test and post-test, $t(71) = -15.727$; $p < .001$, and between the pre-test and delayed post-test $t(71) = -14.913$; $p < .001$, and between the post-test and delayed post-test, $t(71) = 3.083$; $p = .003$.

When compared by gender, female participants had slightly higher scores than their male counterparts for the pre-test, although the difference is minimal. This is illustrated in Figure 7.2 below. The gap of scores widened for the post-test and increased further for the delayed post-test. A one-way ANOVA test found that the difference is significant for the post-test, $F(2,71) = 4.456$; $p = .038$, and for the delayed post-test, $F(1,71) = 7.639$; $p = .007$. This suggests that female participants were able to learn and retain the target words better than the male participants.

Figure 7.2

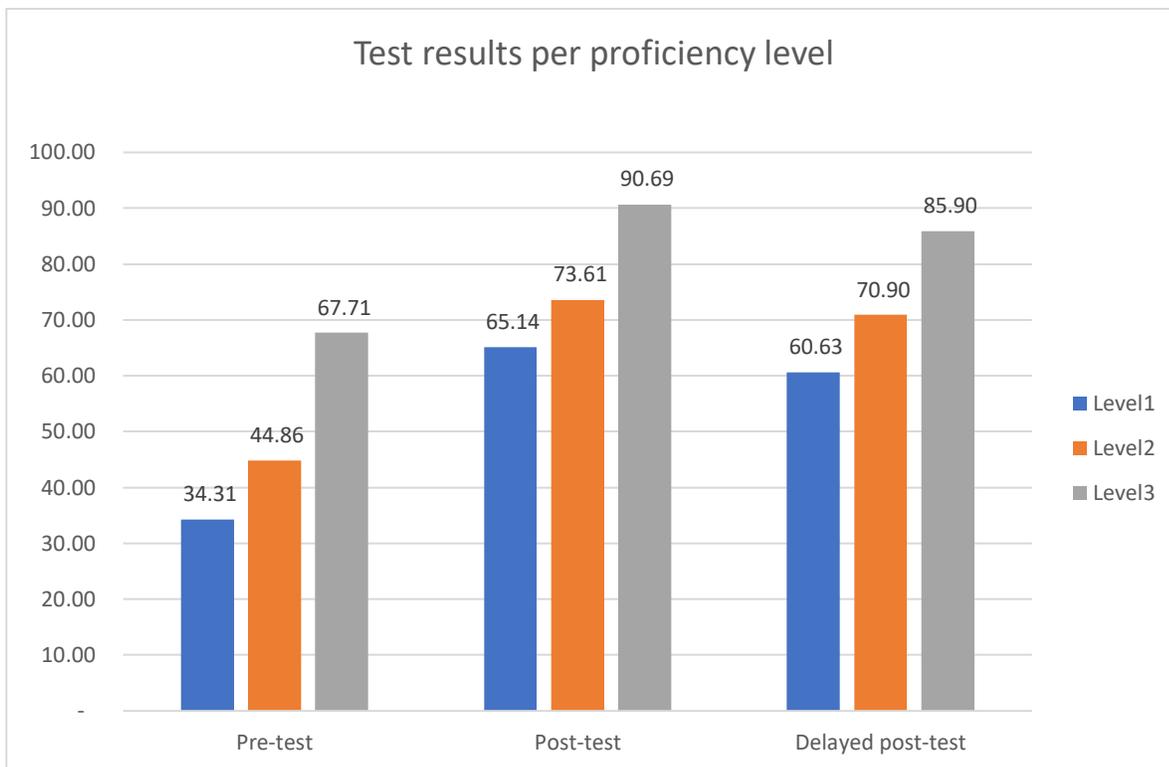
Percentage of vocabulary tests scores per gender



When compared in terms of proficiency levels, not surprisingly the results showed that participants with higher proficiency levels outscored participants with lower levels of proficiency, particularly for the pre-test. However, level 1 and level 2 participants were able to narrow the gap by the post-test, and even more so for the delayed post-test. Nevertheless, as Figure 7.3 shows, there was still a substantial difference between the three proficiency levels. A one-way ANOVA test found that the difference is significant for the pre-test, $F(2,71) = 36.766$; $p < 0.001$, the post-test, $F(2,71) = 15.729$; $p < 0.001$) and for the delayed post-tests, $F(2,71) = 12.405$; $p < 0.001$.

Figure 7.3

Percentage of vocabulary tests scores per proficiency levels



Overall, the frequency analysis provides evidence of lexical learning as demonstrated by the substantial increase of scores for the post-test and delayed post-test. It also showed that, firstly, female participants outperformed their male counterparts in lexical learning, and secondly, that the gaps between scores became narrower for the post-test and even narrower for the delayed post-test. These findings are complemented by an item analysis of vocabulary test target words as discussed below.

7.2.2 Item analysis of vocabulary test target words

By focusing on the frequency of vocabulary test scores, the item analysis is intended to reveal which items (i.e., target words) were learned by more participants and which were learned by fewer participants. This is measured by comparing the correct answers for an item in the pre-test and the post-tests, i.e., if the number of correct answers in the post-tests is greater than the number of correct answers for the item in the pre-test, then the item is considered to have been learned (see Munir, 2016). The higher the score the greater the learning and with a score of 0 indicating no learning (or gain). For example, there are 48 students who scored correctly for the target word "towel" in the pre-test, and in the post-test 66 students got the item correct. This means that the gain score of the target word is +18. In this study, this measure is called the target-word gain score, which is indicated by a number in the parentheses after the word (see Table 7.1).

The result of frequency analysis of vocabulary items is displayed in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1*Item analysis of target words classified based on their gain score*

Gain score intervals	Target words with post-test item gain score	Total items	Target words with delayed post-test item gain score	Total items
Negative to 0	Chef (0)	2	Chef (0)	1
1 - 10	<i>Vase (10), Antique (10)</i> , Basement (7), Lawn (6), Curtain (4), Gallery (8), Shower (1), Rent (5), Greengrocer (10), <i>Artist (9), Qualification (10), Pension (10), Quit (8)</i>	13	<i>Fan (10), Mirror (8), Vase (10), Antique (9)</i> , Chimney (2), Basement (7), Lawn (7), Curtain (5), Switch (19), Shower (1), Rent (5), Gallery (8), Factory (5), Judge (10), Guard (8), Chemist (6), Greengrocer (7), Profession (8), <i>Artist (5), Employ (6), Pension (6), Quit (2)</i>	22
11-20	<i>Towel (18), Dustbin (15), Fan (16), Mirror (14), Kettle (17), Pillow (14), Cupboard (16), Handle (14)</i> , Hedge (12), Property (12), City hall (19), Factory (11), Judge (12), Lawyer (13), Guard (13), Diver (19), Butcher (17). Chemist (17), Profession (15), <i>Diploma (14), Employ (16)</i> ,	21	<i>Towel (13), Dustbin (14), Kettle (17), Pillow (15), Cupboard (12), Handle (20)</i> , Hedge (11), Property (14), City hall (14), Lawyer (11), Diver (13), Carpenter (20), Butcher (12), <i>Diploma (11), Qualification (13), Newsagent (19)</i> ,	16
21-30	<i>Sink (22), Desk (28), Dish (26)</i> , Cloakroom (24), Furnished (25), Upstairs (28), Ceiling (25), Switch (24), Courtroom (21), Porter (29), Carpenter (28), <i>Newsagent (22), Wage (30), Candidate (30)</i>	13	<i>Sink (21), Desk (27), Dish (25)</i> , Cloakroom (22), Furnished (28), Upstairs (30), Ceiling (21), Courtroom (22), Porter (28), <i>CV (27), Occupation (27), Candidate (21)</i> ,	12
31-40	Chimney (37), Lavatory (35), Sheet (34), Tap (37), Clerk (33), Steward (36), <i>CV (33), Occupation (35)</i>	8	Lavatory (35), Sheet (35), Tap (31), Clerk (31), Defendant (33), Steward (37), <i>Wage (32)</i> .	7
41 -	Lounge (46), Bulb (48), Defendant (41)	3	Lounge (53), Bulb (47)	2

Note: Target words from Tasks #1 and #2, and Tasks #11 and #12 are highlighted in bold

Table 7.1 displays the target words in both post-test and delayed post-test classified by their gain score. The target words were classified into six interval groups. In the post-test, the gain scores ranged from 0 to +48. The majority of the target words were placed in gain score 11-20 interval group with 21 target words, followed by both gain score 1-10 and gain score 21-30 interval groups with 13 target words. There was no negative gain score target word, i.e. the item which received more correct answers in the pre-test than in the post test. In the delayed post-test, in contrast, the majority of the target words were in the gain score 1-10 interval group, with 22 target words, followed by the gain score 11-20 interval group with 16 target words. Another trend to note here is that the gain score was well maintained in the delayed post-test. Although the dominant interval group is lower in the delayed post-test, the changes in gain scores were minimal.

The list of the 10 most learned words were also revealed by the item analysis of the vocabulary tests. In the post-test, the most learned words were: bulb (48), lounge (46), defendant (41), chimney (37), tap (37), steward (36), lavatory (35), **occupation** (35), sheet (34), and clerk (33). In the delayed post-test, the most learned words were lounge (53), bulb (47), lavatory (35), steward (37), sheet (35), defendant (33), **wage** (32), tap (31), clerk (31), and upstairs (30). There were eight target words that featured in both the post-test and delayed post-test lists. This might suggest that what was learned in the post-test, was maintained in the delayed post-test.

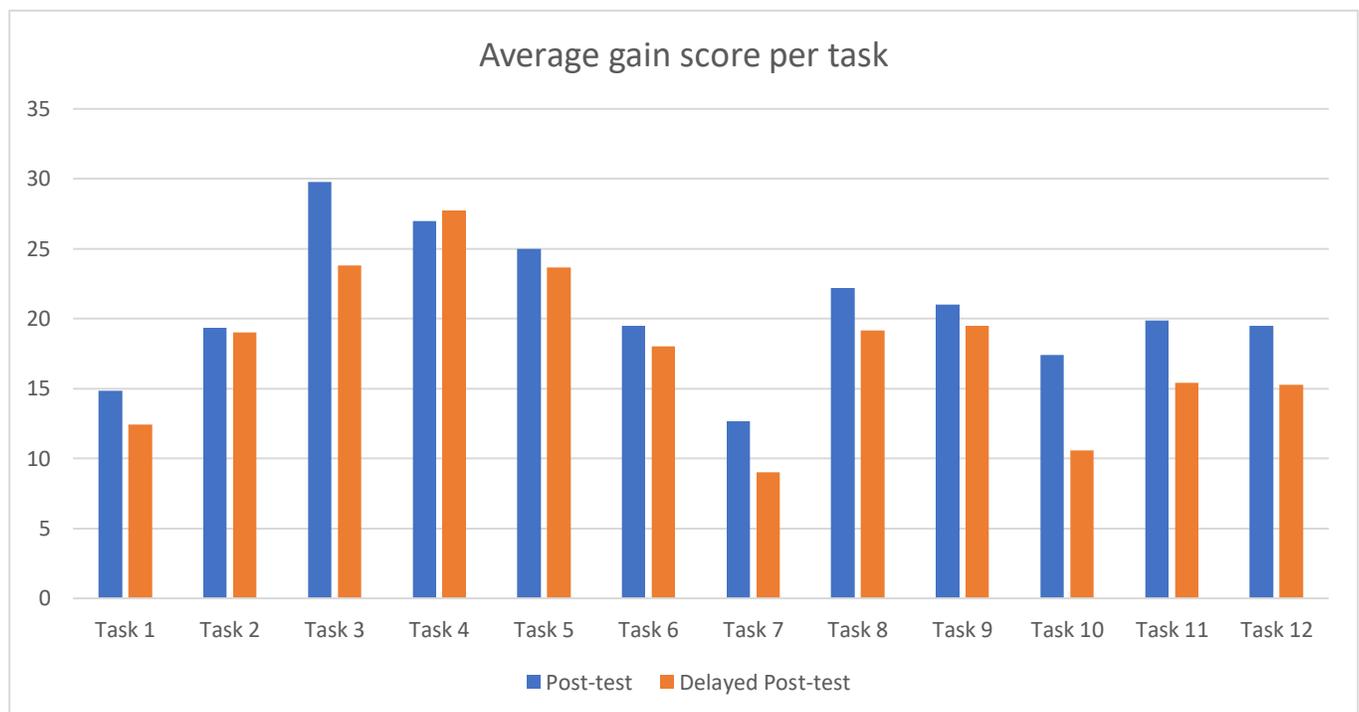
However, the 10 most learned words as perceived by the respondents as listed in their second survey (for more information about the survey, see Section 7.3 Lexical learning: Analysis of the questionnaire and interviews) produced slightly different results. According to the survey, the list of 10 most learned words as perceived by the participants were: defendant (33), clerk (33), prosecutor (24), bulb (18), **kettle** (15), jury (14), guard (14), chimney (11), judge (10) and hedge (10) (whereby the number in parenthesis refers to the number of occasions the words were mentioned). The participants' list included eight words which were also target words, and three of these words were listed as most learned words in both the post-test and the delayed post-test: bulb (48/47), defendant (41/33), and clerk (33/31).

In order to provide a more comprehensive analysis of the target words learned, the chart in Figure 7.4 compares the gain score of target words arranged according to task number (i.e., Task #1 to Task #12). The results of this comparison suggest that participants learned more target words in some tasks and

less in others. Task #3 (floor plans), Task #4 (the right accommodation) and Task #5 (dorm living) were all information gap task in which the participants exchanged information to solve problems. These tasks seemed to be most conducive for learning new words. The target words from these tasks were: basement (7/7), chimney (37/2), cloakroom (24/22), lavatory (35/35) and lounge (46/53) for Task #3, furnished (25/28), upstairs (28/30), ceiling (25/21), lawn (6/7) and hedge (12/11) for Task #4, and sheet (34/35), tap (37/31), curtain (4/5) for Task #5. Task #1 was one of the tasks with the lowest average of gain score target words, i.e., towel (18/13), dustbin (15/14), fan (16/10), mirror (14/8), vase (10/10), kettle (17/17) and pillow (14/15). The average gain score target words for Task #2, along with Tasks #11 and #12 were moderate when compared to the rests of the tasks. The target words for these tasks were: sink (22/21), antique (10/9), desk (28/27), dish (26/25), cupboard (16/12), and handle (14/20) for Task #2, CV (33/27), artist (9/5), diploma (14/13), employ (16/6), occupation (35/27), qualification (10/13), newsagent (22/19) for Task #11, and candidate (30/21), pension (10/6), quit (8/2), and wage (30/32) for Task #12.

Figure 7.4

Average score of post-test and delayed post-test target words gain score per task



Thus, the item analysis is not only useful for determining which target words were learned more often, but also which tasks contributed to more target words being learned. This information could inform the task design process to explore ways to make task more beneficial in terms of lexical learning.

7.2.3 Item analysis of target words used in the transcript

Even though the tasks included some suggested words to be used by participants when completing the tasks, these words were not necessarily used in the conversation. In fact, the participants were observed using different terms rather than the suggested target words. To examine the pattern of use, data from the transcripts for Tasks #1, #2, #11, and #12, and the actual use of target words (i.e., the number of occurrence) in task conversation employed were analysed. The results suggested that all target words were used in the conversation, however, some were frequently used, but others were rarely used. The range was wide, with the minimum occurrence being 6 and the maximum 217. Words like candidate (217), mirror (106), artist (100), fan (92), and towel (92) were the most commonly used words, while newsagent (26), wage (25), qualification (19), diploma (16), and occupation (6) were used less often.

Table 7.2 below shows the use of target words in the transcripts. It ranks the target words in terms of the number of dyads who used the words in their conversation. The result revealed that the majority of the dyads used target words in their conversation. It should be noted, there appeared to be no relationship between the use of target words in the transcripts with the target words gain score in both the post-test and in the delayed post-test. The item analysis presented in this section has revealed the most learned target words, and the number of occurrences these words were used in the transcripts.

Table 7.2

Comparison of target words ranked according to number of occurrences in the transcripts, number of dyads using the words, and compared to post-test and delayed post-test gain score

Rank	Number of target words used in the transcript	Number of dyads used target words	Post-test target words gain score	Delayed post-test target words gain score
1	Candidate (217)	Artist (35)	Occupation (35)	Wage (32).
2	Mirror (106)	Candidate (35)	CV (33)	CV (27),
3	Artist (100)	Fan (35)	Candidate (30)	Desk (27),
4	Fan (92)	Vase (34)	Wage (30),	Occupation (27),
5	Towel (92)	Career (33)	Desk (28),	Dish (25),
6	Cupboard (80)	Mirror (33)	Dish (26),	Candidate (21),
7	Vase (80)	Pillow (33)	Newsagent (22),	Sink (21),
8	Pillow (75)	Colleague (32)	Sink (22),	Handle (20),
9	Dustbin (71)	Dustbin (32)	Towel (18),	Newsagent (19),
10	Kettle (62)	Towel (32)	Kettle (17),	Kettle (17),
11	Sink (60)	Employ (31)	Employ (16),	Pillow (15),
12	Desk (58)	Kettle (31)	Fan (16),	Dustbin (14),
13	Dish (55)	Sink (31)	Cupboard (16),	Cupboard (12),
14	Handle (50)	Handle (30)	Dustbin (15),	Qualification (13),
15	Pension (48)	Pension (30)	Diploma (14),	Towel (13),
16	Employ (47)	Cupboard (29)	Handle (14),	Diploma (11),
17	CV (45)	CV (28)	Mirror (14),	Fan (10),
18	Antique (44)	Desk (28)	Pillow (14),	Vase (10),
19	Quit (31)	Dish (28)	Antique (10),	Antique (9),
20	Newsagent (26)	Antique (26)	Pension (10),	Mirror (8),
21	Wage (25)	Quit (26)	Qualification (10),	Employ (6),
22	Qualification (19)	Shopkeeper (22)	Vase (10),	Pension (6),
23	Diploma (16)	Wage (21)	Artist (9),	Artist (5),
24	Occupation (6)	Newsagent (18)	Quit (8)	Quit (2)

Findings from the frequency analysis confirmed, firstly, that there was a substantial improvement of scores for both post-tests suggesting learning occurred. Furthermore, this was maintained over time. Secondly, some words were learned more than others, the majority of the learned words were

maintained over time, and lastly, some tasks, especially the information gap tasks which required participants to solve problems, contributed more to the learning of target words than others.

Like the findings on task engagement (see Chapters Five and Six), the results from the statistical analysis of lexical learning are supplemented by findings from the analysis of the questionnaire and interview data. These are presented in the following section.

7.3 Lexical Learning: Analysis of the Questionnaire and Interviews

The following is a report of the findings based on the analysis of lexical learning as extracted from the questionnaire and the interview data. The questionnaire had two items related to lexical learning, each representing a predetermined aspect of lexical learning, namely: 1) noticing new words, and 2) using the new words in the conversation. These questions were designed to see whether data from this study supports the proposition that lexical learning is a two-fold processes, utilising input-based learning (noticing new words) and output-based learning (using the new words). The focus group interview also addressed these two aspects. The guided questions in the interview were: #7 "Do you learn new words from these activities?", and #8 "Did you try to use new words in your conversation?". However, additional data emerged from the discussion in the interviews, namely, discussing linguistic aspects of new words, as elaborated below.

As discussed earlier in Chapter Six, Section 6.2, the 5-Likert scale questionnaire was distributed two times to the participants, namely after the first meeting (Task #1 and #2), and the second survey after the last lesson meeting (Task #11 and #12). The survey and interview data was analysed from both a quantitative and qualitative perspective (e.g., see Chapter Four, Section 4.4).

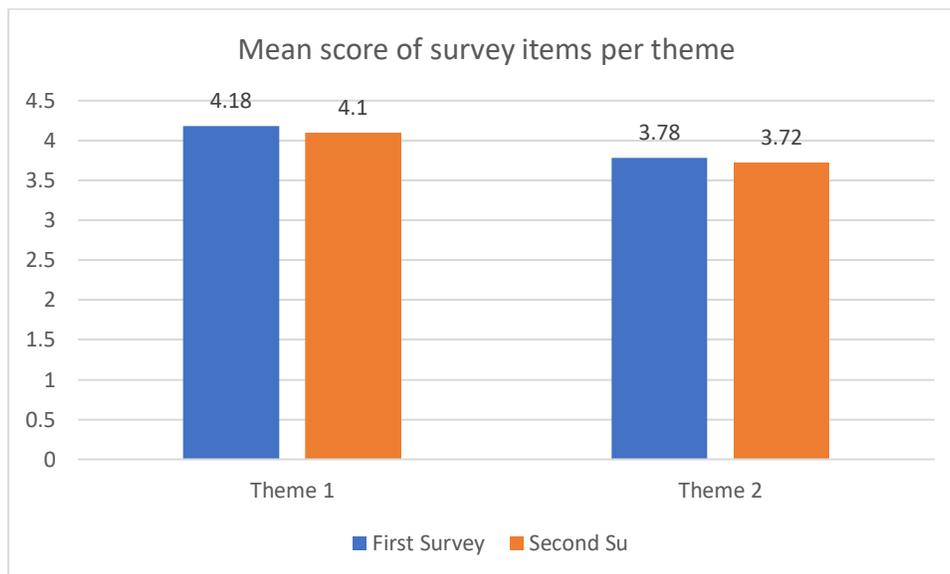
For example, the quantitative analysis of the surveys returned a mean score of 4.18 for noticing new words, and 3.78 for using the new words. As shown in Table 7.3 below the second survey returned slightly lower scores: 4.1 for noticing and 3.72 for using new words, respectively. Overall, the findings from the quantitative data showed that the participants noticed the new words in the tasks and were able to use many of these words in their conversation.

Table 7.3*Task engagement frequency scores from questionnaire*

Dimension	Questionnaire item (#)	First survey	Second survey
Input-based lexical learning	Noticing new words (#7)	4.18	4.10
Output-based lexical learning	Using the new words (#8)	3.78	3.72

* *This item only appears in the second survey*

Figure 7.5 compares the results from the first and the second survey in terms of mean scores. The maximum attainable score was five. The surveys returned scores ranged from 4.1 to 4.18 for noticing new words (interpreted as high learning), and from 3.72 to 3.78 for using the new words (also, interpreted as quite a high level of learning). Nevertheless, the difference between the first survey and the second survey is minimal.

Figure 7.5*Lexical learning mean scores from questionnaires*

In a similar manner, the interviews were also structured around two guide questions, which aligned with the questionnaire, and which were representative of the two main themes for this study. The additional theme that emerged from the data provided in focus group interviews reflects interaction-

based learning. As described in Chapter Six, Section 6.2, the interviews were conducted in a casual setting led by the researcher, where five or six participants discussed their responses to ten guided questions (six for task engagement and four for lexical learning). These guide questions were then followed by several follow-up questions to confirm or clarify the participants' answers. As noted previously, the interview was conducted in English; however, when needed, participants were allowed to continue their conversation in their native language (Bahasa Indonesia). The set of guide questions and follow-up questions that concerned lexical learning in two different dimensions are presented in Table 7.4 below.

Table 7.4

Lexical learning interview questions

Dimension	Guide questions (item #)	Follow-up questions
Input-based lexical learning	Did you learn new words from these activities? (#7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Have you learned new words from your partner? ● Did you teach new words to your partner?
Output-based lexical learning	Did you try to use new words in your conversation? (#8)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Do you think this task helped you learn new words?

Table 7.5 provides an overview of the main responses about lexical learning. The data does support the notion that input-based lexical learning is possible. The participants indicated their noticing of the words used by their partner and also words that partners were not familiar with. The responses were also supportive of output-based lexical learning showing that the participants focused their attempts on using words they were not familiar with. Finally, the participants also indicated responses supportive of interaction-based lexical learning, where learners explained or discussed features of new words (e.g., pronunciation, meaning, or usage).

Table 7.5*The main lexical learning responses*

Pre-set theme coverage	Main theme	Q item no	IGQ item no
Input-based lexical learning	1. Noticing new words	#7, #9	#7
Output-based lexical learning	2. Using new words in conversation	#8	#8
Interaction-based lexical learning	3. Talking about the new words		#7

*Note: Q item no = Questionnaire item no.
IGQ item no = Interview guided questions no.*

The findings from the questionnaire and interview data with regard to these three areas, as displayed in Table 7.5, are discussed in greater detail in the next sections. The three themes identified in this analysis were noticing new words, using new words in conversation, and talking about the new words.

7.3.1 Noticing new words

The participants' responses indicated that they benefitted from input-based learning, and especially from noticing the input (as per the noticing hypothesis). The learners described how they actively worked to notice the gap between their non-target form and the target form. In this study, noticing also refers to the conscious attention given to unfamiliar words which either appeared on the task sheet or were used by a partner during task-based conversation. This includes helping a partner to notice new words by highlighting words in the conversation.

For example, in response to question #7 as well as the follow-up questions: "Did you learn new words from these activities? Have you learned new words from your partner? Did you teach new words to your partner?", excerpts from the interview transcripts concerning these questions were as follows:

I see my partner try to use new words because she looks like still trying it ... to saying it correctly.

Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #1 female

I observe new things especially in communicating with my partner.

Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #3 female

These comments reveal that the respondent did notice her partner's words.

Yes, I notice a lot of new words.

Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #6 male

My partner start to use new word, I can see them.

Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #8 male

Again, noticing partners' lexical choices was obvious in these two comments.

I learn many new words from looking at these tasks.

Interview transcript no #3 Respondent #11 female

Yes, this activity helps me knowing new words.

Interview transcript no #4 Respondent #16 male

These responses showed that noticing new words from the task sheet also occurred simultaneously while doing task. These findings are also supported by the questionnaire responses with the relevant item returning a mean score of 4.18 for the first survey, and 4.1 for the second survey. These results suggest that the participants benefitted from the input-based lexical opportunities that were made available in this experience (see Table 7.3 and Figure 7.2).

7.3.2 Using the new words in conversation

The second theme addresses output-based learning, and in particular the participants' use of new words in conversation. Such use of new words indicates that the participants understood and were able to produce appropriate output related to the lexical items.

This theme was also addressed in questionnaire item #8: "When my partner used words new to me, I tried to use them myself". The questionnaire item returned a mean score of 3.78 for the first survey, and 3.72) for the second survey. These results indicate that the participants engaged in output-based lexical learning.

In the interview, guided question #8 and the related follow-up questions addressed this issue as follows: "Did you try to use new words in your conversation? Do you think this task help you learn new words?". Excerpts from the interview transcripts concerning this issue are as follows:

Yeah, I use lots of words I have just learned in this task.

Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #4 male

This suggest that the participant used the words from the task in his conversation.

Yeah, I use the new word in conversation.

Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #8 male

We use some words in the book.

Interview transcript no #3 Respondent #14 male

Some words I use in speaking.

Interview transcript no #3 Respondent #15 female

Again, these three excerpts showed that output-based learning occurred as the participants attempted to use the new words in their conversation.

Yeah, we feel we did a lot of improvement, especially in the new vocabulary that we learn and use.

Interview transcript no #4 Respondent #18 male

This comment similarly suggested that output-based lexical learning occurred.

7.3.3 Talking about new words

This theme emerged from the participants' responses where they explained how they would discuss the meaning and features of unfamiliar words (e.g., pronunciation or usage). In doing so, the topic of interaction would shift momentarily from the content of the tasks and focus on the metalinguistic aspects of new word used. These can be described as language related episodes (LREs) (Garcia-Mayo & Zeitler, 2016; Svalberg, 2009; Svalberg & Askham, 2014) within the interaction and were addressed in the interview. (Note: Findings based on an analysis of LREs are described in the next section).

For example, the follow-up questions to guided questions #7 and #8: "Did you teach new words to your partner?" and "Do you think this task helped you learn new words?" showed the following response:

Yes, and I also help my friend by teaching new words to her. And yes, my partner also help me providing meaning of some new words I don't understand.

Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #6 male

This comment demonstrates clearly that mutual support for lexical learning were provided by focusing their interaction on the linguistic function of the text.

When my partner don't understand what I mean, I repeat the new words. Sometimes I also give the hand sign or spell it so she can understand. We talk about new words we learn.

Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #7 female

Again, the linguistic focus occurred in this conversation based on the above comment.

Yes, my partner ask me to translate some words for him. So we discuss it

Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #8 male

Yes, in my pair, we discussed about the meaning or the pronunciation.

Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #9 female

When I don't know how to say it we discuss the word. I spell it to my partner, and she help me teach me how to say. And I also help teach her new words she don't understand.

Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #9 female

When I use the new word that I just learn, I use movement... body language so my partner understand.

Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #5 female

These partners not only noticed and used some new words in conversation, but also discussed these linguistic features.

In summary, there appeared to be three ways in which the participants learned new words: 1) by noticing the words in the conversation, when doing the tasks, 2) by attempting to use the words in task-based conversation, and 3) by talking about the new words with their partner. The content analysis in the next section discusses how evidence from the questionnaire and interview data was also reflected in the transcripts of the tasks.

7.4 Content analysis of lexical learning

A content analysis was undertaken to explore if there was additional evidence for lexical learning, by focusing specifically on language related episodes (LREs). As noted above, LREs mark a detour in a conversation so the interlocutors can focus on specific linguistic aspects, such as new words.

Throughout the task-based interactions in this study the participants used new words for different linguistic purposes, such as to compare and contrast, to match and to evaluate, to provide summaries and conclusions. Nevertheless, there were specific occasions where the pronunciation, meaning and use of words were given emphasis in the participants' interactions (Garcia-Mayo & Zeitler, 2016; Svalberg, 2009; Svalberg & Askham, 2014). These LRE's are the focus of the content analysis.

As outlined in Section 7.3, the interview data revealed that participants described how they discussed the pronunciation, meaning and use of new words used during their task performance – that is, how they engaged in LREs. This section describes the four types of LREs they used and how by doing so, their learning of a new word was supported: 1) introducing new words to the partner, 2) self-correcting unfamiliar words, 3) correcting a peer's utterance by prompting the word, 4) using native language to understand the term. These four ways are discussed in the following four subsections.

7.4.1 Introducing new words to the partner

In conversation, when a participant got stuck thinking about what word he or she was supposed to say, a ‘good’ partner would utter and sometimes highlight the word. Usually, the word would be repeated or used by the first speaker in the conversation. Sometimes, the partner would describe what the word is and its function, or even point to it in the picture. In this way, these new words were highlighted in conversation to make noticing easier, and thus could be identified as the evidence that task-based interaction supports lexical learning.

Examples of such instances from the transcripts are as follows:

Task #11 Opinion task (Dyad no 3, proficiency level 1, male and female)

- Male #2 Maybe Phoebe can work to be a ...
 Male #1 Flexible strong strong and flexible *shopkeeper* maybe ...?
 Male #2 Maybe Phoebe can work to be detective or newsagent.
 Male #1 *Shopkeeper*...
 Male #2 Or *shopkeeper*
 Male #1 okay, and now Aiden. What is Aiden job? She’s someone is an artist has excellent taste in art music and humour don’t like to be employee
 Male #2 Aiden maybe work to be ...
 Male #1 A school diploma maybe? Yes, I think.
 Male #2 Singer, artist
 Male #1 *comedian*
 Male #2 *comedian*
 Male #1 And ... and now Melinda. Melinda. what is job in Melinda? Melinda is smart good communication skill like study in university maybe Melinda jobs in a comedian ... a writer or ... shopkeeper maybe *newsagent*.
 Male #2 Melinda matches ...
 Male #1 Maybe Melinda can jobs is writer or *newsagent*, maybe!
 Male #2 Melinda...

Task #1 Spot the difference task (Dyad no 17, proficiency level 2, both male).

- Male #1: Do you have *mirror* in your bedroom?
 Male #2: Mmm, I not have
 Male #1: *Mirror* ... you don't have *mirror*?
 Male #2: Oh, I have, ... yah, I have
 Male #1: How, how about *fan*? Do you have *fan* in your bedroom?
 Male #2: Mmm ...
 Male #1: *Fan... fan!*
 Male #2: I have *fan fan* in my bedroom.
 Male #1: Are they small or big
 Male #2: Aaa... small, I think small

Task #2 Spot the difference task (Dyad no 17, proficiency level 2, both male).

Male #1: What's room in your task two?

Male #2: Mmm girl's dorm, mmm girl's dorm and cupboard and shine wall.

Male #1: There's not *bathroom*?

Male #2: Mmm, I not have... I not have *bedroom*.

Male #1: *Bath... bathroom*.

Male #2: Eh, *bath*. No... no no, I not have

....

Male #1: Do you have something *antique* in your room? *Antique... antique!*

Male #2: Oh I...

Male #1: *Maybe chair or vase* and what else?

Male #2: I think I not have not... not have *antique*

Male #1: So...

Task #2 Spot the difference (Dyad no 30, proficiency level 3, both male)

Male #1: Do you have *door handle*?

Male #2: *Door handle*?...Absolutely I have ... But in the fact of this photo, I guess. How about the *dish*?

Male #1: ...

Male #2: *Dish*,. To take your kind like, uhm... your plate or something.

Male #1: Oh!

Male #2: Do you have a *dish*?

Male #1: No. I don't.

Male #2: Oh you don't. in my room I have one *dish on my desk*.

Male #1: Is there any window in your room?

Task #1 Spot the difference (Dyad no 27, proficiency level 3, both female)

Female #2 Do you have pillow in your dorm?

Female #1 No I have ... I have not.

Female #2 Mmm okay do you have *towel* on your ... in your dorm?

Female #1 *Table*?

Female #2 *Towel*

Female #1 Yes I have.

...

Female #1 Do you have *towel*?

Female #2 yes I have *towel* in my dorm.

Task #1 Spot the difference (Dyad no 30, proficiency level 3, male and female)

Male: So same place with me, and table too?

Female: Yes

Male: Okay

Female: Uhm do you have *carpet*?

Male: What?

Female: *Carpet*?

- Male: *Carpet*. Oh I don't. I think I don't have
 Female: What about *vase*? Do you have *vase*?
 Male: *Vase*?
 Female: *Vase*.
 Male: Oh no, I don't have *vase* too.

7.4.2 Self-correcting mistakes of new words

Another way which could be seen as evidence for the way task-based interaction supports lexical learning is through the use of self-correction. For example, this occurred when participants made an attempt at using a new word and sometimes required several attempts to pronounce it correctly. The partner might provide support by modelling the pronunciation for them or, alternatively they let the first speaker make the correction him or herself. This is illustrated in the following excerpts from the transcripts.

Task #2 Spot the difference task (Dyad no 4, proficiency level 1, both male)

- Male #2 Oh, okay. Are you have a *cupboard* in your room?
 Male #1 I didn't have *cup... cupbard* in the room. Oh sorry... sorry. I have a *cupboard* in the room sorry... sorry.
 Male #1 Do you have a door handle in ... at girl's dorm?
 Male #2 No, I don't.
 Male #1 At boy's dorm... ahh have a door handle.

Task #2 Spot the difference task (Dyad no 6, proficiency level 1, male and female)

- Male Are you have a *washtafel*? And where is?
 Female Yes, I have in...
 Male *Sorry sorry*, are you have a *sink*? And where is?
 Female Yes, I have in... in here. Are you have a desk?
 Male No, I'm not... Eh, yes I have one in a desk.

Task #2 Spot the difference task (Dyad no 5, proficiency level 1, both male)

- Male #2 In my room again I have a window, and I have antique, I have desk, I have a pillow, I have a door handle, and I have *arm...armch...* and *armchair* and your house what you have?
 Male #1 In ... in my room I have cupboard. I have sink, I have wall, I have ceiling, I have *dish*, I have table, I have chair, I have floor, and I have one sofa.

 Male #2 I have a *disc...* I have a *dis...* I have a *dish* and I have a sink.
 Male #1 I don't have a door handle but you have.

Task #11 Opinion task (Dyad no 15, proficiency level 2, both male)

- Male #1 Phoebe is a strong and flexible and slim girl. And his CV really strong too in sport and he and she prefers vocational school, what uh career her to be?
- Male #2 She is better work in *newsstand*, *new*... eh *newshange*, she is better work *newsagent*, or detective or sport people.
- Male #1 Ok. And Aiden. He a boy at artist, has an excellent taste in art, you know art? And he is too excellent at music and humour, but he don't like to be employee.

7.4.3 Correcting peers' mistakes

In these instances, the speaker would identify a partner's mistake and correct them. By doing so, the partner who might not understand what the word means in the first place would realise his or her mistakes, and learn the new word. In this study, correcting a peer's utterances occurred when the speaker looked at the picture in the partner's task sheet, or when participants shared their task sheet with their partner during the task to help them understand, as shown in the following examples:

Task #1 Spot the difference (Dyad no 3, proficiency level 1, male and female).

- Male: This is my room... my room have a mirror, and you have a mirror?
- Female: Yes, I have. And you have pillow?
- Male: Yes, I have a pillow but my pillow uh... white. And you?
- Female: Blue!
- Male: *Uh, I have a towel. Can you have a towel?*
- Female: *I not have*
- Male: Can I have... vase?
- Female: Not I'm not vase.
- Male: *I'm sorry, you have a towel. This is towel.*
- Female: *But your towel is a ...*
- Male: Bed?
- Female: *And, I'm not have a fan!*
- Male: *And you have a fan. This is a fan in my room.*
- Female: Yes, I have!
- Male: And a dustbin?
- Female: *No. You have chair?*
- Male: *Yes I have. This is my chair.*

Task #2 Spot the difference (Dyad no 3, proficiency level 1, male and female).

- Male: Do you have desk?
- Female: Yes, I have.
- Male: *Do you have antique?*
- Female: *No.*
- Male: *You have! This is a...*
- Female: *Oh yes. I have.*

Male: Do you have floor?
 Female: Oh yes. I have.
 Male: Do you have armchair?
 Female: Yes I have.
 Male: And *door handle*?
 Female: No.... *I have*. Do you have sink?
 Male: Oh yes I have. This is my sink.
 Female: Do you have... cupboard?
 Male: Yes, I have cupboard.
 Female: **Do you have wall. This is my wall.**
 Male: Do you have... *ceiling*?
 Female: Yes *I have ceiling. This is my ceiling but not...*
 Male: *Beautiful*
 Female: Do you have dish?
 Male: Hmm yes. I have dish.

Task #2 Spot the difference (Dyad no 6, proficiency level 1, male and female).

Male: In my dormitory I have a floor and I have armchair beside the door handle or a door I have antique... yes antique I have desk I have a window.
 Female: I have a sink I have a cupboard I have a wall I have ceiling I have a dish.
 Male: Are you have a *washtafel*? And where is?
 Female: Yes, I have in...
 Male: Sorry sorry, *are you have a sink? And where is?*
 Female: *Yes, I have in... in here. Are you have a desk?*
 Male: *No, I'm not... Eh, yes I have one in a desk.*

Task #1 Spot the difference (Dyad no 14, proficiency level 2, both male).

Male #2: No, no I have *towel*.
 Male #1: Yes, we don't have *towel*... oh *you have*, but *your towel is right* there!
 Male #2: And we are mirror, but I'm I have mirror box and your mirror round.
 Male #1: Yes, we our mirror is different, your mirror is box and my mirror is round.
 Male #2: I don't have carpet.
 Male #1: You don't have a carpet.
 Male #2: Yes, I don't have carpet.
 Male #1: And your mirror is bigger than my mirror.
 Male #2: Right.
 Male #1: Yes, that's it.
 Male #2: Yes, finish.

7.4.5 Using first language to explain the word

In this case, participants would use their first language to explain the feature of a word when they could not do so using English. Although the task instructions had been clear about not using their first language, there were some instances where participants moved to Bahasa Indonesian during task performance. While some times this was done for clarifying the task, most of these instances occurred when explaining the meaning of unfamiliar words. Examples are as follows:

Task #12 Opinion task (Dyad no 36, proficiency level 3, both female).

Female #2: Ok, candidate one, so maybe she would be, uh , long term. no! I mean...

Female #1: She don't have...

(talking in Bahasa: apa artinya long-term? = what do you mean by long term)

Female #2: *(talking in Bahasa: artinya jangka panjang, atau kontrak yang panjang = this means long-term, or long contract)*

Female #2: Well, ...so, hire or not?

Female #1: So I mean, candidate one ...

Female #2: Candidate one maybe match.

Female #1: Company A?

Female #2: With company A.

Task #2 Spot the difference task (Dyad no 27, proficiency level 3, both female).

Female #2: Ah your wall, do you have ... what colour your wall?

Female #1: Mmm is brown.

Female #2: Brown?

Female #1: Yeah.

Female #2: Do you have ceiling?

Female #1: Ceiling? No I have not.

(talking in Bahasa: apa itu? kamu ngerti? = what does it mean? do you know)

Female #2: *(talking in Bahasa: ceiling itu kalo gak salah loteng rumah... ada di sini, iya, loteng rumah. = ceiling means plafond, yes this says ceiling)*

Female #1: *(talking in Bahasa: terus aku jawab apa. = so, what should I say?)*

Female #2: *(talking in Bahasa: jawab aja kamu punya... = just says that you have ceiling)*

Female #2: Do you have chair in your dorm? Chair!

Female #1: Chair ... no I have not.

Task #2 Spot the difference task (Dyad no 26, proficiency level 3, male and female)

Male: In my table in the room I have kettle and fan. Kettle, do you have too?

Female: *(talking in Bahasa: apa itu, aku gak tauh kettle. = what is that? I don't know what is kettle)*

- Male: (*talking in Bahasa: kalo gak salah pemanas air minum, itu yang kayak ceret tapi bisa dimasak= If I not mistaken, this means the tool to heat water. Like a jar but you can cook it*)
- Female: (*talking in Bahasa: kayakny kalo itu aku ada. = if that's so, I think I have one*)
- Male: (*talking in Bahasa: yah kalo gitu lanjut aja. =ok, let's continue then*)
- Male: Oh I don't have microwave.

Task #12 Opinion task (Dyad no 17, proficiency level 2, both male)

- Male #2: Company A long term contract travel and retirement plan.
- Male #1: What that mean about retirement plan?
- Male #2: (*talking in Bahasa: itu, kayak rencana pensium jadi sudah simpan uang banyak-banyak = it's like a retirement plan, so you can take pension after you collect a lot of money*).
- Male #1: I have the last candidate.
- Male #2: Candidate two company C international colleague.
- Male #1: International colleague, yes!
- Male #2: Higher wage.
- Male #1: Yeah.

The previous three sections (Sections 7.2, 7.3 and 7.4) presented the findings of lexical learning. The next section discusses the relationship between multidimensional task engagement and lexical learning.

7.5 The Relationship between Multidimensional Task Engagement and Lexical Learning

This section discusses the relationship between the two variables in this study, namely, multidimensional engagement and lexical learning in the context of task-based lessons. The relationship will be discussed in two ways. First, it will be discussed in terms of the findings which emerged from the correlation analysis of multidimensional engagement and lexical learning (Sub-section 7.5.1). This is followed by a thematic analysis of the relationship between engagement and lexical learning (Sub-section 7.5.2), based on qualitative data from the focus group interview. The results are then discussed in terms of four predetermined themes developed for task engagement, namely: Theme 1) cognitive engagement and lexical learning (Sub-section 7.5.3), Theme 2) emotional engagement and lexical learning (Sub-section 7.5.4), Theme 3) behavioural engagement and lexical learning (Sub-section 7.5.5), and Theme 4) social engagement and lexical learning (Sub-section 7.5.6).

7.5.1 Task engagement and lexical learning: The correlation analysis

The purpose of this correlation analysis is to uncover any statistical evidence of association between multidimensional task engagement and lexical learning. Data were drawn from the frequency scores for each coding measure denoting engagement (see Section 5.2), and from the gap between selected vocabulary pre-test and post-tests scores denoting lexical learning (Section 7.2). Note that the items drawn from the vocabulary tests only pertain to the target words for Tasks #1, #2, #11 and #12, since the data for task engagement were also drawn from these selected tasks. Therefore, only scores from 12 items in the vocabulary tests are used.

The results of the correlation analysis from the Pearson correlation analysis are summarised in Table 7.6.

Table 7.6

Correlation analysis of coding measures and gap of vocabulary test

	Gap of test 1 (Post-test minus Pre-test)			Gap of test 2 (Delayed Post-test minus Pre-test)		
	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2- tailed)	<i>N</i>	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2- tailed)	<i>N</i>
Elaborative clause	.16	.177	72	.22	.061	72
Negotiation moves	.37**	.002	72	.28*	.018	72
Disagreements	.45**	.000	72	.37**	.001	72
Recasts	.41**	.000	72	.33**	.005	72
Completing peer utterances	.18	.879	72	.07	.572	72
Word counts	.33**	.004	72	.23*	.049	72
Time on task	.37**	.001	72	.35**	.003	72
Turn counts	.50**	.000	72	.40**	.001	72
Back-channellings	.30*	.011	72	.27*	.022	72

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

From the data presented in Table 7.6, it can be seen that there is a significant correlation between task engagement and lexical learning (post-test) for seven specific coding measures, namely, negotiation moves, $r(70) = .37, p = .002$, disagreements, $r(70) = .45, p < .001$, recasts, $r(70) = .41, p < .001$, back-channellings, $r(70) = .30, p = .011$, turn counts, $r(70) = .50, p < .001$, word count, $r(70) = .33, p = .004$, and time on task, $r(72) = .37, p = .001$. Therefore, it can be concluded that the majority of engagement coding measures are associated with lexical learning.

Using the same correlation analysis, the association between task engagement and learning (delayed post-test) similarly revealed a correlation in the same seven coding measures, in this case, negotiation moves, $r(70) = .28, p = .018$, disagreement, $r(70) = .37, p = .001$, recasts, $r(70) = .33, p = .005$, back-channellings, $r(70) = .27, p = .022$, turn counts, $r(70) = .40, p = .001$, word count, $r(70) = .23, p = .049$, and time on task, $r(70) = .35, p = .003$. It can thus be concluded that a relationship exists between task engagement and maintained lexical learning.

7.5.2 Task engagement and lexical learning: Analysis of the questionnaire and interviews

The thematic analysis of task engagement and lexical learning resulting from data extracted from the interview transcripts was used to reveal the relationship between engagement and lexical learning as perceived by the participants. The four predetermined themes developed for task engagement were as follows, namely: 1) cognitive engagement and lexical learning, 2) emotional engagement and lexical learning, 3) behavioural engagement and lexical learning, and 4) social engagement and lexical learning. These four themes were designed to see the types of engagement and how they support lexical learning.

As mentioned in Chapter Six, Section 6.2, the interviews were conducted in a casual setting led by the researcher, where five or six participants discussed their responses to ten guided questions (six for task engagement and four for lexical learning). The interview was conducted in English; however, when needed, participants were allowed to continue their conversation in their native language (Bahasa Indonesia). The guided questions in the interview were: #9 "Do you feel you made progress with English by using these activities?", and #10 "Do you think that the more you participated, the better

your progress in learning new words?". These guided questions were then followed by several follow-up questions to elicit clearer answers. The set of guided questions and follow-up questions that concerned engagement and lexical learning in four dimensions of task engagement, namely, 1) cognitive engagement and lexical learning, 2) behavioural engagement and lexical learning, 3), emotional engagement and lexical learning and 4) social engagement and lexical learning, are presented in Table 7.7.

Table 7.7

The dimensions underlying the guided and follow-up questions on relationship of engagement and lexical learning.

Theme	Guided questions (item #)	Follow-up questions (guided question #)
#1. Cognitive engagement and lexical learning	#9. Do you feel you made progress with English by using these activities?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● (#9.) Will you recommend it to others?
#2. Behavioural engagement and lexical learning	#10. Do you think that the more you participated, the better your progress in learning new words?	
#3. Emotional engagement and lexical learning		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● (#9) Do you like it? ● (#10) Will a better topic help you learn faster?
#4. Social engagement and lexical learning		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● (#10) Will a better partner help you learn faster?

Table 7.7 provides an overview of the main themes of engagement and lexical learning that emerged from the study. The themes were predetermined according to multi-dimensional engagement theory, as used for the thematic analysis of task engagement (see Chapter Six, Section 6.2). The findings from the interview data with regard to the four main themes are discussed in greater detail.

Theme 1: Cognitive engagement and lexical learning

The first main theme of engagement and lexical learning deals with cognitive engagement. Cognitive engagement was defined as an investment in learning or “thoughtfulness and willingness to exert the effort necessary to comprehend complex ideas and master difficult skill” Fredricks et al. (2004:60). In this sense, it concerned with the participants’ attention to topics and the content of the conversation.

This theme was addressed by the guided question #9 and one of its follow up questions: " Do you feel you made progress with English by using these activities? Will you recommend it to others?". Excerpts from the interview transcripts concerning this issue are as follows:

Yes, this type of learning will definitely improve us learning new words.

Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #5 female

Yes, I will recommend it.

Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #8 male

I made many progress by speaking about these tasks.

Interview transcript no #3 Respondent #11 female

e

Theme 2: Behavioural engagement and lexical learning

The third theme of engagement and lexical learning deals with behavioural engagement which addressed the involvement and participation in tasks. According to Fredricks et al. (2004) the concept of behavioural engagement involves three aspects: the first being positive conduct (such as abiding by rules and classroom norms); the second being involvement and persistence in learning tasks; and the third participation in extra-curricular activities. In this sense, its focus is on both involvement and participation.

This theme was addressed by guided questions #10 “Do you think that the more you participated, the better your progress in learning new words?” Excerpts from the interview transcripts concerning this issue are as follows:

Yes, Yeah, I agree. More I participate in this activity.

Interview transcript no #4 Respondent #17 female

Yes, participating more will make more progress.

Interview transcript no #3 Respondent #14 male

Definitely, the more you participated the further your progress be.

Interview transcript no #3 Respondent #13 female

Theme 3: Emotional engagement and lexical learning

The second theme of engagement and lexical learning deals with emotional engagement which was defined as a feeling of connection or attachment with a peer in a pair-work task-based context and relates to motivation and the affective nature of involvement (Philp and Duchesne (2016). In this sense, it is concerned with the participants' interest and attachment to topics.

This theme was addressed by two follow-up questions, one to guided question #9 and one to guided question #10, namely #9 "Do you like it (the activity)?", and #10 "Will a better topic help you learn faster?". Excerpts from the interview transcripts concerning this issue are as follows:

Yes, I think I learn more when we talk about travelling or visiting interesting places, because I like travelling to new places

Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #1 female

I specifically like this activity, because my partner and I are doing completely different things. So we have to work alone and then work together. We have a different responsibility

Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #7 female

I think the topics were alright, but I like to talk about holidays

Interview transcript no #4 Respondent #18 male

Theme 4: Social engagement and lexical learning

The third theme of engagement and lexical learning deals with social engagement which addresses working with a partner on tasks, or collaboration between peers working on a task together (Philp & Duchesne, 2016).

This theme was addressed by one of the follow-up questions to guided questions #10: "Will a better partner help you learn faster?". Excerpts from the interview transcripts concerning this issue are as follows:

Yes of course, the more I know her, we can communicate better and learn more.

Interview transcript no #4 Respondent #19 female

When we know our partner before, we talk more and learn more.

Interview transcript no #4 Respondent #16 male

Yes, I like to choose partner next time, so we can talk better and learn faster.

Interview transcript no #3 Respondent #13 female

This section focused on the relationship between multidimensional engagement and lexical learning. The correlation analysis (Sub-section 7.5.1) found a significant relationship for most of the coding measures of cognitive, affective, behavioural and social engagement in the task meetings and lexical learning. Similarly, the relationship was also suggested for multidimensional task engagement and maintained lexical learning as noted in the transcripts. By the same token, this claim was supported by the qualitative findings from the thematic analysis (Sub-sections 7.5.2 to 7.5.6), which took account of how each dimension of task engagement might support learning new words.

7.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the findings of lexical learning. It first provided evidence of lexical learning by considering the quantitative results obtained from the vocabulary tests (Section 7.2). It was found that female participants performed better in the post tests, and that learners with lower and middle levels of English proficiency were able to attain results closer to participants with higher proficiency levels. The frequency analysis further revealed that most of the target words were acquired and maintained in the delayed post-test. Most of the target words achieved a positive learned gain score with minimal changes in both the post-test and the delayed post-test. However, some words were learned more than the others, with the majority of the most learned words in the post-test also found in the delayed post-test.

The quantitative results were then complemented by the qualitative findings from the analysis of the questionnaire and interviews (Section 7.3) which considered participants' self-evaluation responses

from the surveys and interview data. The analysis revealed three main ways for how new words were acquired: 1) by noticing them, 2) by using the words in conversation and 3) by talking about the words with their partner. These findings provide support for existing theoretical positions pertaining to input-based, output-based and interaction-based learning.

Following this, a report of the findings based on an analysis of the transcripts was presented (Section 7.4) which found that evidence of learning new words could be supported in several ways, namely, 1) by introducing new words to partner, 2) by self-correcting one's mistake, 3) by correcting partner's mistake, and 4) by using native language to explain the new words. Excerpts from transcripts revealed that the opportunities task-based interactions provided supported learning.

Lastly, the analysis of the relationship between the multidimensional engagement variable and the lexical learning variable was presented (Section 7.5) by means of a correlation analysis (Sub-section 4.4.1), followed by the thematic analysis of engagement and lexical learning (Sub-sections 7.5.2 to 7.5.6) which revealed the relationship between engagement and lexical learning as perceived by participants.

The findings based on the quantitative and qualitative data analyses presented in this chapter (Chapter Seven) and previous two chapters (Chapters Five and Six), together endeavoured to answer the two research questions: "What is the relationship between learners' task engagement (as measured by the frequency of elaborative clauses, negotiation moves, disagreements, recasts, completing peer utterances, word count, time on task, turn count, and backchannelling) and their lexical learning?", and (2) "Is there additional evidence of lexical learning (in terms of the use of newly learned words and students' perceptions of learning new words through the use of tasks) when tasks are used?". These are discussed further in Chapter Eight.

Chapter Eight

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

8.1 Overview

This chapter synthesises, summarises and discusses the key research findings presented in Chapters Five, Six, and Seven, which aimed to address the two research questions for this study.

The chapter is divided into three main parts: First, the findings from the quantitative and qualitative analysis of Indonesian students' engagement in task-based language lessons are discussed in terms of the cognitive, behavioural, emotional and social dimensions of engagement (Section 8.2). Next, the findings from the analysis of lexical learning in terms of learned target words, the effectiveness of the task-based method for lexical learning, and evidence of input, output and interaction-based learning are discussed in Section 8.3. The relationship between task engagement and lexical learning is then discussed in Section 8.4. The chapter concludes with a summary in Section 8.5.

8.2 Multidimensional Task Engagement

This section discusses the findings from the analysis of Indonesian freshmen's engagement in task-based English language lessons presented in Chapters Five and Six. This study takes the view that engagement is multidimensional; therefore, the findings are discussed in terms of the four dimensions outlined in this study, namely: cognitive (Sub-section 8.2.1), behavioural (Sub-section 8.2.2) emotional (Sub-section 8.2.3), and social (Sub-section 8.2.4) engagement.

8.2.1 Cognitive engagement

Cognitive engagement pertains to learners' "thoughtfulness and willingness to exert the effort necessary to comprehend complex ideas and master difficult skill" (Fredricks et al., 2004, p. 60). It is operationalised by sustained attention and mental effort (Fredricks et al., 2004; Helme & Clarke, 2001), as attentive listening or noticing (Philp & Duchesne, 2016; Philp, 2007), as well as reasoning (Philp & Duchesne, 2016) and as the responsive involvement in collaborative activities (Helme & Clarke, 2001) with an intention to complete the task.

In this study, the construct of cognitive engagement was measured using five coding measures, namely: 1) elaborative clauses (i.e., the verbalisation of thinking: questioning, exchanging ideas, making evaluative comments, giving directions, providing an explanation, and justifying an argument, see examples on Section 5.2.1); 2) negotiation moves (i.e., learners' attempt to reach an understanding, responsiveness and attentive listening, see examples on Section 5.2.2); 3) disagreement (i.e., reasoning and exemplification in an argument or disagreement, see examples on Section 5.2.3); 4) recasts (i.e., reformulation of incorrect form, see examples on Section 5.2.4); and, 5) completing peer utterances (i.e., verbalisation of thinking, see examples on Section 5.2.5).

The findings with regard to the cognitive dimension of engagement have been interpreted in two ways: first, in terms of the frequency analysis of cognitive coding measures (see Chapter Five, Section 5.2), and second, in terms of the results from the thematic analysis of the questionnaire and interview data, as related to the theme of mental exertion and motivation in task completion (see Chapter Six, Section 6.2, Table 6.5; see also Chapter Six, Section 6.3).

The main findings from the statistical analysis of coding measures for cognitive engagement (Chapter Five, Section 5.2.1) can be summed up as follows. The results show:

- 1) A high level of task engagement as shown by use of elaborative clauses and negotiation moves, with a moderate use of recasts, disagreements and completing peer utterances;
- 2) A skewed to the right histogram in terms of the spread of scores for all five coding measures (namely, elaborative clauses, negotiation moves, disagreements, recasts and completing peer utterances,) (see Chapter Five, Figure 5.1, 5.3, 5.5, 5.7, and 5.9; for a more detailed explanation, see discussion below);

- 3) A high frequency of disagreements for the spot the difference tasks as compared to opinion tasks; and,
- 4) A higher use of negotiation moves for students with higher levels of English proficiency.

With respect to these findings, because elaborative clauses indicate verbalisation of thinking, which involves exerting mental effort and attention to complete the tasks, a high level of use of these is indicative of the participants' cognitive engagement. Similarly, the high level of use of negotiation moves (although not as high as elaborative clauses) implies responsiveness and attentive listening by the participants in their attempts to reach an understanding. In contrast, the moderate use of recasts, and low use of disagreements and completing peer utterances, suggests less cognitive engagement at least with regard to these measures. However, it may be for these particular results that rather than reflecting low levels of cognitive engagement, it is a consequence of the participants limited resources in speaking. This claim is further supported by the participants' scarce use of disagreements, completing peer utterances and recasts – all responses that need heightened linguistic processing to execute, something that beginning EFL learners such as the Indonesian freshmen in this study appeared to have not yet acquired.

Furthermore, in the case of disagreements, previous EFL studies have shown that the act of expressing disagreement can be very challenging and can involve “a face-threatening communicative act which can disrupt the social equilibrium of a group” (Toomaneejinda & Hardin, 2018, p. 309). It has been argued that because disagreement can be discomfoting or offensive, it is used less in conversation (Pomerantz, 1984), especially among unfamiliar people. In addition, by not expressing disagreement, conflict can be prevented from happening and it could also help avoid making someone feel embarrassed or losing face. In other words, it could maintain harmony in the communication between the respondent and the addressee (Pomerantz, 1984). Therefore, the limited use of this interactional strategy may be because of social considerations, rather than a lack of cognitive engagement – drawing into question the use of this coding measure.

This is possible because of the cultural context in which the study was undertaken. That is, the Indonesian culture and social rules around polite conversation may have impacted the low number of disagreements in this study. Openly disagreeing with a partner in the middle of a conversation is seen as rude in Indonesian culture because it is perceived as belittling a partner's opinion or idea. In

Indonesian culture, one would avoid stating directly that a partner's opinion or idea is wrong or useless. Similarly, Indonesians are well known for exercising restraint in making someone lose face (Claramita et al., 2012; Windika, 2019). Even in the event when disagreements cannot be avoided, Indonesians often strive to soften their disagreeing response by expressing disagreement indirectly (Chojimah, 2015; Windika, 2019). In fact, many Asian cultures place great value on avoiding open expressions of disagreement and conflict (Claramita et al., 2012; Tannen, 1998). This could also explain why there were fewer disagreements in the opinion tasks than in the spot the difference task (e.g., see Chapter Five, Sub-section 5.2.3) and again draws into question the utility of this particular coding measure in the current study.

The interactional strategy of 'completing peer utterances' were also less used as by the Indonesian participants in the current research. This is similar to the findings of Tulung (2008), another study on communicative tasks undertaken in Indonesia. Specifically, Tulung (2008) found that completing peer utterances were one of the least used spontaneous language oral discourse moves made by 27 undergraduate EFL students in Indonesia.

As in the case of disagreement, Indonesian culture may have had impact on the low number of 'completing peer utterances' used in this study. It is possible that doing so could be perceived as interrupting a partner's speech in the middle of a conversation, which is seen as rude (Claramita et al., 2012; Windika, 2019). In Indonesian culture, interlocutors would normally avoid completing a partner's utterances, even when it is done with a good intention, for example, when trying to help suggesting the right words to use to a partner.

However, in the case of recasts that were less often used, these findings may have been a consequence of the method used, rather than reflecting the impact of the cultural context of the interactions. This was demonstrated in the qualitative analysis of the questionnaire and interview data (Chapter Six) where the participants described feelings of inhibition working in their dyads. Specifically, the dyads were formed only during the lessons, and most of the conversational partners had never been properly introduced nor met previously (see Chapter Six, Section 6.6.1). Therefore, the reasons for the differences in the number of recasts used could be explained in terms of social engagement (see Section 8.2.4 below) rather than cognitive (note that recasts can denote both cognitive and social engagement;

see Chapter Four, Section 4.5.2) in that the participants felt uncomfortable reformulating their partner's language.

Despite the different outcomes for the five cognitive interaction strategies, these results do show a high level of cognitive engagement by the Indonesian college students in the current study with respect to elaboration and negotiation. The use of these strategies showed verbalisation of their thinking and their efforts to reach an understanding by being responsive and attentive when listening. In this way, the findings align with those of other studies on cognitive engagement, especially those using similar coding schemes for measuring cognitive engagement as this study. For example, Qiu and Lo's (2017) study on task repetition and content familiarity, which involved 60 EFL students with lower-intermediate to intermediate levels of English proficiency in a Chinese university, like the current results, also found a high use of elaborative clauses and low use of recasts (they use the term self-repairs for recasts). Likewise, Lambert, Philp and Nakao's (2017) study on teacher-generated and learner-generated content in task-based design, which used elaborative clauses and negotiation moves as indicators of cognitive engagement, found that the frequency of elaborative clauses exceeded the frequency of negotiation moves, especially for teacher-generated task content. Their study, however, not only differs in terms of participants (Japanese) with higher proficiency levels (A2 to B2), but also in terms of the type of task, which was a narrative with a one-way flow of information which usually demands longer, independent turns, and is expected to involve more elaboration.

In contrast, Lambert and Zhang's (2019) study, which involved advanced English learners performing teacher and learner-generated tasks on both narratives and opinion tasks, showed similar trends to the current findings; that is, the results showed that more elaborative clauses were used than negotiation moves. Although the results of these studies cannot be compared directly to the current study due to differences in terms of type of task and context, as noted the findings are similar.

Another study of task engagement involving negotiation moves and recasts as a measure of cognitive engagement is Phung's (2017) mixed methods study which compared learners' engagement in a preferred and dispreferred task conversation, although Phung used the term repairs instead of recasts. The result of Phung's study was an average of 4.19 negotiation moves ($M = 5.24$ for preferred tasks and $M = 3.14$ for dispreferred tasks), and 8.93 for recasts ($M = 9.10$ for preferred tasks, and $M = 8.76$ for dispreferred tasks). Phung's results are comparable to the findings of the present study in terms of

negotiation moves ($M = 5.89$), which also indicated a high cognitive engagement. However, in terms of recasts, the findings are not comparable. Phung's study recorded more than triple the number of recasts (repairs) as found in the present study. It must nevertheless be noted that although the type of task and topic may be comparable to the present study, the participants in Phung's study were different. Not only were they international students with a high intermediate to advanced English proficiency level, but they were also living and studying in an English speaking country, and were well accustomed to conversing naturally in their L2.

The indication of high cognitive engagement was also revealed in the thematic analysis of the questionnaire and interview data related to task engagement (see Chapter Six, Section 6.2.2). The results of the thematic analysis for subtheme #1.1 Persistence in completing the tasks (see Chapter Six, Sub-Section 6.3.1) suggest that participants were willing to give their attention and invest mental effort in completing the task and not give into boredom or distraction. The analysis of the transcripts also shows that the participants repeatedly confirmed that they completed the tasks and that they did not get bored with the activity, again pointing to a reasonably high level of engagement. The analysis of subtheme #1.2 Motivation in doing the tasks (see Chapter Six, Sub-section 6.3.2) also suggests that participants were able to maintain motivation to keep being actively engaged in the task. That is, the task motivated them in a way that the participants were able to develop intrinsic motivation which is needed to be autonomous learners (Brown, 2007, Kohonen, 1992). Their responses suggested an intrinsic motivation in that the learners described feeling rewarded for doing and completing the task activity, which in turn, made them more motivated to carry out the tasks again.

The findings in relation to the cognitive dimension of engagement are complemented by the questionnaire and interview data (Chapter Six) in that the students described feeling motivated to complete the task because they enjoyed the type of lesson and because the task was new to them, challenging, and allowed them to be active and communicate naturally. They also appreciated tasks that had practical relevancy for them, such as talking to tourists.

However, some participants admitted that opinion tasks were perhaps a little bit too demanding for them. They also acknowledged that their lack of practice in speaking English could prevent them from conversing naturally. For example, they confirmed that they "are not accustomed to speaking, we usually do exercise on paper" (*Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #6 male*), and "We still can

improve. We need to practice talking like this again and again, and especially in the English class we need time to speak” (*Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #9 female*).

Lastly, the findings on cognitive engagement also highlight that students with higher levels of English proficiency used more negotiation moves than students with higher lower levels of English proficiency. This is not unexpected, since performing negotiation moves might require a higher mastery of language skills. And participants with lower levels of English proficiency might need extra time to develop their linguistic processing skills in order to execute such interactional moves.

This could also be explained in terms of the emergence of the fifth theme: Task difficulty in the task engagement (Chapter Six, Section 6.7). As it can be seen from the students’ responses, some of the participants in this study suggested that certain tasks were perhaps too difficult or too complex for them, although others might have found them challenging as well as stimulating. Excerpts from students’ responses related to subtheme 5.1 Difficulties in meeting task demand (see Chapter Six, Subsection 6.7.1) in task engagement suggest participants recognised that some tasks were too difficult for their level and that they had never been involved in an activity like this before. For example, students claimed that “the level of this task is quite high, and our English proficiency level is not that high, and I are [sic] not performing the best.” (*Interview transcript no #4 Respondent #19 female*), and “Because my speaking is not so good. It is quite difficult for me to recognise what word should I use, and difficult to arrange it for talk [sic].” (*Interview transcript no #4 Respondent #16 male*).

The differences in individual responses both to the tasks, and especially with respect to their ability to use English, was also reflected in the histogram analysis presented in Chapter Five. Here it is seen that the spread of scores for each of the five coding measures of cognitive engagement (i.e., elaborative clauses, negotiation moves, disagreements, completing peer utterances and recasts) were skewed to the right, meaning that the peak of the histogram is on the left of centre, with a longer hand gradually tapering to the right side (Doane & Seward, 2011). A skewed to the right histogram has the mean score on the skewing hand, which usually is higher than the median and the mode (Doane & Seward, 2011). This is due to the uneven spread of results, especially where there were several unusually high scores which altered the natural bell-curve shape. It could also mean that several participants conversed more naturally than the rest of the group. This could be due to their previous educational background (e.g.,

having graduated abroad or attended an international school) or previous exposure to more natural conversation (e.g., some participants had relatives who were NS of English).

8.2.2 Behavioural engagement

Behavioural engagement is concerned with the involvement and persistence in learning the task (Fredricks et al., 2004) or participation in the task (Fredricks & McColskey, 2012; Philp & Duchesne, 2016). It denotes the amount of effort, participation and active involvement in the task activity. In this study behavioural engagement was measured, firstly, in terms of the number of turns, the number of words, and time on task (e.g., see Bygate & Samuda, 2007; Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000; Pridham, 2001; Wong & Waring, 2010). Secondly, behavioural engagement was interpreted in terms of the subthemes that emerged from the thematic analysis of the interview data regarding behavioural engagement (see Chapter Six, Section 6.2), namely, subtheme 2.1 Grading your effort, and subtheme 2.2 Involvement in the interaction (see Chapter Six, Section 6.2, Table 6.5; see also Chapter Six, Section 6.5).

Overall, the results from the frequency analysis reflected a high level of behavioural engagement in terms of all three measures, namely, word counts ($M = 290.03$), time on task ($M = 822.61$), and turn counts ($M = 25.92$ turns) (see Chapter Five, Section 5.2, Table 5.3). Furthermore, unlike the other dimensions of engagement (cognitive, emotional and social), the histogram analysis, which measures the spread of scores showed a bi-modal distribution (a histogram with two peaks) with a larger cluster on the left for turn-taking, and well-balanced for both word counts and time on task (see Chapter Five, Section 5.2.7, 5.2.8 and 5.2.9, Figures 5.13, 5.15 and 5.17 respectively). On the one hand, for turn taking this could indicate that some participants were more involved in the interaction with their partner than others and others were more adept at conversing naturally (as also indicated for cognitive engagement in 8.2.1). However, the word count and time on task does suggest that all the participants were engaged behaviourally.

The results suggest a high level of behavioural engagement by Indonesian college students with respect to turn count, word count and time on task. All of these have been used as a measure for behavioural engagement, measuring the amount of effort, participation and active involvement in the task. This finding aligns with other studies on behavioural engagement, particularly those using similar coding schemes for measuring behavioural engagement as this study. Qiu and Lo's (2017) study on task

repetition and content familiarity, for example, recorded a high number of 176.40 words per task for familiar topics and 143.97 for unfamiliar topics, as well as 115.71 and 104.20 seconds in terms of time spent on tasks. In terms of word count, the results of this study are also comparable to Qiu and Lo's (2017) study ($M = 290.03$ words), however, in terms of time on task, the results of the current study are 205.5 seconds, which is almost double the time recorded by Qiu and Lo's (2017).

Lambert et al.'s (2017) study on teacher-generated and learner-generated content in task-based design produced a significantly higher frequency of word count and time on task which are also indicators of behavioural engagement. Their study recorded a mean frequency of 235 words and 420 seconds especially for teacher-generated task content. Again, it needs to be noted that their study differs not only in terms of participants (Japanese) with higher proficiency levels (A2 to B2), but also in terms of the type of task, which was a narrative task with a one-way flow of information which usually demands longer, independent turns, and is expected to be longer.

Similarly, Lambert and Zhang's (2019) study, which involved ESL learners performing teacher and learner-generated tasks on both narratives and opinion tasks, showed significantly higher indicators of engagement, in terms of word counts ($M = 246$ word/task) and turn counts ($M = 21.3$). However, while the results of this study are comparable with Lambert and Zhang's (2019) study in terms of time on task ($M = 215.17$), their study involved advanced learners of English who are not comparable to the participants in the current study who had lower levels of English proficiency.

Similar to the present study, which used the same three indicators of behavioural engagement, namely turn counts, word counts, and time on task, Phung's (2017) mixed methods study, which compared engagement in task preference, also measured engagement in terms of behavioural, cognitive and social engagement. The results of Phung's study showed an average of 26.5 turns (preferred task = 28.67, and dispreferred task = 24.33 turns), which is comparable to the average number of turns recorded in this study (i.e., $M = 25.92$ turns). However, in terms of word counts and time on task, the results showed a substantial increase. Phung's study recorded an average of 284.19 words used in tasks (preferred task = 305.71, and dispreferred task = 262.67 words), and an average time on task of 459 seconds (preferred task = 463.71, and dispreferred task = 454.29 seconds). As mentioned above in Section 8.2.1 concerning cognitive engagement, while the type of task and topic in Phung's (2017) study might be comparable to the present study, the participants in Phung's study were 21 international students in an

English-speaking country with high intermediate to advanced English proficiency levels, in contrast to the participants in the present study which were Indonesian freshmen with lower levels of English proficiency.

Another study that used both word counts and turn counts as indicators of engagement is Aubrey's (2017) study on inter-cultural contact and flow in a task-based lessons. This study compared the flow of conversation in a task dialogue between inter-cultural dyads (Japanese and L1 speaker) and intra-cultural dyad (both Japanese). Aubrey's study produced an average of 91.8 turn counts for the intra-cultural dyad, which is far higher than the result for the present study (mean = 25.92 turns). Similarly, in terms of word count, the average for Aubrey's study was 518 which is significantly more than the number of words in the current study (mean = 290.03). However, it should be noted that Aubrey's study is not comparable to the current study because of methodological differences: Firstly, because the procedure required learners to research the task content before the conversation, secondly, because the allocated time for completing the lesson was 25 minutes for each task, and thirdly, the participants were Japanese students with intermediate levels of English proficiency with a very good rating of English in listening and speaking.

Despite this, the indication of high behavioural engagement in the present study as suggested by the frequency analysis was supported by the findings from the thematic analysis of the questionnaire and interview data with regard to students' perceptions of task engagement, specifically theme #2 Effort and Involvement in interaction (see Chapter Six, Section 6.2, Table 6.3). There were two subthemes associated with behavioural engagement, subtheme #2.1 Grading your effort and subtheme #2.2 Involvement in interaction (see Chapter Six, Sub-section 6.4.1 and 6.4.2). Subtheme #2.1 - grading your effort - showed how participants rated their own effort in finishing the task very highly. Specifically, students awarded themselves grades in the range of 7 to 9.5, with 8 as the most frequent answer indicating a high level of effort. Their responses were supported with comments such as "Scoring my effort will be eight" (*Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #2 male*), and "Yeah, I give myself an 8 as well for effort" (*Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #4 male*) suggesting that participants evaluated their efforts in performing the tasks as high. Subtheme #2.2 - Involvement in interaction - was concerned with participation in the task performance and again the findings point to a positive response from the participants. Their responses included comments such as "I will not get bored when I am involved actively, particularly in doing task like this" (*Interview transcript no #2*

Respondent #6 male) and “Yes, more [sic] I participate in this activity” (*Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #10 male*) confirmed that most students were actively involved (behaviourally) in the task performance.

8.2.3 Emotional engagement

Emotional engagement is concerned with the emotional tone or affective use of language, which denotes motivated involvement during learning activities (Skinner et al., 2009), and a feeling of connection (Philp & Duchesne, 2016). The construct of emotional engagement is measured by the use of back-channelling (i.e., the affective use of language, especially in emotional tone, expletive, and responsiveness to pair talk, see examples on Section 5.2.9).

In this study, the results for the emotional dimension of engagement are based, firstly, on the results from the frequency analysis (see Chapter Five, Section 5.2). Secondly, emotional engagement in this study is also interpreted in terms of the results obtained from the thematic analysis of the questionnaire and interview data, as related to the theme of topic attachment and engagement (see Chapter Six, Section 6.2, Table 6.5; see also Chapter Six, Section 6.5).

The frequency analysis (see Chapter Five, Section 5.2, Table 5.3) reflects a high level of emotional engagement in terms of back-channelling with a mean of 5.64. Similar to the results for cognitive engagement, the histogram analysis which measures the spread of scores of the coding measures for emotional engagement resulted in a skewed to the right histogram for back-channelling (see Chapter Five, Sub-section 5.2.6, Figure 5.11). Again, this could indicate that some participants conversed with more emotional engagement than the majority of the group. As indicated in Sub-section 8.2.1 above (in terms of cognitive engagement) once more this could be due to their educational background or previous exposure to more natural conversations. However, it could also imply that a small number of participants were better at emotional engagement while speaking than the rest of the group.

The results suggest a high level of emotional engagement by Indonesian college students with respect to back-channelling, signifying affective use of language, especially in emotional tone. This finding aligns with other studies on emotional engagement, such as Lambert et al.’s (2017) study which compares engagement in teacher-generated and learner-generated content. This study also used back-

channelling as a measure for emotional engagement, but recorded a significantly higher frequency of back-channelling. Again, it needs to be noted that Lambert et al.'s (2017) study differs not only in terms of participants (Japanese) with higher proficiency levels (A2 to B2), but also in terms of the type of task, which were narratives, and often involved vivid emotional talk, unlike the present study which focused on spot-the-difference and opinion tasks which may involve a more reserved speaking style.

Lambert and Zhang (2019) analysed engagement in the use of language in teacher- and learner-generated tasks in both narrative and opinion tasks. One of the indicators of engagement in this study is back-channelling (cf. Lambert and Zhang use the term 'affiliative backchannels'), which is comparable in terms of frequency with the current study, especially in terms of teacher-generated tasks. These results, however, confirm the trend noted in this study, which is higher emotional engagement for narrative task and less emotional engagement in opinion tasks. Again, it must be noted that Lambert and Zhang's (2019) study involved advanced learners of English who are not comparable to the participants in the current study who had lower levels of English proficiency.

Aside from the use of language, emotional engagement also includes a subjective perception regarding the task, which acts as a filter to other types of engagement (Qiu & Lo, 2017; Lambert et al., 2017; Reeve, 2012; Pekrun & Linnenbrink-Garcia, 2012). This is confirmed by the thematic analysis of task engagement (see Chapter Six, Sub-section 6.2.2) as indicated by the participants' responses about engaging in topics which they reported at being interesting and familiar.

The results from the thematic analysis for subtheme #3.1 Topic interest (see Chapter 6, Sub-section 6.5.1) suggested that participants were more engaged in the topics they were interested in, as reflected in the higher interest in spot the difference tasks than opinion tasks. Students' responses confirmed this. For example, they declared that "My preferred topic is the one when we talked about dormitory" (*Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #1 female*). Another commented enthusiastically "Room furniture! Yeah, I will be more active when I like the topic" (*Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #3 female*).

The analysis of subtheme #3.2 Topic familiarity (see Chapter 6, Sub-section 6.5.2) also suggests that participants were motivated when talking more about topics that were familiar to them. For example, they acknowledged, that "I like this topic, because of it is relevance with our student life, especially we

as dorm students.... because it will give more motivation. When we like it, we are motivated to learn more” (*Interview transcript no #3 Respondent #11 female4*) and “I like it because I recently watch a movie about it” (*Interview transcript no #4 Respondent #18 male*). The results from the interview data suggested that the more familiar the topic is, the higher the emotional attachment and involvement.

8.2.4 Social engagement

Social engagement deals with the collaboration between peers working on a task together (Philp & Duchesne, 2016), as indicated by cooperation and attentive listening, and by drawing on ideas and providing feedback to each other. According to Philp & Duchesne (2016) this dimension of engagement has no stand-alone measure, but instead uses several trans-dimensional measures, such as completing peer utterances (see Section 5.2.5 for more examples) and recasts (see Section 5.2.5 for more examples) for cognitive-social engagement, turn-count for behavioural-social engagement, and back-channelling (see Section 5.2.9 for more examples) for emotional-social engagement.

In this study, the results for the social dimension of engagement – like for the other dimensions of engagement – are based, firstly, on the results from the frequency analysis (see Chapter Five, Section 5.2) and, secondly, based on the results obtained from the thematic analysis of the questionnaire and interview data pertaining to students’ perceptions on task engagement (see Chapter Six, Section 6.2).

The findings from frequency analysis with regard to the trans-dimensional measures of completing peer utterances, recasts, back-channelling and turn-counts yielded mixed results. For instance, mean scores were low for completing peer utterances), and moderate for recasts, but high for back-channelling and turn-count (see Chapter Five, Section 5.2, Table 5.3). The mixed results from the frequency analysis may indicate the social patterns inherent in the ways participants conversed with one another: For example, the low number results for completing peer utterance and moderate numbers for recasts might reflect feelings of alienation and inhibition when working with a new partner. This is particularly supported by the histogram analyses (see Chapter Five, Section 5.2.4, 5.2.5, 5.2.6 and 5.2.7, Figure 5.7, 5.9, 5.11 and 5.13 respectively) which produced either skewed to the right or bi-modal diagrams with a larger cluster on the left, suggesting unequal engagement among peers.

The results from the analysis also revealed a difference in terms of gender pairing (see Sub-section 5.2.5 Figure 5.10, and Sub-section 5.2.7 Figure 5.12). For example, all-male groups produced a higher frequency of both recasts and turn-taking than male-female and all-female groups.

These results are not surprising given the results of other studies of gender having confirmed that there can be differences, particularly in how male and female interlocutors behave when in conversation. For instance, Maubach and Morgan's (2001) meta-analysis of gender differences found, for example, that male students are higher risk-takers and better in spontaneous speaking. They are also more self-confident. In contrast, the oral production by female students is often more tentative, and they need to be engaged longer in the discussion, while their male counterparts were more self-reliant and confident (and sometimes are even over-confident in their oral abilities) (Browne, 1996; Maubach & Morgan, 2001).

This could be one reason for the difference between gender pairing in terms of recasts and turn-taking. However, there could be another reason for this. The results in the current study show that there was substantially lower use of recasts and turn-taking in groups with female participants, and inhibition usually occurs more in groups with female participants when talking to unfamiliar people (Tannen, 1998). Inhibition in interactions, therefore, might have played a part in this study, because as noted previously, the dyads were formed only during the lessons and could involve partners they had not met before.

The moderate use of recasts, which signifies cognitive-social engagement in this study, aligns with the finding of Qiu and Lo's (2017) study on task repetition and content familiarity. Their study also recorded a low average of recasts (although they used the term self-repairs instead of recasts) used by 60 EFL students with lower-intermediate to intermediate levels of English proficiency in a Chinese university. In another study, however, where participants' level of English proficiency was higher, such as in Phung's (2017) study on engagements in preferred and dispreferred tasks, a much higher use of recasts 8.93 was recorded ($M = 9.10$ for preferred tasks, and $M = 8.76$ for dispreferred tasks). Phung's study recorded more than triple the number of recasts (repairs) as found in the present study. However, as mentioned in Sub-sections 8.2.1 and 8.2.2 above, although the type of task and topic may be comparable to this study, the participants' characteristics were different.

In case of turn-count, which denotes behavioural social engagement, the recorded high number of turn counts for this study, with an average of 25.92 turns, is comparable to Lambert and Zhang's (2019) study ($M = 21.3$ turns in a teacher generated task) and Phung's (2017) study ($M = 26.5$ turns, preferred task = 28.67, and dispreferred task = 24.33 turns) (see sub-section 8.2.2 for more information).

However, this result is not comparable to the findings of Aubrey's (2017) study, which recorded an average of 91.8 turn counts for the Japanese learners. Moreover, the results of Aubrey's study may not be relatable to the present study for other reasons, as explained in Sub-section 8.2.2 above

Lastly, in the case of back-channellings, which denotes emotional-social engagement, the high result of back-channellings used by Indonesian college students in this study are comparable to the results of Lambert et al.'s (2017) study (transformed $M = 3.54$ for teacher generated task) and Lambert and Zhang (2019) study ($M = 5.67$ affiliated backchannels for teacher generated tasks) (see Sub-section 8.2.3 for more information). However, the results of the current study are not comparable to the results of Phung's (2017) study in view of the different English proficiency level of participants involved.

Despite this, the mixed results for social engagement, as revealed by the frequency analysis, were ameliorated by the findings from the thematic analysis of task engagement (see Chapter Six, Section 6.2), specifically theme #4 Engagement while working with a partner. There were four subthemes associated with this theme, namely subtheme #4.1 Acquaintance with the partner (see Chapter Six, Section 6.6.1), subtheme #4.2 Partner's noticing and ignoring in conversation (see Chapter Six, Section 6.6.2), subtheme #4.3 Encouragement and challenge from a partner (see Chapter Six, Section 6.6.3), and subtheme #4.4. Resolving differences with a partner (see Chapter Six, Section 6.6.4).

The findings from the questionnaire and interview data suggest that the participants' partners influenced the way they engaged in the conversation. For example, the results for subtheme #4.1 'Acquaintance with a partner' revealed that for dyads who had just meet for the first time, this strongly influenced how they communicated. In some cases, inhibitions arose where partners were too shy to talk. For instance, some students admitted that even when paired with a partner of the same gender, if they didn't previously know each other "there is always a shyness between us. We need to adapt to the way our partner talk" (*Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #7 female*). The attention received from a partner, as shown in subtheme #4.2 'Partner's noticing or ignoring in conversation' (see Chapter Six, Section 6.6.2) was also deemed to have an influence on the levels of social engagement. Students stated

for example that they appreciated when “My partner listens to me like I listen to her” (*Interview transcript no #3 Respondent #11 female*).

Again, the gender factor appeared to play a part in the level of social engagement that occurred. Students acknowledged for example that “It depends, I don't think it will be the same. Sometimes when we talk to partner of different gender, we feel shy. We cannot just talk about everything, especially when we did not know each other” (*Interview transcript no #3 Respondent #11 female*). Aside from this level of inhibition based on gender, the compatibility of the partnership also appeared to carry some weight, specifically with regard to subtheme #4.3 Encouragement and challenge from a partner (see Chapter 6, Section 6.6.3). Students indicated for example that “It depends on whether the person is compatible to me, then it would be better” (*Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #9 female*). The findings for Theme #4 Engagement while working with a partner also suggested that the type of partner could affect the interaction. For example, some partners demand more ideas, but some are disinterested in the partnership and prefer to work alone and discouraged talking. One student clarified, for instance, that “It depends on which person, not really about gender but more on the personality. Whether he or she can work together in a team or not” (*Interview transcript no #3 Respondent #12 male*).

In order to be engaged socially in mutual conversation, both parties need sufficient self-confidence. Initiating a communication might involve boldness and willingness to take a risk. Therefore, those who are risk-takers and have higher self-confidence are expected to have a higher social engagement (Browne, 1996).

In general, the Indonesian freshmen appeared to be highly engaged in the tasks trans-dimensionally. The college students appeared to deliberately use some measures of task engagement, although some indicators were used more often, such as elaborative clauses, negotiation moves, turn count, word count, time on task, and back-channelling. Recasts were used less often. However, some linguistically challenging measures were used very scarcely, such as the cognitive indicators of disagreement, and the cognitive-social indicators of recasts and completing peer utterances. Despite this, the students' high engagement was supported by their responses to the questionnaire and in their interviews.

Generally, the histograms in all dimensions, except for behavioural engagement, showed a skewed to the right shape which suggests that only a very small number of participants engaged in more

communication. The interview data, in turn, suggested that learners perceived that the tasks were difficult, both in terms of meeting the task demand, and in term of using English to convey intentions.

8.3 Lexical Learning

This section discusses the findings from the analysis of Indonesian freshmen's lexical learning when engaged in tasks, as presented in Chapter Seven. This study analysed lexical learning in three ways: Firstly, in terms of the statistical findings from the vocabulary test scores (Chapter Seven, Section 7.2), secondly, in terms of learners' perceptions about lexical learning on the basis of their questionnaire and interview responses (Chapter Seven, Section 7.3), and lastly, in terms of a content analysis of the transcripts (Chapter Seven, Section 7.4). The findings from these analyses are summarised in the following sections: Lexical learning effectiveness of using task are discussed in Sub-section 8.3.1., followed by the processes of lexical learning, which are discussed in terms of input-based lexical learning, output-based lexical learning, and interaction-based learning in Sub-section 8.3.2.

8.3.1 Lexical learning effectiveness in using task

In Chapter Seven (Section 7.2), data from three vocabulary test scores, namely pre-test, post-test and delayed post-test were analysed. The analysis compared the pre-test scores to the two post-tests scores to determine if any improvement was made by the participants in learning the target words. That is, if the post-test scores were higher than the pre-test scores, it was presumed that learning may have occurred. Further, if the delayed post-test showed similar results, it was surmised that learning may have been maintained over time.

As discussed in Chapter Seven (Sub-section 7.2.1), a paired sample t-test showed a significant difference between pre-test and post-test ($t = -15.727$; $p = 0.000$; $p < 0.05$), and between the pre-test and delayed post-test ($t = -14.913$; $p = 0.000$; $p < 0.05$). The results showed that there was a significant increase of scores for the post-test and the delayed post-test, as compared to the pre-test. This suggests not only that lexical learning occurred, but also that it was maintained over time.

An item analysis was also conducted to investigate the target word coefficient (see Chapter Seven, Sub-section 7.2.2). The positive coefficient for 59 out of 60 target words confirmed that learning occurred; however, some words were learned more than the others. In addition, the results show that the target

words were retained over time since the majority of the most learned words in the post-test were also found in the delayed post-test.

Together these findings provide support for the claim that tasks can result in lexical learning. This is consistent with the findings of de la Fuente's (2006) study, which found that not only was task-based teaching effective in learning new vocabulary, but it was also better than form-focused instruction (FFI) in terms of vocabulary acquisition. Likewise, Shintani (2013) who compared TBLT and PPP effectiveness in lexical learning also suggested that TBLT was more helpful in supporting the acquisition of set target words, although Shintani's study involved very young participants, not university freshmen as was the case in this study.

Another finding that emerged from the analysis presented in Chapter Seven suggested that female participants learned and retained the target words better than their male counterparts. Initially, female participants recorded slightly higher scores for the pre-test, but then the gap of scores widened for the post-test and increased further for the delayed post-test. A one-way ANOVA test (see Chapter Seven, Sub-section 7.2.1) found that the difference is significant for the post-test ($F = 4.456$; $p = 0.038$; $p < 0.05$) and for the delayed post-test ($F = 7.639$; $p = 0.007$; $p < 0.05$). This suggests that female participants were able to learn and retain the target words better than the male participants.

Although gender difference was not the main concern of this study and there was no special treatment favouring one gender, female participants' better results for lexical learning is interesting to note. One possible explanation for this could be that the female participants employed cognitive strategies which were more effective in improving vocabulary acquisition than their male counterparts (e.g., see Ansari et al., 2016; Bacon, 1992; Tabatabaei & Hejazi, 2011). For example, it has been reported that in terms of vocabulary learning strategy use, females were more willing to use learning strategies than males, especially in terms of formal rule strategies, input elicitation strategies, rehearsal strategies and planning strategies (Gu, 2003; Catalán, 2003). The qualitative data in this study showed support for such claims: For example, one student in an all-female group stated that: "I see my partner try to use new words because she looks like still trying it ... to saying it correctly" (*Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #1 female*). And another female student responded with: "On task #7 I cannot finish the task until I see my partners' paper later. And so do my partner. And it is fun when we trace back to see

how we got so wrong. We practice again how to properly say it in English.” (*Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #9 female*).

As this study has shown, task-based activities, in which students are given opportunity to converse in authentic communication, can facilitate the learning of new words. This finding thus has implications for EFL lecturers and programme coordinators to incorporate the use of task in their teaching syllabus due to its effectiveness in stimulating lexical learning.

8.3.2 The processes of lexical learning

This sub-section summarises the findings that resulted from the analysis of participants’ responses to the questionnaire and interview, discussed in Chapter Seven (Section 7.3). The first theme #1 *Noticing new words* (Chapter Seven, Sub-section 7.3.1) suggested that participants' noticing new words might be indicative of input-based lexical learning. The second theme #2 *Using new words* in the conversation (Chapter Seven, Sub-section 7.3.2) dealt with the output production of target words and how it provides opportunity for lexical learning. The third theme (#3) *Talking about new words* (Chapter Seven, Sub-section 7.3.3) showed how focus on form and negotiation of meaning appeared to facilitate interaction-based lexical learning. The following sub-sections discuss the findings from these analyses in terms of the three types of lexical learning processes as discussed in the literature review (Chapter Three, Section 3.2.1), namely input-based lexical learning (noticing), output based lexical learning (notice the gap) and the interaction-based lexical learning (negotiation moves).

Input-based lexical learning

Input based learning is concerned with the role of input and its enhancement as the primary source of language acquisition. Several hypotheses claimed that acquisition is input driven and, therefore, the focus of language lessons should be on the enhancement of input. Basically, the hypotheses differ in terms of the level of awareness required for the input to become uptake. In the ‘Input Hypothesis’ Krashen, (1985, 1989, 1998) proposed, for example, that no awareness (even subconscious awareness) is needed for input to be translated into uptake. In contrast, the ‘Noticing Hypothesis’ (Schmidt, 1990, 1993, 1994, 2001) suggests that some degree of awareness is needed for noticing the form. The third hypothesis, the ‘Involvement Load Hypothesis’ (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001a), on the other hand, claims

that full awareness (high attention) is necessary for input to be effective (for more information on the role of input, see Chapter Three, Section 3.2.2 Lexical intake).

In this study the focus on input-based lexical learning is on the participants' noticing the new words introduced in the task instruction and in the conversation. Noticing in this sense also refers to the conscious attention given to unfamiliar words which either appeared on the task sheet or were used by a partner during the task-based conversation. This included helping a partner to notice new words by highlighting words in the conversation. After a participant detected the glossed target words in the task sheet (as discussed by Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001a) or spotted the new word used by a partner in the conversation (see Schmidt, 1990, 2001), they would then focus on the form and meaning of the word.

The results from the thematic analysis for theme #1 Noticing new words (see Chapter Seven, Sub-section 7.3.1) suggested that the participants benefitted from input-based learning, especially from noticing the input (as per the noticing hypothesis). The learners described how they actively worked to notice the form of the word while attending to the meaning of the text. Responses such as “I learn many new words from looking at these tasks” (*Interview transcript no #3 Respondent #11 female*) and “Yes, this activity helps me knowing new words” (*Interview transcript no #4 Respondent #16 male*) suggesting that participants actively worked to notice the unfamiliar word together on the task sheet. As the target words in the task sheet were glossed - provided with a referent or translation - this provided an opportunity for participants to acquire both the word form and the meaning of the target words.

Responses such as “Yes, I notice a lot of new words” (*Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #6 male*) and “I see my partner try to use new words because she looks like still trying it ... to saying it correctly” (*Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #1 female*) suggest that the participants noticed the input and channelled their focus toward the meaning of the new words their partner was using (i.e., the participants engaged in a focus on form).

Evidence of noticing in this type of learning could also be seen in terms of Language Related Episodes (LREs) resulting from the content analysis of the transcripts as discussed in Chapter Seven (Section 7.4). LREs in this context are marked by a specific detour in a conversation in which the interlocutors focus on specific linguistic aspects, such as new words (Garcia Mayo & Zeitler, 2016; Svalberg, 2009;

Svalberg & Askham, 2014). In this study, linguistic aspects such as the pronunciation, meaning and use of new words were given emphasis in the participants' interactions.

The first type of LREs show how a participant introduces new words to the partner (see Chapter 7, Sub-section 7.4.1). Here, the first speaker would provide help to a partner learning new words, by uttering and repeating the words or even highlighting them. Sometimes, the partner would describe what the word is and what its function is, or even point to it in the picture. This would shift the focus of conversation toward the new words, to help make noticing easier. The process of introducing new words to the partner is illustrated in the following excerpt, where the words 'mirror' and 'fan' were repeated by the first speaker (Male #1) until his partner (Male 2) noticed the word and responded to it properly:

Task #1 Spot the difference task (Dyad no 17, proficiency level 2, both male).

Male #1: Do you have *mirror* in your bedroom?

Male #2: Mmm, I not have

Male #1: *Mirror* ... you don't have *mirror*?

Male #2: Oh, I have, ... yah, I have

Male #1: How, how about *fan*? Do you have *fan* in your bedroom?

Male #2: Mmm ...

Male #1: *Fan... fan!*

Male #2: I have *fan fan* in my bedroom.

Male #1: Are they small or big

Male #2: Aaa... small, I think small

Input-based lexical learning was, therefore, supported in the task conversation, and focus on form was made possible when the speaker introduced new words to a partner (see Chapter Seven, Sub-section 7.4.1). The new words were highlighted in conversation which helped to make noticing easier, and thus provides some evidence that task-based interaction can support lexical learning.

This study has demonstrated that noticing new words provides opportunity for lexical learning. This confirms the findings of de la Fuente (2006) who found that lexical learning was facilitated by the opportunity for learner noticing, especially when the focus is on both the meaning as well as the morphological aspect of words. On this basis, de la Fuente (2006) called for the use of the information-gap tasks for L2 vocabulary acquisition. She suggested that by asking students to process word meaning, these tasks promote attention to form and meaning.

This finding endorses the use of highlighting input in communication to assist noticing. In order to make input more observable, repetition (as seen in the excerpt above), contextual clues, and change of tone could be used. This is particularly important in an EFL context such as Indonesia, where students' access to more noticeable input-friendly listening materials are limited, and where teachers, apart from their fellow students, are the main source for oral input.

Output-based lexical learning

Output-based lexical learning is concerned with the role of language production for acquiring new words. Swain's (1985) 'Comprehensible Output Hypothesis' claims that in order to acquire new words, learners need opportunities to produce 'pushed output'—output where the learners struggle to make themselves comprehensible. The main function of output is to enhance fluency, and more importantly, to promote noticing, especially in situations where learners receive feedback to help them identify their gap in interlanguage knowledge which pushes them to modify their input (Swain, 1998, 2000).

Output-based lexical learning in this study is concerned with participants' use of new words in conversation. This is discussed in relation to the second theme of lexical learning that emerged in this study, which is Theme #2: Using new words (see Chapter Seven, Sub-section 7.3.2). The participants' responses showed that they were confident that when they used new words their partner would understand. Participants also discussed how they actively worked to notice the gap between the non-target form and the target form. Excerpts from the interview, such as “Yeah, I use lots of words I have just learned in this task” (*Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #4 male*), and “Yeah, we feel we did a lot of improvement, especially in the new vocabulary that we learn and use” (*Interview transcript no #4 Respondent #18 male*). These comments suggest that task-based learning provided the opportunity for the participants to have meaningful conversations which involved using newly learned words.

Furthermore, this opportunity for output production allows the retrieval of target words from the stored lexicon and can help in developing fluency and automatization (Albino, 2017; Gass & Mackey, 2014) (for more information regarding retrieval and automatization, see Chapter Three Sub-section 3.2.3).

The following full task transcripts provide insight on how the fluency produced by individual students improved over the course of being involved in doing tasks. The first transcript is from a peer interaction for Task #2, which is a spot the difference task recorded during the first meeting. The second transcript

is from a peer interaction for Task #11, which was an opinion task. Notice that in the second transcript, the flow of conversation is more natural and free flowing.

Task #2 Spot the difference (Dyad no 21, proficiency level 2, both female)

Female #1: I have one dustbin, one towel, one mirror, one kettle, and one fan.

Female #2: I have pillow, towel, vase, carpet, and chairs. What is the different?

Female #1: Uhm, the different is...

Female #2: Oh wait, you have not vase?

Female #1: I don't have vase and I don't have carpet. How about you?

Female #2: I have don't kettle, and... uhm, the different is the mirror. The mirror in this room is the oval and you?

Female #1: And in my dorm lilac my mirror is square.

Female #2: Okay.

Female #1: My bed is... the colour of my bed is white and black.

Female #2: And my colour in this bed... uhm... blue and white.

Female #1: What is this?

Female #2: Oven.

Female #1: Oven or microwave?

Female #2: Oven yes. And my room, I have the oven, and you don't have it.

Female #1: But I have uhh... kettle in my dorm lilac, and I have.

Female #2: What?

Female #1: Dustbin.

Female #2: Oh yes. I have no dustbin, and it's just the different

Task #11 Opinion task (Dyad no 21, proficiency level 2, both female)

Female #1: Okay the first is Aiden an artist, has an excellent taste in art, music and humour, and don't like to be employed. The second is Melinda, smart, good communication skill, like to study in university, and the third Phoebe, strong and flexible, slim, strong CV in sports, vocational school, so what's the job they can?

What the future careers they can do, or they can get?

Female #2: This have a seven...

Female #1: Job! I think uhm... Aiden is...

Female #1: Aiden.

Female #2: Is good... I think Aiden is good to be...

Female #1: Is good to be what? Hmm...

Female #2: Artist.

Female #1: So Aiden is good to be an artist.

Female #2: Is good to be artist.

Female #1: Art school... art school diploma! Ok, so the second is Melinda. What the job she...

Female #2: Melinda is good to be....

Female #1: Melinda is smart, good communication skill, like to study in university. So what's the job good for her?

Female #2: I think Melinda is to good to be a writer.

Female #1: Writer?

Female #2: Yes. Writer is must have a university qualification and Melinda have it.

- Female #1: Ok. The last person Phoebe, strong and flexible, slim, strong CV in sports, prefer vocational school.
- Female #2: Uhhh, ok I think uhhh, Phoebe is good to be shopkeeper because she...
- Female #1: Strong and flexible?
- Female #2: Ok yes, strong and flexible and she prefer vocational school.
- Female #1: Ok.
- Female #1: But I think, Aiden is good to be uhhh... comedian maybe...
- Female #2: Why?
- Female #1: She's umm an artist has an excellent taste in art, music, and humour
- Female #2: Ok?
- Female #1: I think comedian maybe short-term contract?
- Female #2: Uhhh.. Okay.
- Female #1: Yes. I think it's a good for Aiden.
- Female #1: Ok finish.

Fluency and automatization, which is developed overtime through oral practice, could also be observed in terms of the speaking rate or speech rate (Albino, 2017), the number of words (in this case, including phonemes) spoken in a minute. On paper, the fluency difference could not be observed but when put into the context of word count and time on task, the changes of fluency could be easily noticed. In the first transcript, the dyads produced 146 words over the course of 340 seconds (= 5.67 minutes), while in the second transcript, the word counts increased to 254 words while the time on task reduced to 241 seconds (= 4.02 minutes). Accordingly, the speech rate was 25.75 word per second in the first lesson meeting, which increased to 59.95 words per second at the last lesson meeting. This example confirms Albino's (2017) finding which suggested that a task-based approach improves EFL students' speaking fluency by boosting the speed of speech production.

The data in the interviews support claims about the efforts the participants made when pushing their output: "I see my partner try to use new words because she looks like still trying it ... to saying it correctly" (*Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #1 female*). It also shows that the participants engaged in a trial-and-error approach when using new words. Such a process is indicative of them noticing the gap between their non-target form and their effort to modify their output.

An analysis of the transcripts with regard to the third type of LREs, correcting peer's mistakes (see Chapter Seven, Sub-section 7.4.3), also provides evidence of negotiation moves between peers. In the following output-based learning episode, participants indicate a shift of focus toward specific linguistic aspects, such as pronouncing new words, and then modified it to make it comprehensible as demonstrated in the following excerpt:

- Task #2 Spot the difference task** (Dyad no 4, proficiency level 1, both male)
- Male #2 Oh, okay. Are you have a *cupboard* in your room?
- Male #1 I didn't have *cup... cupbard* in the room. Oh sorry... sorry. I have a *cupboard* in the room sorry... sorry.
- Male #1 Do you have a door handle in ... at girl's dorm?
- Male #2 No, I don't.
- Male #1 At boy's dorm... ahh have a door handle.

In the above excerpt, the second speaker (Male #1) attempted to imitate the pronunciation of the word 'cupboard' and modified his output in his attempts. Another example of modified output is shown in the following excerpt:

- Task #2 Spot the difference task** (Dyad no 5, proficiency level 1, both male)
- Male #2 In my room again I have a window, and I have antique, I have desk, I have a pillow, I have a door handle, and I have *arm...armch...* and *armchair* and your house what you have?
- Male #1 In ... in my room I have cupboard. I have sink, I have wall, I have ceiling, I have *dish*, I have table, I have chair, I have floor, and I have one sofa.
-
- Male #2 I have a *disc...* I have a *dis...* I have a *dish* and I have a sink.
- Male #1 I don't have a door handle but you have.

In this example the first speaker (Male #2) attempted to produce the words 'armchair' and 'dish', but had to modify his output to be able to be understood by his partner. Together this evidence points to the participants engaging in pushed and modified output and they did this when they noticed the gap between their interlanguage and the word form presented by their partners. This is reflective of the process facilitated the output-based lexical learning as proposed by Swain (1995).

This finding has implications for EFL teachers in Indonesia to use teaching strategies which encourage their students to speak. Lexis is learnt by using it in meaningful speaking practice and, therefore, speaking practice should be included in English lessons to allow students to use words stored in their lexicon and develop their speaking fluency.

Interaction-based learning

Interaction-based lexical learning is concerned with using language within meaningful interaction for the purpose of acquiring new words. It is grounded in Long's (1983) 'Interaction Hypothesis' which suggests that learning a L2 is facilitated by negotiation of meaning in interaction. Negotiation of

meaning helps learners direct their attention to linguistic features as well as provide meaningful input that in turn facilitates lexical learning (Long, 1983). The interaction-based learning process recognises the importance of both noticing (as in input-based learning) and noticing-the-gap (as in output-based learning) and incorporates the process of negotiation of meaning which facilitates acquisition (Long, 1996).

Instances of interaction-based lexical learning in this study were revealed by the findings from the third theme that emerged from the interview data, namely Theme #3: Talking about new words (See Chapter Seven, Sub-section 7.3.3). Here, participants explained how they would discuss the meaning and features of unfamiliar words (e.g., pronunciation or usage). In doing so, the topic of interaction would shift momentarily from the content of the tasks and focus on the metalinguistic aspects of new word used. Responses such as “Yes, my partner ask me to translate some words for him. So we discuss it” (*Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #8 male*), and “When I don't know how to say it we discuss the word. I spell it to my partner, and she help me teach me how to say. And I also help teach her new words she don't understand” (*Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #9 female*) suggest that task-based learning provides the opportunity for participants to discuss the metalinguistic aspects of the new words they used. This process of shifting the topic of discussion and starting to negotiate the meaning of the new word would then facilitate the process of noticing.

The content analysis of the third type of LREs, correcting peer's mistakes (see Chapter Seven, Sub-section 7.4.3), also provides evidence of negotiation moves between peers in the transcript. In this output-based learning episode, the participants shift their focus toward specific linguistic aspects, in this case the meaning of new words. The process of negotiation moves can be traced in the following excerpt.

Task #1 Spot the difference (Dyad no 3, proficiency level 1, male and female).

Male: This is my room... my room have a mirror, and you have a mirror?

Female: Yes, I have. And you have pillow?

Male: Yes, I have a pillow but my pillow uh... white. And you?

Female: Blue!

Male: *Uh, I have a towel. Can you have a towel?*

Female: *I not have*

Male: Can I have... vase?

Female: Not I'm not vase.

Male: *I'm sorry, you have a towel. This is towel.*

Female: *But your towel is a ...*

Male: Bed?

Female: *And, I'm not have a fan!*
 Male: *And you have a fan. This is a fan in my room.*
 Female: Yes, I have!
 Male: And a dustbin?
 Female: *No. You have chair?*
 Male: *Yes I have. This is my chair.*

In this excerpt, the second speaker (Female) did not realise that she had a 'towel' in her picture. It was only after her partner (Male) pointed this out and corrected her mistake that she was able to learn the meaning of the word 'towel'. This is also repeated with the word 'fan'. In this way negotiation of meaning served to help the speaker fully understand the meaning of new words.

Another example of interaction-based learning through correcting peers' mistakes can be found in the following excerpt, where the second speaker (Female) was not aware that she had an 'antique' in her room, until her misunderstanding was corrected. This peer correction may have helped to place the focus on the word meaning of 'antique'.

Task #2 Spot the difference (Dyad no 3, proficiency level 1, male and female).

Male: Do you have desk?
 Female: Yes, I have.
 Male: *Do you have antique?*
 Female: *No.*
 Male: *You have! This is a...*
 Female: *Oh yes. I have.*
 ...

Such corrective feedback provided by a partner demonstrates the process of negotiation of meaning, when learners shed light on the meaning of new words. Negotiation moves, therefore, create opportunity for interaction-based lexical learning to take place, and particularly through the use of tasks, are a way of providing opportunity for negotiation of meaning and interaction more generally (e.g., see de la Fuente, 2006; Shintani, 2013).

Lastly, there was evidence of lexical learning resulting from interactions between peers in their first language. According to the 'Involvement load Hypothesis' as proposed by Hulstijn and Laufer (2001a), acquisition of lexis involves the learner's use of all resources, including the use of first language (L1) in order to learn new words. Other studies have reported the use of L1 by adult learners for the purpose of clarifying the task instructions and for discussing vocabulary, particularly to help clarify the meaning (Azkarai & Garcia-Mayo, 2017; De la Colina & Garcia-Mayo, 2009). Azkarai and Garcia-

Mayo (2017) claimed that the use of L1 in a task-based context should be regarded as part of the task, because it usually provided essential cognitive support for focusing attention and for developing understanding. Further, L1 use is usually found in low proficiency EFL learners (De la Colina & Garcia-Mayo, 2009) – similar to the proficiency level of the participants in the current study.

In this study, the use of L1 helped the participants to understand the meaning of new words and this was shown in the fourth type of LREs identified by the content analysis of the transcripts (see Chapter Seven, Sub-section 7.4.4 Using first language to explain the word), which also provided evidence of lexical learning. In this case, participants would use their first language to explain the feature of a word when they could not do so using English. Although the task instructions had been clear about not using their first language, there were some instances where participants moved to their L1 during task performance. While sometimes this was done for clarifying the task, most of these instances occurred when explaining the meaning of unfamiliar words. An example of this is shown in the following excerpt where the use of L1 by the first speaker (Female #1) was used to ask the meaning of 'long term', which she did not understand. To clarify, the second speaker (Female #2) replied in the L1, providing the meaning of 'long term'. As soon as the first speaker understood the meaning of the word, they continued talking in L2.

Task #12 Opinion task (Dyad no 36, proficiency level 3, both female).

Female #2: Ok, candidate one, so maybe she would be, uh , long term. no! I mean...

Female #1: She don't have...

(talking in Bahasa: apa artinya long-term? = what do you mean by long term)

Female #2: *(talking in Bahasa: artinya jangka panjang, atau kontrak yang panjang = this means long-term, or long contract)*

Female #2: Well, ...so, hire or not?

Female #1: So I mean, candidate one ...

Female #2: Candidate one maybe match.

Female #1: Company A?

Female #2: With company A.

In summary, this study found three ways that lexical learning occurred as perceived by the participants, first by noticing new words, second by using the new words in the conversation and third by talking about the new words, sometimes in L1. All of these findings are linked to certain themes of lexical learning, specifically input-based lexical learning was linked to theme #1 Noticing new words; output-based lexical learning was linked to theme #2 Using the new words in the conversation; and,

interaction-based learning was linked to theme #3 Talking about new words (e.g., see Chapter Seven, Sub-section 7.3, Table 7.5).

Apart from the three themes resulting from the analysis of student perceptions, this study found that there were four types of LREs used by participants which could indicate their learning of new words, namely: 1) introducing new words to the partner, which is also related to the input-based lexical learning; 2) self-correcting unfamiliar words, which is related to the output-based lexical learning; 3) correcting a peer's utterance by prompting the word, which is also related to the interaction-based lexical learning; and, 4) using native language to understand the term.

8.4 The Relationship between the Task Engagement and Lexical Learning

This section discusses the findings from both the correlation analysis and thematic analysis concerning the relationship between task engagement and lexical learning, which was presented in Chapter Seven. In this study, the relationship between task engagement and lexical learning is discussed in terms of the findings which emerged from the correlation analysis of multidimensional engagement and lexical learning (Chapter Seven, Sub-section 7.5.1), followed by a thematic analysis of the focus group interview data (Chapter Seven, Sub-section 7.5.2).

This study takes the view that engagement is multidimensional; hence, the findings in this section are discussed in terms of the four dimensions outlined in this study, namely: cognitive (Section 8.4.1), behavioural (Section 8.4.2) emotional (Section 8.4.3), and social (Section 8.4.4) engagement.

In the correlation analysis, data for task engagement were drawn from the scores of the nine coding schemes, while the differences of scores between pre-test and post-test were used for the lexical learning construct (e.g., see Chapter Seven, Sub-section 7.5.1, Table 7.6).

It was found that the association between multidimensional task engagement and lexical learning is supported by statistical evidence. There is a significant, but positive and weak to moderate correlation between task engagement and lexical learning (post-test) in terms of seven out of nine coding measures, namely negotiation moves, disagreement, recasts, back-channelling, turn counts, word counts, and time on task. When using data from the delayed post-test for lexical learning, the same

seven coding measures showed a significant correlation. Therefore, it appears that a relationship does exist between task engagement and lexical learning, and that this relationship is maintained over a period of time.

The strength of the relationship, however, varies from one dimensions of engagement to another, as will be shown in the discussion in the following sub-sections. The strength of the correlational relationship can be interpreted as follows: a correlation coefficient under .2 is deemed slight, between .2 and .4 is a moderately related for correlation coefficient, and a correlation coefficient higher than .4 is high (see Fraenkel et al., 2015).

8.4.1 Cognitive engagement and lexical learning

As discussed previously (see Sub-section 8.2.1), cognitive engagement refers to sustained attention and mental effort (Fredricks et al., 2004; Helme & Clarke, 2001), noticing (Philp & Duchesne, 2016; Oliver, 1995, 1998; Philp, 2003), reasoning (Philp & Duchesne, 2016) and responsive involvement in collaborative activities (Helme & Clarke, 2001) with an intention to complete the task. In this study, it is operationalised using the coding measures of elaborative clauses, negotiation moves, disagreement, completing peer utterances, and recasts.

The correlation analysis (see Chapter Seven, Sub-section 7.5.1, Table 7.6) produced a mixed result in terms of cognitive engagement. Significant relationships between the cognitive dimension of task engagement and lexical learning were found for three coding measures, namely, negotiation moves, disagreements and recasts. The interpretation of this finding is as follows: negotiation moves ($r = 0.37$) were positively and moderately related to lexical learning, while disagreement ($r = 0.45$), and recasts ($r = 0.41$) were both positively and highly related to the lexical learning. The more the participants engaged in these three coding measures, the higher their lexical learning.

In this study, negotiation moves indicated learners' attempts to reach an understanding, responsiveness and attentive listening, while disagreements signified reasoning and exemplification in an argument or disagreement. Recasts, which are closely related to negotiation moves (see Azkarai & Oliver, 2019; Long, 1983, 1996; Oliver, 1995, 1998), denoted unstimulated correction with regard to learners' attempts to make their utterance understandable.

The correlation analysis, however, found that there were no significant correlations for the other two coding measures, namely, elaborative clauses and completing peer utterances, with lexical learning. Both elaborative clauses and completing peer utterances indicate the verbalisation of thinking, and particularly with regard to elaborative clauses this includes questioning, exchanging ideas, making evaluative comments, giving directions, providing an explanation, and justifying an argument. Although it appeared in this study that the verbalisation of thinking is not related to lexical learning, there was not enough data to support this claim.

To some extent, the results of this study can be compared to Ellis et al.'s, (1999) Saitama and Tokyo study, which investigated the type of input, comprehension and vocabulary acquisition in the use of tasks. The three types of input here were the baseline, pre-modified and interactionally modified input. The latter allows negotiation of meaning to take place, although the interaction was between learner and teacher. The result suggested that the pre-modified and interactionally modified input groups outperformed the baseline input group in terms of vocabulary tests. This study supports the argument that negotiated comprehension of the interactionally modified input may facilitate higher vocabulary achievement scores and also Ellis et al. (1999) claim that negotiation can only promote vocabulary acquisition.

In another study on lexical acquisition conducted by He and Ellis (1999), the pre-modified input was compared to interactionally modified input and negotiated output in terms of comprehension, vocabulary acquisition tests in terms of recognition and production test. In this study, the modified output group interacted with their peers and informed their assigned partner on how to do a task using their own way to describe or define the target words. The result of this study suggested that the modified output group outperformed both input groups in the vocabulary scores. This result suggested that peer interaction which allowed learners to use and negotiate new vocabulary was more effective than teacher-controlled interaction in fostering lexical learning.

The thematic analysis of the interview data which was concerned with revealing the relationship between task engagement and lexical learning resulted in the emergence of four themes (see Chapter Seven, Sub-section 7.5.2). Theme #1 Cognitive engagement and lexical learning (Chapter Seven, Sub-section 7.5.3), deals with participant attention and mental effort to complete the task-based activity.

Responses such as “Yes, this type of learning will definitely improve us learning new words” (*Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #5 female*) and “Yes, I will recommend it” (*Interview transcript no #2 Respondent #8 male*) suggests that participants realised the significance of completing the task-based activities for lexical learning.

Although the correlation analysis showed mixed results, the findings from the thematic analysis, particularly theme #1 Cognitive engagement and lexical learning, suggest that the relationship between cognitive task engagement and lexical learning is positive and significant, with correlational results ranging from moderate to high. Furthermore, this is supported by participants’ evaluations.

8.4.2 Behavioural engagement and lexical learning

Behavioural engagement refers to involvement and persistence in learning the task (Fredricks et al., 2004) or participation in the task (Fredricks & McColskey, 2012; Philp & Duchesne, 2016). In this study, it denotes the amount of effort, participation and active involvement in the task activity (see Sub-section 8.2.1), as operationalised by turn counts, word counts and time on task.

The correlation analysis (see Chapter Seven, Sub-section 7.5.1, Table 7.6) found a relationship between the behavioural dimension of task engagement and lexical learning. The correlations were significant for all three coding measures, namely, turn counts, word counts and time on task. The interpretation of this finding is as follows: turn counts ($r = 0.50$) were positively and highly related to lexical learning, while word counts ($r = 0.33$), and time on task ($r = 0.37$) were both positively and moderately related to the lexical learning. As such it appears that the more the participants were behaviourally engaged, the higher their lexical learning.

Although Ellis et al.’s, (1999) study was not related to behavioural engagement, it discusses how the type of input with more words input, turn (or in this case, redundancy), and time unit resulted in higher vocabulary achievement scores. This is consistent with the results of this study, which suggests that the more learners are behaviourally engaged, the more they learn new words. However, Ellis et al (1999) found no difference between pre-modified input and the interactionally modified input in terms of vocabulary scores. This means that engagement was not the only factor that could result in vocabulary achievement.

In terms of the thematic analysis of the interview data (Chapter Seven, Sub-section 7.5.4), theme #2 Behavioral engagement and lexical learning, which was concerned with participants' involvement and participation in tasks, revealed the relationship between task engagement and lexical learning. Responses such as “Yes, participating more will make more progress” (*Interview transcript no #3 Respondent #14 male*) and “Definitely, the more you participated the further your progress be” (*Interview transcript no #3 Respondent #13 female*) suggest that participants realised that their participation and involvement contributed to their progress in lexical learning.

Finally, Theme #2 Behavioural engagement and lexical learning supports the result of the correlation analysis. The relationship between behavioural task engagement and lexical learning is positive, and significant, ranging from moderate to high, and is supported by participants' evaluations.

8.4.3 Emotional engagement and lexical learning

Emotional engagement deals with affective use of language, which denotes motivated involvement (Skinner et al., 2009), and a feeling of connection (Philp & Duchesne, 2016). The construct of emotional engagement is measured by the use of back-channelling (i.e., the affective use of language, especially in emotional tone, expletive, and responsiveness to pair talk).

The correlation analysis (see Chapter Seven, Sub-section 7.5.1, Table 7.6) found a significant relationship between the emotional dimension of task engagement and lexical learning in terms of back-channelling ($r = 0.30$). The correlation is positive and moderate. The more the participants were cognitively engaged, the higher their lexical learning.

Tanaka (2017) discusses how vocabulary acquisition could be supported by peer engagement and disengagement according to the self-determination theory. Although Tanaka's study cannot be compared with the present study, the result is interesting since it suggests that vocabulary learning could still be evident in a demotivating learning environment and with lack of motivation on the part of the learners. However, Tanaka (2017) also suggested that enjoyment and intrinsic motivation are important factors in learning new vocabulary.

In terms of the thematic analysis of the interview data (Chapter Seven, Sub-section 7.5.5) the relationship between task engagement and lexical learning was revealed by theme #3 Emotional engagement and lexical learning, which dealt with participants' connection and attachment with the topic and content of the tasks. Responses such as "Yes, I think I learn more when we talk about travelling or visiting interesting places, because I like travelling to new places" (*Interview transcript no #1 Respondent #1 female*) suggest that participants' preference or attachment to a specific topic may contribute to their progress in lexical learning.

The theme #3 Emotional engagement and lexical learning supports the result of the correlation analysis. The relationship between emotional task engagement and lexical learning is moderate, positive and significant, and is supported by participants' evaluations.

8.4.4 Social engagement and lexical learning

Social engagement is concerned with the collaboration between peers working on a task together (Philp & Duchesne, 2016). Collaboration is signified by cooperation, attentive listening, drawing on ideas and providing feedback. In this study it is operationalised by completing peer utterances, recasts, back-channelling, and turn counts. The social dimension of engagement has no stand-alone measure, but rather needs to be seen as trans-dimensional (Philp & Duchesne, 2016). This includes considering measures such as completing peer utterances and recasts for cognitive-social engagement, back-channelling for emotional-social engagement, and turn-count for behavioural-social engagement.

The relationship in terms of emotional-social engagement was also discussed in Tanaka's (2017) study. Although this study found that there is no relationship between peer influences and vocabulary acquisition, she discusses the importance of positive peer influence for intrinsic motivation.

The correlation analysis for this dimension showed a mixed result (see Chapter Seven, Sub-section 7.5.1, Table 7.6). Significant relationships between social engagement and lexical learning were found for three of coding measures, namely, recasts, back-channelling and turn-counts. The interpretation of this finding is as follows: recasts ($r = 0.41$) and turn-counts ($r = 0.50$) were both positively and highly related to lexical learning, while back-channelling ($r = 0.30$) was positively and moderately related to the lexical learning. The more participants were engaged in using these three coding measures, the

higher their lexical learning. The correlation analysis, however, found that there were no significant correlations for completing peer utterances with lexical learning.

In terms of the thematic analysis of the interview data (see Chapter Seven, Sub-section 7.5.6) the relationship between task engagement and lexical learning was revealed by theme #4 Social engagement and lexical learning which was concerned with participants' collaboration and working with a partner on tasks. Responses such as "Yes of course, the more I know her, we can communicate better and learn more" (*Interview transcript no #4 Respondent #19 female*), and "Yes, I like to choose partner next time, so we can talk better and learn faster" (*Interview transcript no #3 Respondent #13 female*) suggested the participants' preference for a relationship with a partner because this contributed to their progress in lexical learning.

Although the correlation analysis showed mixed results, the majority of the coding measures for the social dimension of engagement did suggest a positive and significant moderate to high relationship with lexical learning. This finding is supported by the thematic analysis of the interview data, particularly theme #4 Social engagement and lexical learning. The relationship between cognitive task engagement and lexical learning is positive and significant, ranging from moderate to high and is also supported by participants' evaluation.

In summary, each dimension of task engagement was positively related to lexical learning, although the strength of relationship varied from one measure to another. The results showed that lexical learning was positively related to cognitive engagement in terms of negotiation moves, disagreement and recasts, to behavioural engagement in terms of turn counts, word counts and time on task, to emotional engagement in terms of back-channelling, and to social engagement in terms of recasts, turn-counts and back-channelling. This result was complemented by the results from the thematic analysis of the interview data in terms of four emerging themes. First, lexical learning was shown to be related to cognitive engagement in terms of attention and mental effort. Next, it was shown to be related to behavioural engagement in terms of involvement and effort, and emotional engagement in terms of connection and attachment. Lastly, lexical learning was found to be related to social engagement when participants discussed collaboration and working with a partner.

8.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter provided a discussion of the key research findings from this study, including findings of multidimensional task engagement (see Chapters Five and Six), lexical learning and the relationship between task engagement and lexical learning (see Chapter Seven). The first section in this chapter (Section 8.2) discussed the findings of task engagement in each of the four dimensions of engagement, namely, cognitive, behavioural, emotional, and social engagement. The next section (Section 8.3) discussed lexical learning and how it is facilitated by the use of tasks. The penultimate section discussed the relationship between multidimensional task engagement and lexical learning (Section 8.4). The conclusions drawn from the findings discussed in this chapter are presented in Chapter Nine, along with the limitations of this study and recommendation for future research.

Chapter Nine

CONCLUSION

9.1 Overview

This chapter presents the conclusion of the findings in this study which aimed to answer the two research questions, namely: (1) “What is the relationship between learners’ task engagement (as measured by the frequency of elaborative clauses, negotiation moves, disagreements, recasts, completing peer utterances, word count, time on task, turn count, and backchannelling) and their lexical learning?”, and (2) “Is there additional evidence of lexical learning (in terms of the use of newly learned words and students’ perceptions of learning new words through the use of tasks) when tasks are used?”.

The chapter begins with a summary of the findings as discussed in Chapter Eight (Section 9.2). The conclusion presented in the following section then provides the answers to the research questions that guided this study and outlines key implications for pedagogy (Section 9.3). The limitations of the study and recommendations for future research are discussed in Section 9.4. The chapter summary in Section 9.5 concludes this thesis.

9.2 Summary of Findings

This section presents the summary of findings discussed in the previous chapter in terms of multidimensional task engagement, lexical learning, and the relationship between task engagement and lexical learning.

9.2.1 Multidimensional task engagement

In this study, task engagement was examined in terms of the four dimensions of engagement, namely, cognitive, behavioural, emotional and social engagement (see Chapter Eight, Section 8.2). The findings on cognitive task engagement (see Chapter Eight, Sub-section 8.2.1) were as follows:

In this study cognitive engagement was best measured by way of elaborative clauses and negotiation moves. Recasts were used less often, and disagreement and completing peer utterances were rarely used. The low use of recasts, and the very lowly use of disagreement and completing peer utterances appeared to be due to limited capacity of the participants in speaking English. This may also explain the next findings, namely, that there were more disagreements found in figurative tasks such as the 'spot the difference' tasks than in the more conceptual 'opinion tasks' which were more linguistically challenging for the participants. Additionally, learner groups with higher English proficiency also produced more negotiation moves than the other groups. Lastly, the very low use of disagreements and completing peer utterances were attributed to the fact that the local culture discourages the use of frontal disagreement and completing peer utterances.

Additional findings on cognitive engagement related to participants' responses were revealed by the following sub-themes, namely: 1) persistence in completing the task, and 2) motivation in doing the tasks. Excerpts from students' responses confirmed that they gave their attention and mental effort to completing the tasks. And finally, cognitive engagement was found to be positively related to lexical learning in terms of negotiation moves, disagreement and recasts.

Findings with regard to the behavioural dimension of engagement (see Chapter Eight, Sub-section 8.2.2) showed that all of the coding schemes, that is turn counts, word counts and time on task, were effective in measuring engagement in the task. In terms of task difference, spot the difference task prompted more turns than the opinion task. This was expected from the discussion in the literature due to the nature of the conversation. Description tasks usually elicit more short phrases and questions (Yule, 1997, Berman 2008), and thus result in more turns. Participants' responses from the thematic analysis of behavioural engagement confirmed that students rated their efforts as high, ranging from 7 to 9.5, and their high involvement in participating in the task. Furthermore, behavioural engagement was positively related to lexical learning in terms of turn counts, word counts and time on task.

Emotional engagement (see Chapter Eight, Sub-section 8.2.3) was found to be high as participants often used back-channellings in their conversation. This finding was also supported by the two sub-themes that emerged for this dimension, namely, topic interest and topic familiarity. Participants reported being more engaged in the conversation when the topic was of their interest, and when they were familiar with the topic. Emotional engagement was related to lexical learning in terms of back-channellings.

Findings on social engagement (see Chapter Eight, Sub-section 8.2.4) showed that the participants scored highly in terms of socio-behavioural and socio-emotional engagement, as seen in the high frequency of turn-counts and back-channellings. However, it was low in terms of socio-cognitive engagement which was measured by recasts and completing peer utterances. The rare use of completing peer utterances could be influenced by local culture which discourages interrupting a partner's speech. Social engagement was also affected by gender, especially in terms of recasts and turn count, where all-male pairs outperformed male-female and all-female pairs.

Participants' responses from the thematic analysis of social engagement suggest that several factors may have influenced the way a person engages in the conversation. One of these factors was acquaintance with the partner (sub-theme 4.1 Acquaintance with the partner, see Chapter Six, Section 6.6.1) where inhibition to a newly met partner arose. Other factors were gender, where female participants were more likely to be shy when engaging with a male partner (subtheme #4.2 Partner's noticing and ignoring in conversation, see Chapter Six, Section 6.6.2), the compatibility or chemistry between the pair in which the right partner would provide better support (subtheme #4.3 Encouragement and challenge from a partner, see Chapter Six, Section 6.6.3), and their willingness to work together and resolve differences (subtheme #4.4. Resolving differences with a partner, see Chapter Six, Section 6.6.4).

The relationship of social engagement to lexical learning was as follows: Socio-cognitive engagement was positively and highly related to lexical learning in terms of recasts. Socio-behavioural engagement was positively and highly related to lexical learning in terms of turn-counts. And socio-emotional engagement was positively related to lexical learning in terms of back-channellings.

9.2.2 Lexical learning

Next, the findings on lexical learning and how it is facilitated by the use of tasks are presented based on evidence of lexical learning as shown by the statistical analysis and the analysis of target words. This is complemented by a brief discussion of findings from the thematic analysis of the interview data and the content analysis of the transcripts (see discussion in Chapter Eight, Section 8.3).

Findings from the statistical analysis showed that lexical learning occurred after the tasks were performed and was maintained over time. Female students learned and maintained the new words better than their male counterparts, which confirms previous research findings that suggest that females are better in employing cognitive strategies for learning new words than their male counterparts. It also showed that differences in proficiency levels prior to the task were maintained after task lessons. The item analysis showed that the majority of the target words were learned, but some were learned better than others. And most of the highly learned words were maintained over time.

The content analysis provided evidence of lexical learning as seen in the language related episodes (LREs). There were four types of LREs, namely: 1) Introducing new words to the partner, which demonstrated how noticing (input-based learning) took place; 2) Self-correcting mistakes of new words, which demonstrated pushed output (output-based learning); 3) Correcting peer mistakes; and, 4) Using first language to explain the word which together indicated how negotiation moves came to pass (interaction-based learning).

The thematic analysis of lexical learning showed how learning new words in the perception of the participants occurred by noticing new words (input-based), using the new words in the conversation (output based), and by talking about new words (interaction based).

9.2.3 Relationship between multidimensional task engagement and lexical learning

The last section in Chapter Eight (Section 8.4) discussed the relationship between multidimensional task engagement and lexical learning. The correlations of each dimension of task engagement and lexical learning were reviewed. The results showed that lexical learning was positively related to cognitive engagement in terms of negotiation moves, disagreement and recasts, to behavioural engagement in terms of turn counts, word counts and time on task, to emotional engagement in terms of back-channellings, and to social engagement in terms of recasts, turn-counts and back-channellings.

The relationship between task engagement and lexical learning was complemented by the results from the thematic analysis of the participant responses in terms of four emerging themes. First, lexical learning was shown to be related to cognitive engagement in terms of attention and mental effort. Next, it was shown to be related to behavioural engagement in terms of involvement and effort, and emotional engagement in terms of connection and attachment. Last, lexical learning was found to be related to social engagement when discussing about collaboration and working with a partner.

9.3 Conclusion and Implications

This section first answers the two research questions that guided this study. It then highlights how this research is similar to, but also different from previous research and outlines the key implications for pedagogy.

Research question #1 asked *What is the relationship between learners' task engagement (as measured by the frequency of elaborative clauses, negotiation moves, disagreements, recasts, completing peer utterances, word count, time on task, turn count, and backchannelling) and their lexical learning?"*

This study suggests a significant and positive relationship in all dimensions of task engagement and lexical learning. Most of the indicators of task engagement are positively correlated to the vocabulary scores. This relationship is also supported by the learners' perception which can be seen in several themes emerging from their responses.

The answer to research question #2 - *Is there other evidence of lexical learning (in terms of the use of newly learned words and students' perceptions of learning new words through the use of tasks) when using*

tasks? is as follows: Evidence of lexical learning can be seen in the four methods of discourse analysis. The utility of input-based, output-based and interaction-based lexical learning also can be found in the evidence from the task transcripts.

Findings concerning multidimensional engagement found that the Indonesian freshmen were highly engaged in a task meeting trans-dimensionally. The measures of task engagement were used deliberately by the students, although some indicators were used more often than others, such as elaborative clauses, negotiation moves, turn count, word count, time on task, and back-channelling. Recasts were used less often. Additionally, linguistically challenging measures such as the cognitive indicators of disagreement, and cognitive-social indicators of recasts and completing peer utterances, were scarcely used. The students' high level of engagement was also supported by their responses to the questionnaire and the interviews.

Findings of this research can be related to previous studies in several ways. In terms of cognitive engagement, this study found that the Indonesian students' use of elaborative clauses and negotiation moves was high, recasts were used moderately, and disagreement and completing peer utterances were rarely used. This confirmed the trend noted in other studies that learners use elaboration clauses and negotiation moves more often than recasts (see Lambert et al., 2017; Lambert & Zhang, 2019; Qiu & Lo, 2017). The finding is maintained, although these previous studies involved participants with higher English proficiency levels, except for Phung's (2017) study which found that the use of recasts (repairs) was higher than the use of negotiation moves. The finding from the current study also suggests that disagreements and completing peer utterances were used very sparingly by Asian EFL students, which confirms the observations made in other studies on communicative talk (Toomaneejinda & Hardin, 2018; Tulung, 2008).

In terms of behavioural engagement, the finding of this study is comparable to other studies (e.g., Lambert et al., 2017; Lambert & Zhang, 2019; Qiu & Lo, 2017) in terms of the high frequency of turn counts and words counts, however the participants in these other studies needed much less time to finish the task. Aubrey's (2017) study recorded an even higher number of words and turn counts. However, this trend is not supported in Phung's (2017) study, which indicates a comparable number of turns but with a considerably higher number of words and longer time on task. Again, all of these studies involved participants with higher English proficiency levels than the present study.

In terms of emotional engagement, this study confirms the trend noted in Phung's (2017) study, which is higher emotional engagement for narrative tasks and less for opinion tasks. In terms of back-channellings, the finding of the present study is comparable to Lambert and Zhang's (2019) study which used opinion tasks, but not Lambert et al.'s (2017) study which used narrative tasks.

Lastly, some of the findings of the current study in terms of social engagement were similar to the findings of previous research, but some were not. For example, in terms of recasts, this study aligns with studies involving local participants (e.g., Qiu & Lo, 2017), but not those involving students living in an English-speaking country (e.g., Phung, 2017). Additionally, in terms of turn count, the findings of the present study is comparable to the research of Lambert and Zhang (2019) and Phung (2017), but not Aubrey (2017). In terms of back-channelling, the finding of the current study is comparable to Lambert et al.'s (2017) and Lambert and Zhang's (2019) studies, but not Phung's (2017) study.

Concerning lexical learning, the current study found that involvement in task-based activities can facilitate the learning of new words, firstly by providing input to the learner. Cognitive engagement was also found to facilitate lexical learning. This finding aligns with Ellis et al.'s study (1999) which concluded that giving pre-modified input and allowing learners to negotiate meaning in a task-based approach facilitates the learning of new words.

Another finding of the present study suggests that task-based activities can also facilitate learning new words by providing opportunity for learners to speak and modify their output. This finding aligns with He and Ellis's (1999) work which suggested that peer interactions which allowed negotiation of new words were more effective than teacher-controlled interactions in fostering lexical learning.

Moving toward other dimensions of engagement, Ellis et al. (1999) also noted that input with more words, turns and time resulted in higher vocabulary scores, which is aligned with the results from behavioural engagement and lexical learning in this study.

The established relationship between task engagement and lexical learning addressed in this study, in a sense, is both unique and important. It is unique because few other studies have addressed lexical learning particularly in the light of engagement as a multidimensional construct. As such, this study

addresses an important research gap. Findings from this study have confirmed that language learning can be effective when an active process requiring engagement is implemented. Secondly, this study is important because it was able to show that despite the Indonesian students' lack of speaking skills, task-based learning could be implemented. In order to move Indonesian EFL pedagogy toward a more task-based approach, it is crucial to demonstrate that students can make realistic progress in their language learning using this method. To demonstrate this, valid indicators for the measurement of language use, such as through appropriate lexical development, are necessary.

There are further implications from the findings of this research for EFL lesson and program management. Using tasks have been found effective for facilitating lexical learning. Therefore, the use of tasks should be encouraged in EFL lesson contexts in Indonesia. Moreover, this finding also endorses the use of highlighting input in communication to assist noticing. In order to make input more observable, context clues, change of tone and even repetition can be used. This is particularly important in an EFL context such as Indonesia, where students' access to more noticeable input-friendly listening materials are limited, and where teachers and fellow students, are the main source for oral input. Lastly, it has implications for teachers to use teaching strategies which encourage students to speak. Lexis is learnt by using it in meaningful ways during speaking practice and, therefore, speaking practice should be included in English lessons to allow students to use words stored in their lexicon and develop their speaking fluency.

Another implication for pedagogy is based on the relationship between multidimensional engagement and lexical learning. In order for lessons to be effective, they should be interesting and engaging for students, for example by using brainstorming to encourage participation and to activate schema. The lessons could also be connected to students by selecting appropriate topics with are highly relevant to them, or likely to pique their interest.

9.4 Limitations and Recommendations

Like any study, this study is not without limitations. Firstly, as mentioned in Chapter One, the participants were enrolled in a university with boarding facilities which is known for catering to students from the eastern parts of Indonesia. The findings of the current study, therefore, cannot be applied without modification to another setting, nor are they comparable to other studies in other locations in Indonesia, nor in other countries.

The participants were purposely selected based on their gender and by way of their placement test results. The study attempted to pair the students with a partner with the closest pre-test scores while maintaining same number of gender grouping. However, this research did not control participants' previous acquaintance with their partner. Some of the participants had never meet their dyad partners before study commenced, while others may already have known each other before that. While it is acknowledged that this could affect the social engagement within dyads, the participants had no voice in selecting their partner.

Secondly, there are limitations concerning the development of the task instruments. As the target words were selected from the vocabulary bank of a commercially used test, the target words could have been swapped with certain known synonyms by the participants. Although the tasks had been carefully constructed to allow students to use these target words, there were occasions where the students preferred other terms. In this case, the lexical learning that occurred was not tested nor incorporated into this study.

Thirdly, there are limitations regarding the data collection method. Unlike other experimental research which takes place in isolation and where dyads are unaware of the presence of other dyads, the tasks in this study were undertaken to resemble an authentic class situation. The purpose was to demonstrate that lexical learning can be achieved in a classroom setting. Thus, this study involved using typical classroom procedures, that is, there was a pre-task activity for the whole class, then the students were paired and performed their task with their partners while other pairs also performed the same activities, without any interference from the teacher. While the teacher was present during the task interactions, the teacher did not intervene in these. In some cases, the teacher repeated the instruction to certain dyads, however, it was impossible to check on all dyads at the same time. Although discouraged, the

teacher did not prevent students from talking in L1 or asking directions from their peer. Nor did the teacher provide any help to those who could not finish the task.

Fourthly, one of the methodological limitations of this study is the absence of a control group which would have added a useful comparison of lexical learning as supported by tasks and by regular practice. Without a control group, the changes in test scores cannot be generalised.

Fifthly, although the researcher had attempted to include focus-group interview participants from different levels, background and gender to represent all respondents, there were some participants who participated more than others. Moreover, the first to respond were often those with higher confidence or self-esteem, who tended to show more participation in the task meeting. Therefore, the research yielded highly engagement responses, largely because the highly engaged participants contributed more.

In the focus group interview, participants were given choice to speak in L1 or English. However, all of them chose to respond in English, and again the first to respond were those with higher confidence in speaking English. Those who lacked interest in speaking, therefore, may be underrepresented in the interview results. During the interview, it was observed, for example, that there were quite a few participants who chose to pass on answering the questions, rather than responding to them. Another limitation in this design was that the delayed post-test was conducted after the focus group interview. During the interview, participants may have picked up some words and learned something new, which in turn might have affected the result of the test.

Despite of these limitations, this study, in a broader sense, does have implications for educators, particularly with regard to how EFL lessons in Indonesia may be conducted. It represents a deliberate attempt to shift the paradigm in language teaching toward a holistic teaching approach, particularly on the use of tasks in learning. This could be achieved by two ways, firstly, by raising awareness about the benefits of task-based lessons in Indonesia; secondly, and most importantly, by demonstrating that this approach may facilitate learning. Not only has the study shown that lexical learning is the cornerstone of L2 communication, but it further emphasised that students can make realistic progress in terms of lexical learning through the use of task-based instruction. This progress can also be evaluated in the

traditional form of a test as it is used in the Indonesian system. If successful, this will address the need of developing speaking and vocabulary skills in Indonesia.

This study thus has implications for policy makers, curriculum developers, and administrators of English language programs in Indonesian universities to focus on the importance of task engagement for language learning at all levels of education, and particularly at a university level. Studies that promote the use of task-based approaches and task engagement in the classroom, and demonstrate its effectiveness in terms of lexical learning within this particular context, thus, are much needed. Also, studies which explore the effectiveness of task-based learning and multidimensional engagement, especially in an Indonesian setting, would offer valued insights the research community.

Future research may also focus on the methods for encouraging learners' engagement in various dimensions. Engagement is found to be facilitative of lexical learning; therefore, studies could focus on how to increase student engagement to instill active participation and engagement in Indonesian learners. Language learning can be successful when an active process requiring participation and engagement is implemented. For this to occur educators need to understand the importance of learner engagement and how this can be achieved.

9.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented a summary of the research findings (Section 9.2). It provided the answers to the research questions that guided this study and outlined key implications for pedagogy (Section 9.3). The limitations of the study and recommendations for future research were discussed in Section 9.4. This section concludes the thesis.

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APPENDICES

APPENDICES A. RESEARCH PROPER

- A.1 Information Sheet
- A.2 Information Sheet - Indonesian
- A.3 Participant Consent Sheet
- A.4 Participant Consent Sheet - Indonesian
- A.5 Ethical clearance
- A.6 Request for data collection
- A.7 Flyer and poster for data collection

Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning**PARTICIPANT INFORMATION STATEMENT**

HREC Project Number:	<i>HRE 2018-0199</i>
Project Title:	<i>Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning</i>
Principal Investigator:	<i>Rhonda Oliver, Ph.D., Professor, Curtin University</i>
Student researcher:	<i>Bill Wullur</i>
Version Number:	2
Version Date:	15/Apr/2018

The Project

The study is grounded in these three background situations. The first is the common practice of traditional and explicit teaching in Indonesian colleges. With the intention of moving pedagogy toward a task-based language teaching (TBLT) approach in Indonesia, it is essential to demonstrate that students can make realistic progress in their language learning using this method. To demonstrate this, valid indicators for the measurement of language use, such as vocabulary growth. How this might be achieved is one aim of the current research. Another challenge in the application of TBLT is how to engage learners in using tasks. Within Indonesian learning is often involves the one-directional transmission of knowledge, from the teacher to students. Educators need to understand the importance of learner engagement and how this can be achieved (and measured). It is the second aim of this study to explore how this might be done. Finally, if task engagement can be seen to promote language learning, mainly lexical development, then Indonesian English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers may come to accept TBLT and see its importance for engaging learners. Thus the third aim of this study is to demonstrate the potential advantages of learner-centred approaches in Indonesian EFL teaching.

The impact of this study will be to inform the need for connecting engagement to learning. Studies in multidimensional task engagement should be focused not only on how to design tasks to improve the quality of learners' engagement so as to produce a better language performance. What is needed is research to determine whether this heightened multidimensional engagement enhances language learning. Unless task engagement connects to learning, there is little theoretical motivation for undertaking such research. To date, most lexical learning studies have focused on vocabulary test-based outcomes. This research will seek to examine if learning is related to task engagement. Therefore, this study will explore whether or not lexical language learning may benefit from learner's multidimensional engagement with tasks.

From a practitioner's point of view, this investigation is important as it will provide direction about optimizing task engagement for the improvement of lexical learning. At a general level,

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it will also provide further support for the adoption of task-based teaching, especially in Indonesia where the study will take place. This may help teachers there to address the inadequate communicative competence of EFL learners in that country.

The proposed study aims to investigate the relationship between task engagement and lexical language learning. Using a task-based language teaching approach, this present study seeks to answer these key research questions:

1. What is the relationship between learners' task engagement (as measured in various ways) and their lexical learning?
2. Is there other evidence of lexical learning when tasks are used?

Task engagement will be examined in several ways, namely cognitively—or the mental effort invested in clarifying meaning, behaviourally—the persistence demonstrated in completing the task, socially—the responsiveness and willingness to be involved with others, and affectively—the emotional response toward the task. Lexical learning will be determined using a comparison of vocabulary test results pre- and post- the task-based instruction.

The participants will be 72 Indonesian university freshmen of different proficiency levels who will complete 12 comparable tasks over a six-week period. Using a mixed methods approach their engagement will be ascertained based on a questionnaire and analysis of transcripts of their task interactions in the first and last week of instruction. A statistical correlational analysis will then be used to examine the relationship between lexical learning and engagement (with the type of analysis to be used determined once normal distribution is determined or not). Qualitative discourse analysis will be undertaken to further examine different aspects of interaction and lexical learning.

This study will employ a mixed-methods research approach. First, a quantitative/correlational design will be used to examine the relationship between task engagement and lexical learning. This will be followed by qualitative analysis allowing for in-depth exploration of the interaction that may contribute to the findings and also help strengthen the generalizations based on the quantitative data (Creswell, 2012). Therefore data collection for this project will be undertaken in two phases, first quantitatively (phase one) and then qualitatively (phase two). First, however, a pilot study will be conducted to refine the data collection, especially the task development, but also the methods of analysis.

The pilot study will be undertaken with ten learners performing four tasks to ensure the suitability of each, such as the readability of the instructions, and the practicality of the content (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). It will also be used to help refine the procedural conditions and methods of analysis. Note, those learners used in the pilot study will not be used in the actual research. However, they will be selected to be of a similar proficiency range.

The Researchers

The project is being conducted by Bill Wullur (student researcher) under the supervision of Professor Rhonda Oliver (CI) and Senior lecturer Julian Chen. The results of this research project will be used by Bill Wullur to obtain a Doctor of Philosophy at Curtin University and are funded by the University. There will be no costs to you, and you will not be paid for participating in this project.

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Participants

- You have been asked to take part because you are a freshmen Indonesian student who learns English. You will participate in taking three language tests, completing 12 task with a partner, filling up two questionnaires, and participating in an interview (for selected students only).
- The study will take place at a mutually convenient location in Universitas Klabat campus, and you are required to participate in 9 meetings over the next six weeks.
- We will ask you questions about how well you know English words, how much you engage in completing English task and how do you learn English words in both questionnaire and interview. Both questionnaires and interview/focus group will take only 15 minutes.
- In the language tests, we will ask you to complete three multiple-choice tests based on how much English words do you know. Each test will be conducted manually in separate meetings, and collected by hand after 40 minutes.
- In completing the language tasks, you will work with a partner to perform a task, based on the instruction on the material. Your partner will have a different material from yours, and both of you will work together to complete the task. Each task will be completed in 10-15 minutes and spread within six meeting (6 weeks).
- There will be no cost to you for taking part in this research, and you will not be paid for taking part. We will give you up to \$5 worth of flash disc loaded with English games and material inside to cover your transport while you attend appointments.
- We will put you in dyads (pairs) based on your level of English in the placement test and also based on the gender. This will be done by chance, like tossing a coin. Neither you nor the researcher can choose which pair you go in.
- We will make a digital audio recording so we can concentrate on what you have to say and not distract ourselves with taking notes. The recording will be done in some of the tasks and during the interview/focus group. After the interview, we will make a full written copy of the recording.

Participants' benefits

- The project will provide some benefit for you, which are: 1) measure your English word knowledge, 2) boost your English vocabulary size within the six weeks, 3) guide you how to learn English faster and to use proven innovative method, 4) assess your progress in learning new English words. Sometimes, people appreciate the opportunity to practice speaking English with a partner. We hope the results of this research will allow us to develop education programs and add to the knowledge we have about English teaching.

Potential risks for participants

- The potential risk to participants are 1) embarrassment or unpleasant situation. Participants may be embarrassed by their peer if they cannot do the task accordingly nor be exposed for their lack of proficiency in English. And 2) psychological stress due to the assessment. Aside of three vocabulary exams, this research will require the student to complete a speaking task, during which participants will talk to their peer, and their communication will be recorded. These type of risk, however, is common in language learning and should be taken for the participant to learn a new language. Being university students, participants are expected to deal with this type of risk reflect classroom activities and course demands.
- We have been careful to make sure that the questions in the survey do not cause you any distress. But, if you feel anxious about any of the questions they do not need to answer them.



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If the questions cause any concerns or upset you, we can refer you to a counselor. Apart from giving up your time, we do not expect that there will be any risks or inconveniences associated with taking part in this study. The compensation (i.e., the \$5 flash disk) is to reimburse your transport fee while attending research appointments.

Access to information

- The information collected in this research will be re-identifiable (coded). This means that the stored information will be re-identifiable which means we will remove identifying information on any data or sample and replace it with a code. Only the research team have access to the code to match your name if it is necessary to do so. Any information we collect will be treated as confidential and used only in this project unless otherwise specified. The following people will have access to the information we collect in this research: the research team and the Curtin University Ethics Committee
- Electronic data will be password-protected and hard copy data including video, or audio tapes will be in locked storage. The information we collect in this study will be kept under secure conditions at Curtin University for seven years after the research has ended and then it will be destroyed.
- You have the right to access, and request correction of, your information in accordance with relevant privacy laws. The results of this research may be presented at conferences or published in professional journals. You will not be identified in any results that are published or presented. Whilst all care will be taken to maintain privacy and confidentiality of any information shared at a focus group or group discussion; you should be aware that you may feel embarrassed or upset if one of the group members repeats things said in a confidential group meeting.

Publication of research result

- We are not able to send you any results from this research as we do not collect any personal information to be able to contact you. However, the published result of the research will be made available at Universitas Klabat library in about 3 years.

Participating in the research project

- Taking part in a research project is voluntary. It is your choice to take part or not. You do not have to agree if you do not want to. If you decide to take part and then change your mind, that is okay; you can withdraw from the project. You do not have to give us a reason; just tell us that you want to stop. Please let us know you want to stop so we can make sure you are aware of anything that needs to be done so you can withdraw safely. If you chose not to take part or start and then stop the study, it would not affect your relationship with the University, staff or colleagues.
- We will be unable to destroy your information because it has been collected anonymously.

Contact person

- To obtain further information or answer question regarding this study, please contact Mr. Bill Wullur, at bill.wullur@postgrad.curtin.edu.au or Rhonda Oliver, at Rhonda.Oliver@curtin.edu.au or +61 8 9266 2169.
- If you decide to take part in this research, we will ask you to sign the consent form. By signing it is telling us that you understand what you have read and what has been discussed. Signing the



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consent indicates that you agree to be in the research project and have your health information used as described. Please take your time and ask any questions you have before you decide what to do. You will be given a copy of this information and the consent form to keep.

Disclaimer

Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) has approved this study (HREC number 2018-0199). Should you wish to discuss the study with someone not directly involved, in particular, any matters concerning the conduct of the study or your rights as a participant, or you wish to make a confidential complaint, you may contact the Ethics Officer on (08) 9266 9223 or the Manager, Research Integrity on (08) 9266 7093 or email hrec@curtin.edu.au.

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PERNYATAAN INFORMASI PARTICIPAN

Nomor HREC Project:	HRE 2018-0199
Judul Projek:	Keterlibatan Multidimensional dalam task dan pembelajaran lexis bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa kedua
Peneliti Utama:	Rhonda Oliver, PhD, Profesor, Curtin University
Peneliti:	Bill Wullur
Nomor Versi:	2
Tanggal Versi:	15/Apr/2018

Projek

Penelitian ini didasarkan atas tiga situasi latar belakang. Yang pertama adalah praktek umum pembelajaran bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa kedua pada Universitas di Indonesia. Dengan tujuan mengarahkan pedagogi menuju pendekatan berbasis pembelajaran bahasa Inggris berbasis *task* (TBLT) di Indonesia, adalah penting untuk mendemonstrasikan bahwa mahasiswa dapat mencapai tujuan yang realistic dalam pembelajaran mereka melalui metode ini. Mendemonstrasikan melalui indikator yang sah, contohnya melalui peningkatan kosa kata. Bagaimana hal ini dapat dicapai adalah salah satu tujuan penelitian ini. Salah satu tantangan penggunaan metode TBLT adalah bagaimana melibatkan mahasiswa menggunakan *task*. Di Indonesia, pembelajaran sering berjalan satu arah dari guru ke pelajar. Pendidik butuh mengerti pentingnya keterlibatan pelajar dan bagaimana hal ini dapat dicapai (dan diukur). Adalah tujuan kedua dari penelitian ini untuk mencari tahu bagaimana hal tersebut dapat dijalankan. Dan yang terakhir, kalau saja keterlibatan dalam *task* dapat meningkatkan pembelajaran bahasa, khususnya kosa kata, maka guru bahasa Inggris di Indonesia dapat menerima TBLT dan melihat pentingnya melibatkan pelajar. Itulah sebabnya tujuan ketiga dari penelitian ini adalah untuk mendemonstrasikan keuntungan potensial pendekatan berpusat kepada siswa dalam pembelajaran bahasa Inggris.

Dampak dari penelitian ini dapat digunakan untuk memberikan informasi pentingnya menghubungkan keterlibatan dengan pembelajaran. Kajian-kajian *task* multidimensi harus berfokus bukan hanya bagaimana mendesain *task* untuk meningkatkan kualitas keterlibatan siswa untuk menghasilkan performa yang lebih baik dalam menggunakan Bahasa Inggris. Kebutuhan sekarang ini adalah menentukan apakah peningkatan keterlibatan yang multidimensi ini dapat meningkatkan pembelajaran. Tanpa hubungan yang kuat antara keterlibatan dan pembelajaran, maka penelitian seperti itu tidak memiliki motivasi yang kuat.

Sekarang ini kebanyakan studi mengenai pembelajaran lexis berpusat pada hasil test kosa kata. Penelitian ini akan mencari tahu apakah pembelajaran berhubungan dengan

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keterlibatan dalam *task*. Dengan demikian, penelitian ini akan menggali kemungkinan apakah mahasiswa dapat mengambil keuntungan dari keterlibatan multidimensi dalam *task*.

Dari perspektif praktisi, penelitian ini penting karena dapat menyediakan arah pengembangan keterlibatan *task* sebagai sarana peningkatan pembelajaran lexis. Secara umum, hal ini dapat memberikan dukungan lebih diterimanya pembelajaran berbasis *task*, terutama di Indonesia di mana penelitian ini dilangsungkan. Hal ini dapat membantu guru menanggulangi kekurangan dalam kompetensi komunikatif dari pelajar Bahasa Inggris di negara tersebut.

Penelitian ini bertujuan untuk menginvestigasi hubungan antara keterlibatan dalam *task* dan pembelajaran lexis bahasa Inggris. Menggunakan metode pengajaran berbasis *task*, penelitian ini menjawab pertanyaan-pertanyaan di bawah ini:

1. Apa hubungan yang tercipta antara keterlibatan siswa dalam *task* (sebagaimana diukur dalam beberapa cara) dengan pembelajaran lexis mereka?
2. Apakah ada bukti lain terjadi pembelajaran lexis ketika *task* digunakan?

Keterlibatan siswa dalam *task* akan diukur dalam Beberapa cara, yaitu kognitif—usaha mental untuk menjelaskan arti, secara tingkah laku—ketahanan yang ditunjukkan dalam menyelesaikan *task*, sosial—sifat responsif dan kesediaan untuk terlibat dengan orang lain, dan afektif—respons emosional terhadap *task*.

Partisipan adalah 72 mahasiswa tingkat 1 di salah satu Universitas di Indonesia yang memiliki kemampuan bahasa Inggris yang berbeda dan akan menyelesaikan 12 *task* selama waktu delapan minggu. Menggunakan pendekatan metode penelitian mixed, keterlibatan siswa akan diukur berdasarkan kuesioner dan analisis transkrip pada interaksi mereka sehubungan dengan menyelesaikan *task* pada minggu pertama dan terakhir pengajaran. Analisa statistik korelasi akan digunakan untuk mencari hubungan antara pembelajaran dalam lexis dan keterlibatan (dengan tipe analisis yang digunakan akan ditentukan ketika distribusi normal ditemukan atau tidak). Analisa kualitatif menggunakan metode percakapan untuk mengukur aspek-aspek interaksi dan pembelajaran lexis.

Penelitian ini menggunakan dua metode penelitian, yang pertama adalah metode kuantitatif dengan desain korelasi antara keterlibatan *task* dan pembelajran lexis. Kemudian metode kedua, yaitu analisa kualitatif akan mengeksplorasi secara dalam interaksi yang dapat memberikan masukan kepada temuan, dan juga mampu memperkuat generalisasi kuantitatif (Creswell, 2012). Itulah sebabnya pengumpulan data proyek ini akan dilaksanakan dalam dua tahap, yang pertama kuantitatif, dan yang kedua kualitatif. Namun demikian, sebuah studi pendahuluan akan dibuat untuk memperindah pengumpulan data, terutama penyusunan *task*, tetapi juga metode analisis.

Studi pendahuluan akan melibatkan 10 siswa yang menyelesaikan 10 *tasks* untuk menentukan kecocokan, seperti apakah mereka mengerti instruksi atau tugas yang disuruh, dan isi praktis. (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). Hal itu juga dapat digunakan dalam mempermudah prosedur dan kondisi serta metode analisis. Namun demikian, siswa yang terlibat dalam studi ini tidak akan dilibatkan lagi dalam pengumpulan data berikutnya, namun demikian, mereka akan dipilih dari tingkat kemampuan berbahasa yang setingkat.



Keterlibatan multidimensional pada task dan pembelajaran lexis bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa kedua

Peneliti

Projek ini akan dilaksanakan oleh Bill Wullur (mahasiswa) dibawah supervise Professor Rhonda Oliver (Penelitian utama) dan Lektor senior, Julian Chen. Hasil penelitian akan digunakan oleh Bill Wullur untuk mencapai gelar Doctor of Philosophy di Curtin University dan dibiayai oleh Universitas. Tidak ada biaya yang dibebankan kepada anda, dan anda tidak akan mendapat bayaran dalam projek ini.

Partisipan

- Anda diminta mengambil bagian karena anda adalah mahasiswa tingkat satu orang Indonesia yang belajar bahasa Inggris. Anda akan berpartisipasi dalam tiga buah ujian, menyelesaikan *task* bersama seorang teman, mengisi dua kuesioner, dan berpartisipasi dalam wawancara (bila dipanggil).
- Penelitian ini dilaksanakan dalam suatu lokasi yang mudah bagi anda jangkau di kampus Universitas Klatat, dan anda diminta untuk hadir dalam 9 pertemuan selama 6 minggu kedepan.
- Kami akan bertanya sejauh mana anda mengetahui kata-kata bahasa Inggris, sejauh mana anda terlibat dalam menyelesaikan *task* bahasa Inggris. Pertanyaan itu akan muncul dalam kuesioner dan wawancara. Keduanya hanya akan memakan waktu sekitar 15 menit.
- Dalam ujian bahasa, kami akan meminta anda menyelesaikan 3 buah ujian pilihan ganda tentang kosa kata bahasa Inggris yang kamu tahu. Ujian dilaksanakan secara manual pada pertemuan tertentu, dan diselesaikan dalam 40 menit.
- Dalam menyelesaikan *tasks*, anda akan bekerja sama dengan seorang teman, dan dituntut oleh instruksi pada material. Mitra anda akan diberikan pertanyaan yang berbeda, dan kedua anda akan bekerja sama menyelesaikan *task*. Setiap *task* diselesaikan dalam kurun waktu 10 menit dan dalam 6 kali pertemuan (3 minggu).
- Tidak ada biaya bagi anda untuk ikut serta dalam penelitian ini, dan anda juga tidak akan dibayar. Kami akan memberikan flashdisk seharga sekitar Rp 50.000 yang berisi games dan material dalam belajar bahasa Inggris sebagai kompensasi biaya transportasi.
- Kami akan menempatkan anda dengan seorang teman (pasangan) tergantung pada tingkatan kemampuan berbahasa Inggris pada tes masuk dan juga didasarkan atas jenis kelamin. Pilihan pasangan akan ditentukan lawan undian, bukan oleh peneliti ataupun kemauan sendiri.
- Kami akan membuat rekaman audio supaya kita dapat berkonsentrasi pada apa yang harus kamu katakan dan tidak butuh mengambil catatan. Rekaman akan dibuat pada beberapa *task* dan pada waktu wawancara/focus grup. Setelah wawancara, kami akan membuat transkrip rekaman.

Keuntungan partisipan

- Projek ini akan membawa beberapa keuntungan bagi anda, antara lain: 1) mengukur tingkat pengetahuan kosa kata bahasa Inggris anda, 2) meningkatkan pengetahuan kosa kata bahasa Inggris dalam 4 minggu, 3) menuntunmu belajar bahasa Inggris lebih cepat dengan menggunakan metode yang inovatif dan teruji, 4) mengukur perkembangan pembelajaran anda dalam mempelajari kosa kata bahasa Inggris. Kadang-kadang, kesempatan untuk berbicara dengan orang lain adalah nilai tambah bagi sebagian orang. Kami berharap hasil penelitian ini

Keterlibatan multidimensional pada task dan pembelajaran lexis bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa kedua

akan membantu mengembangkan program pendidikan di tempat ini dan menambah pengetahuan dalam mengajar bahasa Inggris.

Resiko yang dapat ditemui

- Resiko yang dapat ditemui partisipan adalah: 1) Situasi yang bisa memalukan atau tidak menyenangkan. Partisipan dapat merasa dipermalukan oleh rekan ketika ia tidak dapat menyelesaikan tugas dengan benar ataupun karena ketahuan kurang bisa berbahasa Inggris. Dan 2) tekanan psikologis karena penilaian. Selain tiga ujian kosa kata bahasa Inggris, penelitian ini meminta partisipan menyelesaikan *task* percakapan dengan rekan mereka dan percakapan mereka direkam. Resiko seperti ini biasa ditemui dalam pembelajaran bahasa. Sebagai mahasiswa, partisipan diharapkan mampu terbiasa menghadapi resiko ini yang mirip dengan aktifitas kelas dan tuntutan perkuliahan.
- Kami berupaya memastikan pertanyaan-pertanyaan pada kuesioner tidak membuat anda tertekan. Tapi kalau anda merasa ragu-ragu tidak usah menjawab. Seandainya ada pertanyaan yang menyebabkan anda menjadi kecewa, kami dapat merujuk anda kepada seorang psikolog. Selain dari memberikan waktu anda, kami tidak mengharapkan ada resiko ataupun ketidaknyamanan sebagai bagian dari penelitian ini. Kompensasi yang anda akan terima (flash disk seharga Rp 50.000) hanyalah untuk mengganti biaya transportasi anda sementara mengikuti pertemuan studi ini.

Akses informasi

- Informasi yang diperoleh dari penelitian ini dapat diidentifikasi kembali (coded). Hal itu berarti informasi yang tersimpan dapat diidentifikasi kembali dimana informasi terhadap data atau sampel digantikan dengan kode. Hanya tim peneliti yang memiliki akses kode tersebut dan mencocokkannya dengan nama anda. Semua informasi yang diperoleh akan diperlakukan secara konfidensial dan hanya digunakan pada proyek tersebut kecuali ditulis sebaliknya. Akses kepada data hanya diberikan kepada dua tim, yaitu tim peneliti dan komite etik Curtin University.
- Data elektronik akan diproteksi dengan password dan data hard-copy yang termasuk video ataupun audio akan disimpan di tempat terkunci. Informasi yang diperoleh pada penelitian ini akan disimpan dengan aman di Curtin University selama 7 tahun setelah penelitian berakhir dan akan dihancurkan setelah itu.
- Anda memiliki hak untuk mengakses dan meminta koreksi terhadap informasi yang anda berikan sebagaimana dicantumkan dalam undang-undang privasi. Hasil dari penelitian ini akan dipresentasikan pada konferensi dan dipublikasikan pada jurnal internasional. Anda tidak akan dapat diidentifikasi dalam semua hasil penelitian yang di publikasi atau dipresentasikan. Kami akan berusaha menjaga privasi dan merahasiakan informasi yang dibagikan dalam focus group/wawancara, atau diskusi. Namun demikian, anda dapat menyadari bahwa anda bisa saja merasa malu atau kecewa ketika anggota kelompok membicarakan apa yang disampaikan di wawancara.

Publikasi hasil penelitian

- Kami tidak dapat memberikan hasil penelitian kepada anda karena kami tidak mengambil informasi pribadi yang dapat mengontak anda. Namun demikian, hasil penelitian ini akan tersedia di perpustakaan Universitas Klabat tiga tahun mendatang.

Keterlibatan multidimensional pada task dan pembelajaran lexis bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa kedua

Partisipasi dalam penelitian

- Bernpartisipasi dalam penelitian adalah atas dasar sukarela. Anda dapat memilih untuk bernpartisipasi atau tidak. Anda tidak dipaksa untuk setuju bila anda tidak mau. Jika seandainya anda memutuskan untuk bernpartisipasi, tapi kemudian anda berubah pikiran, anda dapat saja menarik diri dari projek ini. Anda tidak perlu memberikan alasan, cukup bilang kalau anda ingin berhenti. Namun beritahukan kepada kami kalau anda ingin menarik diri supaya kami dapat mengetahuinya dan anda dapat menarik diri secara aman. Jika anda tidak mengambil bagian, ataupun menarik diri di tengah jalan, hal itu tidak akan mempengaruhi hubungan anda dengan Universitas, staf dan teman-teman anda.
- Kami tidak dapat memusnakan informasi anda karena itu diperoleh dalam cara yang anonymous.

Hubungi kami

- Untuk mendapatkan informasi lebih jelas atau untuk menjawab pertanyaan tentang penelitian ini, anda dapat mengontak Bpk. Bill Wullur, melalui email bill.wullur@postgrad.curtin.edu.au atau kepada Ibu Rhonda Oliver, melalui email Rhonda.Oliver@curtin.edu.au atau telpon +61 8 9266 2169.
- Bila anda bersedia mengambil bagian dalam penelitian ini kami akan mintakan anda untuk menanda-tangani for persetujuan. Dengan menanda-tanganinya, anda menyatakan bahwa anda mengerti apa yang anda baca dan apa yang didiskusikan. Menanda-tangani lembar persetujuan menyatakan anda setuju untuk menjadi bagian dari projek ini dan memberikan akses terhadap informasi diri anda sebagaimana yang ditulis. Silakan membaca kembali dan mengajukan pertanyaan sebelum menanda-tanganinya. Anda diberikan Salinan informasi ini dan konsen untuk disimpan.

Disclaimer

Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) has approved this study (HREC number 2018-0199). Should you wish to discuss the study with someone not directly involved, in particular, any matters concerning the conduct of the study or your rights as a participant, or you wish to make a confidential complaint, you may contact the Ethics Officer on (08) 9266 9223 or the Manager, Research Integrity on (08) 9266 7093 or email hrec@curtin.edu.au.

Sangkalan

Komite Etika Penelitian (Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee atau HREC) telah menyetujui penelitian ini (HREC number 2018-0199). Bila anda ingin mendiskusikan penleitian ini dengan seseorang yang tidak terlibat secara langsung, khususnya, hal-hal yang menyangkut pelaksanaan penelitian atau hak-hak anda sebagai partisipan, atau jikan anda ingin mengajukan komplain secara rahasia, anda dapat mengontak pejabat etika yang terlibat pada +61 (08) 9266 9223 atau Manajer, Research Integrity on +61 (08) 9266 7093 atau email hrec@curtin.edu.au.

*Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning***CONSENT FORM**

HREC Project Number:	HRE 2018-0199
Project Title:	Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning
Principal Investigator:	Rhonda Oliver, PhD, Professor, Curtin University
Student researcher:	Bill Wullur
Version Number:	1
Version Date:	20/MAR/2018

- The researcher had read to me in my first language the information statement version listed above and I understand its contents.
- I believe I understand the purpose, extent and possible risks of my involvement in this project.
- I voluntarily consent to take part in this research project.
- I have had an opportunity to ask questions and I am satisfied with the answers I have received.
- I understand that this project has been approved by Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee and will be carried out in line with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007) – updated March 2014.
- I understand I will receive a copy of this Information Statement and Consent Form.

Participant Name	
Participant Signature	
Date	

Declaration by researcher: I have supplied an Information Letter and Consent Form to the participant who has signed above, and believe that they understand the purpose, extent and possible risks of their involvement in this project.

Researcher Name	
Researcher Signature	
Date	

Note: All parties signing the Consent Form must date their own signature.



Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

OPTIONAL CONSENT TICK BOXES

<input type="checkbox"/> I do	<input type="checkbox"/> I do not	consent to being audio-recorded
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<input type="checkbox"/> I do	<input type="checkbox"/> I do not	consent to data linkage
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Keterlibatan multidimensional pada task dan pembelajaran lexis bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa kedua

LEMBAR PERNYATAAN PERSETUJUAN

Nomor HREC Project:	2018 - 0199
Judul Projek:	Keterlibatan Multidimensional dalam task dan pembelajaran lexis bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa kedua
Peneliti Utama:	Rhonda Oliver, PhD, Profesor, Curtin University
Peneliti:	Bill Wullur
Nomor Versi:	1
Tanggal Versi:	10/JAN/2018

- Peneliti telah membacakan kepada saya dalam bahasa ibu saya informasi yang dinyatakan diatas dan saya mengerti isinya
- Saya percaya saya mengerti tujuan, jangkauan dan resiko yang mungkin didapatkan pada keterlibatan saya dalam projek ini
- Saya mengambil bagian secara sukarela dalam penelitian ini
- Saya mendapat kesempatan bertanya dan saya merasa puas dengan jawaban yang diberikan
- Saya mengerti projek ini telah disetujui oleh Komite Etika Penelitian Manusia, Curtin University dan akan dilaksanakan sesuai dengan pernyataan nasional dalam menjalankan penelitian secara etis (2007) dan di revisi kembali 2014.
- Saya mengerti saya akan mendapat lembaran Salinan dari pernyataan informasi dan lembar persetujuan ini

Nama Partisipan	
Tanda tangan Partisipan	
Tanggal	

Deklarasi peneliti: I telah menyediakan lembar informasi dan lembar persetujuan kepada partisipan yang telah menanda-tangani diatas, dan percaya bahwa mereka mengerti tujuan, jangkauan dan resiko yang kemungkinan terjadi dengan keterlibatan mereka pada projek ini,

Nama Peneliti	
Tanda tangan peneliti	
Tanggal	

Note: Semua pihak yang menanda-tangani form ini harus menulis tanggal penanda-tanganan

Keterlibatan multidimensional pada task dan pembelajaran lexis bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa kedua

PERSETUJUAN TAMBAHAN

<input type="checkbox"/> Saya memberikan	<input type="checkbox"/> Saya tidak memberikan	persetujuan untuk direkam suara
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<input type="checkbox"/> Saya memberikan	<input type="checkbox"/> Saya tidak memberikan	persetujuan untuk dicocokkan data identitas
--	--	---

01-May-2018

Name: Rhonda Oliver
Department/School: School of Education
Email: Rhonda.Oliver@curtin.edu.au

Dear Rhonda Oliver

RE: Ethics Office approval
Approval number: HRE2018-0199

Thank you for submitting your application to the Human Research Ethics Office for the project **Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning**.

Your application was reviewed through the Curtin University Low risk review process.

The review outcome is: **Approved**.

Your proposal meets the requirements described in the National Health and Medical Research Council's (NHMRC) *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007)*.

Approval is granted for a period of one year from **01-May-2018** to **30-Apr-2019**. Continuation of approval will be granted on an annual basis following submission of an annual report.

Personnel authorised to work on this project:

Name	Role
Wullur, Bill	Student
Oliver, Rhonda	CI
Chen, Julian	Supervisor

Approved documents:

Document

Standard conditions of approval

1. Research must be conducted according to the approved proposal
2. Report in a timely manner anything that might warrant review of ethical approval of the project including:

- proposed changes to the approved proposal or conduct of the study
 - unanticipated problems that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project
 - major deviations from the approved proposal and/or regulatory guidelines
 - serious adverse events
3. Amendments to the proposal must be approved by the Human Research Ethics Office before they are implemented (except where an amendment is undertaken to eliminate an immediate risk to participants)
 4. An annual progress report must be submitted to the Human Research Ethics Office on or before the anniversary of approval and a completion report submitted on completion of the project
 5. Personnel working on this project must be adequately qualified by education, training and experience for their role, or supervised
 6. Personnel must disclose any actual or potential conflicts of interest, including any financial or other interest or affiliation, that bears on this project
 7. Changes to personnel working on this project must be reported to the Human Research Ethics Office
 8. Data and primary materials must be retained and stored in accordance with the [Western Australian University Sector Disposal Authority \(WAUSDA\)](#) and the [Curtin University Research Data and Primary Materials policy](#)
 9. Where practicable, results of the research should be made available to the research participants in a timely and clear manner
 10. Unless prohibited by contractual obligations, results of the research should be disseminated in a manner that will allow public scrutiny; the Human Research Ethics Office must be informed of any constraints on publication
 11. Approval is dependent upon ongoing compliance of the research with the [Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research](#), the [National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research](#), applicable legal requirements, and with Curtin University policies, procedures and governance requirements
 12. The Human Research Ethics Office may conduct audits on a portion of approved projects.

Special Conditions of Approval

None

This letter constitutes low risk/negligible risk approval only. This project may not proceed until you have met all of the Curtin University research governance requirements.

Should you have any queries regarding consideration of your project, please contact the Ethics Support Officer for your faculty or the Ethics Office at hrec@curtin.edu.au or on 9266 2784.

Yours sincerely



Amy Bowater
Acting Manager, Research Integrity



**School of Education
Faculty of Humanities**

GPO Box U1987
PERTH Western Australia 6845
Telephone +61 8 9266 2169
Facsimile +61 8 9266 2547
Web <http://www.curtin.edu.au>

CRICOS Provider Code 00301J

16th May, 2018

To whom it may concern,

The purpose of this letter is to certify that Mr. Bill Wullur is a Ph.D. student at Curtin University, who will make two visits to Indonesia to undertake data collection for his pilot study and to undertake data collection proper. Please note his research has been approved by Curtin Human Research Ethics Committee. Also, please do not hesitate to contact me if have any questions.

Sincerely yours,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Rhonda Oliver".

Professor Rhonda Oliver
School of Education
Faculty of Humanities
Curtin University
Office | +61 8 9266 2169



Curtin University

Volunteers wanted!

Are you a student?
Do you want to improve your English?
Do you want to be involve in a current research in learning English?

We are conducting new research study for Indonesian learners to understand how task engagement in English class correlates to vocabulary learning.

We need your help

Curtin University
Human Research Ethics Committee (HERC)
Has approved this study
HREC No: HRE2018-0199



Participation may include:

1. Attending six meetings to complete task-based activities with a partner
2. Taking three vocabulary tests
3. Attending Interview and focus group discussion
4. Filling out questionnaires

To learn more about this study please contact:

Email: Bill.wullur@postgrad.curtin.edu.au

Rhonda.oliver@curtin.edu.au or +61 8 9266 2169

Or come to research center Universitas Klabat (Lemlit @GK Lt 2)

First meetings: 5 June and 4 Sept 2018

You also may contact your English teacher

Recruitment Flyer – Version 2, 16/APR/2018

Curtin University is a trademark of Curtin University of Technology



Curtin University

Mencari sukarelawan!

Anda mahasiswa?

Maukah anda meningkatkan Bahasa Inggris?

Maukah anda terlibat dalam sebuah penelitian tentang pembelajaran bahasa Inggris?

Kami membuat penelitian baru untuk mahasiswa Indonesia dapat mengerti kaitan antara keterlibatan dalam tugas dan pembelajaran kosa kata

Kami butuh bantuan anda

Penelitian ini telah disetujui oleh Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) No. HRE2018-0199



Mari berpartisipasi dalam:

1. Mengikuti enam pertemuan untuk menyelesaikan sebuah aktifitas dengan tugas bersama seorang partner.
2. Mengikuti tiga ujian kosa kata bahasa Inggris.
3. Mengikuti interview dan diskusi kelompok kecil.
4. Mengisi kuesioner.

Untuk mengetahui lebih lanjut silahkan kontak ke:

Email: bill.wullur@postgrad.curtin.edu.au

Rhonda.oliver@curtin.edu.au or +61 8 9266 2169

Atau datang ke Lembaga Penelitian Universitas Klabat (Lemlit @GK Lt 2)

Pertemuan pertama: 5 Juni dan 4 Sept 2018

Anda dalam menghubungi dosen Bahasa Inggris anda

APPENDICES B. INSTRUMENTS OF DATA COLLECTION

- B.1 Vocabulary List
- B.2 Task Analysis
- B.3 Task Sheet
- B.4 Pilot Task Sheet
- B.5 Questionnaire
- B.6 Interview guide questions

VOCABULARY TASK

Home and Appliances

1. Towel 1
2. Dustbin 1
3. Fan 1
4. Mirror 1
5. Vase 1
6. Kettle 1
7. Pillow 1
8. Sink 2
9. Antique 2
10. Desk 2
11. Dish 2
12. Cupboard 2
13. Lounge 3
14. Cloakroom 3
15. Chimney 3
16. Lavatory 3
17. Basement 3
18. Furnished 4
19. Upstairs 4
20. Lawn 4
21. Hedge 4
22. Neighbour 4
23. Ceiling 4
24. Property 4
25. Sheet 5
26. Tap 5
27. Curtain 5
28. Bulb 6
29. Switch 6
30. Shower 6
31. Rent 6

Work and Career

32. Gallery 7
33. City hall 7
34. Factory 7
35. Clerk 8
36. Defendant 8
37. Judge 8
38. Lawyer 8
39. Courtroom 8
40. Guard 8
41. Chef 9
42. Diver 9
43. Porter 9
44. Steward 9
45. Carpenter 10
46. Butcher 10
47. Chemist 10
48. Greengrocer 10
49. Profession 10
50. CV 11
51. Artist 11
52. Diploma 11
53. Employ 11
54. Occupation 11
55. Qualification 11
56. Newsagent 11
57. Candidate 12
58. Pension 12
59. Quit 12
60. Wage 12

TASK ANALYSIS

Tasks are analysed in terms of gap, resource, outcome, and primary focus of attention

Task	Task Analysis
<p>Task 1 Type: Spot the difference Title: Room inventories. Direction: Compare the two dorm rooms to spot the difference Target vocabulary: Vase, fan, mirror, towel, kettle, Pillow, dustbin</p>	<p>Gap Each learner discusses and spots the differences of two identical picture of a dorm room.</p> <p>Resource Names of five items in each picture are labelled. However, learners also draw information from their situation.</p> <p>Outcome Each learner spots the difference in each picture by comparing whether items in the room are similar or not without looking at their partner’s picture.</p> <p>Primary focus of attention Learner's primary focus is on the difference between what the partner says and what their picture is. They incidentally use the vocabulary instrumental for this purpose.</p>
<p>Task 2 Type: Spot the difference Title: Room Furniture Direction: Comparing two dorm rooms to spot the difference Target Vocabulary: Antique, cupboard, desk, dish, sink, handle</p>	<p>Gap Each learner receives a picture, both depicting two dorm rooms with almost similar items inside. Some items, however, have different colour, shape, or feature.</p> <p>Resource Names of five items in each picture are shown. However, learners also draw information from their situation.</p> <p>Outcome Each learner spots the difference in each picture by comparing whether items in the room are similar or not without looking at their partner's picture.</p> <p>Primary focus of attention Learner’s primary focus is on giving and receiving instruction on how to arrange the picture; They incidentally use the vocabulary instrumental to this purpose.</p>

<p>Task 3 Type: Similarities and Differences Title: Floor plans Direction: Comparing floor plans of two houses Target Vocabulary: Basement, chimney, cloakroom, lavatory, lounge</p>	<p>Gap Each learner receives a different picture of floorplans where they draw different information.</p> <p>Resource Names of four parts of the house in each floorplan are provided. However, learners also draw information from their situation.</p> <p>Outcome Each learner compares and contrasts the floorplans and makes a preferred choice.</p> <p>Primary focus of attention Learner's primary focus is on the difference between what the partner says and what their picture is. They incidentally used the vocabulary instrumental for this purpose.</p>
<p>Task 4 Type: Similarities and Differences Title: The right accommodation Direction: Advising the best accommodation for each Target Vocabulary: Ceiling, property, furnished, upstairs, lawn, hedge</p>	<p>Gap Each learner receives a picture; the first portrays three characters and the second provides information on three dorms.</p> <p>Resource Background of characters and features of the dorms are provided. However, learners also draw information from their situation.</p> <p>Outcome Each learner discusses and assigns the best accommodation for the three characters</p> <p>Primary focus of attention Learner's primary focus is on the information provided from what the partner says and what is given to them. They incidentally use the vocabulary instrumental for this purpose.</p>

<p>Task 5 Type: Similarities and Differences Title: Dorm living Direction: Counting the fine based on how many rules are violated Target Vocabulary: Curtain, sheet, tap</p>	<p>Gap Each learner receives a picture, the first picture portrays three characters and bad activities they are involved in, and the second picture provides information on the dorm rules and fines.</p> <p>Resource The type of violation, dorm rules and fines are provided. However, learners also draw information from their situation.</p> <p>Outcome Each learner discusses and counts how much fine the three characters should pay.</p> <p>Primary focus of attention Learner's primary focus is on the information provided from what the partner says and what is given to them. They incidentally use the vocabulary instrumental for this purpose.</p>
<p>Task 6 Type: Information gap Title: House bills Direction: Splitting the house bills based on the appliance and electronic use Target Vocabulary: Rent, bulb, switch, shower</p>	<p>Gap Each learner receives a picture, the first picture portrays three characters and type of appliance/electronics they use, and the second picture provides information on the bills for this period.</p> <p>Resource The appliance or electronics and bills are provided. However, learners also draw information from their situation.</p> <p>Outcome Each learner discusses and counts how the characters should split the bills fairly.</p> <p>Primary focus of attention Learner's primary focus is on the information provided from what the partner says and what is given to them. They incidentally used the vocabulary instrumental to this purpose.</p>

<p>Task 7 Type: Line drawing Title: Delivery route Direction: Giving delivery route direction with two incomplete maps Target Vocabulary: Gallery, city hall, factory</p>	<p>Gap The first learner receives the map of an old delivery route, while the second learner gets the new map on the area without the delivery route. Learner draws different information from the picture.</p> <p>Resource The information on the delivery route is given. However, it is not updated with the recent map. The learners need to resolve them. They also draw information using their common sense</p> <p>Outcome The first learner gives direction for the delivery route to be marked by the second learner. Both learners resolve the mismatch on the map by sharing information and discussion with their partner.</p> <p>Primary focus of attention Learner's primary focus is on completing the incomplete information based on what the partner says and what is given to them. They incidentally used the vocabulary instrumental to this purpose.</p>
<p>Task 8 Type: Similarities and Differences Title: In the courtroom Direction: Comparing the Indonesian court system and the USA court system Target Vocabulary: Judge, guard, clerk, lawyer, courtroom, defendant</p>	<p>Gap Each learner receives a picture, both depicting two courtrooms, one is from Indonesia, and the other is from the USA. Learner draws different information from the image.</p> <p>Resource Names of four roles and parts of the courtroom in each picture are provided. However, learners also draw information from their situation.</p> <p>Outcome Each learner compares whether a similar justice role or functions is available in his or her courtroom.</p> <p>Primary focus of attention Learner's primary focus is on the difference between what the partner says and what their picture is. They incidentally use the vocabulary instrumental for this purpose.</p>

<p>Task 9 Type: Picture Analysis Title: My dream job Direction: Checking if a person has fulfilled their dream job or not Target Vocabulary: chef, diver, porter, steward</p>	<p>Gap The first learner receives the picture portraying seven young characters and their dream job, while the second learner gets the older version of the seven characters and their current occupation.</p> <p>Resource The information on the characters' dream jobs and their recent jobs is given in both pictures. However, learners need to match them. They also draw information from their knowledge in inferring the icons and comparing the characters.</p> <p>Outcome Each learner matches and checks if each character gets their dream job or not after sharing information with their partner.</p> <p>Primary focus of attention Learner's primary focus is on completing the incomplete information based on what the partner says and what is given to them. They incidentally use the vocabulary instrumental to this purpose.</p>
<p>Task 10 Type: Picture Analysis Title: Jobs and partner Direction: Matching job and people Target Vocabulary: Carpenter, butcher, chemist, greengrocer, profession</p>	<p>Gap Each learner receives the same picture of eight characters the restaurant, however, each with incomplete information on the character's profession. Learner draws different information from the picture.</p> <p>Resource The information on the characters' profession is given in both pictures, however, learners need to match them. They also draw information from their knowledge in inferring the icons and their own experience.</p> <p>Outcome Each learner matches and guesses the profession of each character in the picture by sharing information with his or her partner.</p> <p>Primary focus of attention Learner's primary focus is on completing the incomplete information based on what the partner says and what is given to them. They incidentally use the vocabulary instrumental to this purpose.</p>

<p>Task 11 Type: Information gap Title: Profiles and Jobs Direction: Matching personal profiles and advertised future job Target Vocabulary: Artist, CV, diploma, employ, occupation, qualification, newsagent</p>	<p>Gap Each learner receives a picture. The first picture portrays three characters and their potential, and the second picture provides information on six types of career path available for this job placement bureau. Learner draws different information from the image.</p> <p>Resource The potential skill and qualification for each character and the career path are provided. However, learners also draw information from their situation.</p> <p>Outcome Each learner discusses and advises on the two most suitable jobs for each character.</p> <p>Primary focus of attention Learner's primary focus is on the information provided from what the partner says and what is given to them. They incidentally use the vocabulary instrumental to this purpose.</p>
<p>Task 12 Type: Information gap Title: Career comparison Direction: Comparing the career development among several companies Target Vocabulary: Candidate, pension, quit, wage</p>	<p>Gap Each learner receives a picture. The first picture portrays three characters and their career preference, and the second picture provides career information from three companies. Learner draws different information from the image.</p> <p>Resource The career preference of each character and information about three companies are provided. However, learners also draw information from their knowledge or situation.</p> <p>Outcome Each learner discusses and assigns the candidates to the most suitable company according to their preferences.</p> <p>Primary focus of attention Learner's primary focus is on the information provided from what the partner says and what is given to them. They incidentally used the vocabulary instrumental to this purpose</p>

TASK SHEET

1090952 – Bill Wullur

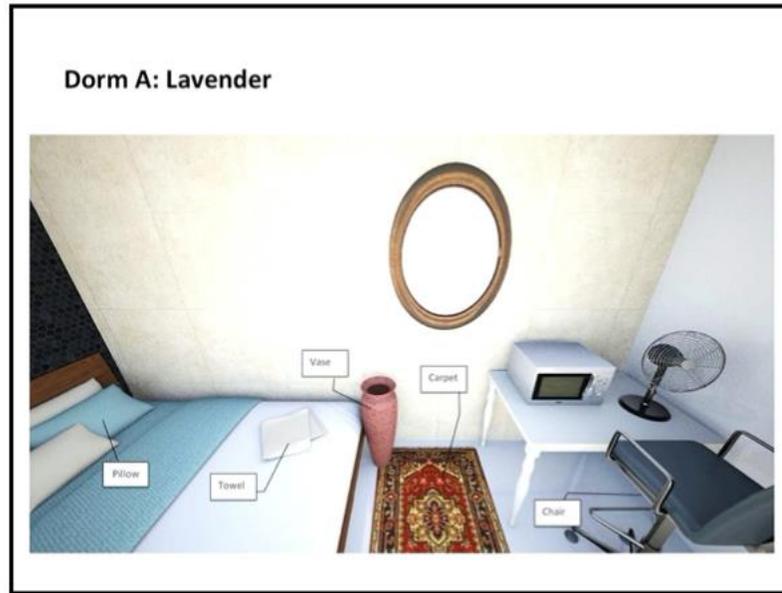
Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 1 Room Inventories

Student A

You are looking at the picture of a new dorm room for next semester, and your partner is looking at the picture in another dorm room. Compare the two images without looking at your partner's, and check if your partner has the same items. You can also compare them to your real bedroom. Spot the difference.

Image 1: RoomInventoriesA
© Bill Wullur 2018
Image created with MS Powerpoint
Room picture created by Bill Wullur using a free online room creator at <https://roomstyler.com>
Acct: Aaron153



Task Specification and Content Version 2, 7/AUG/2018

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1090952 – Bill Wullur

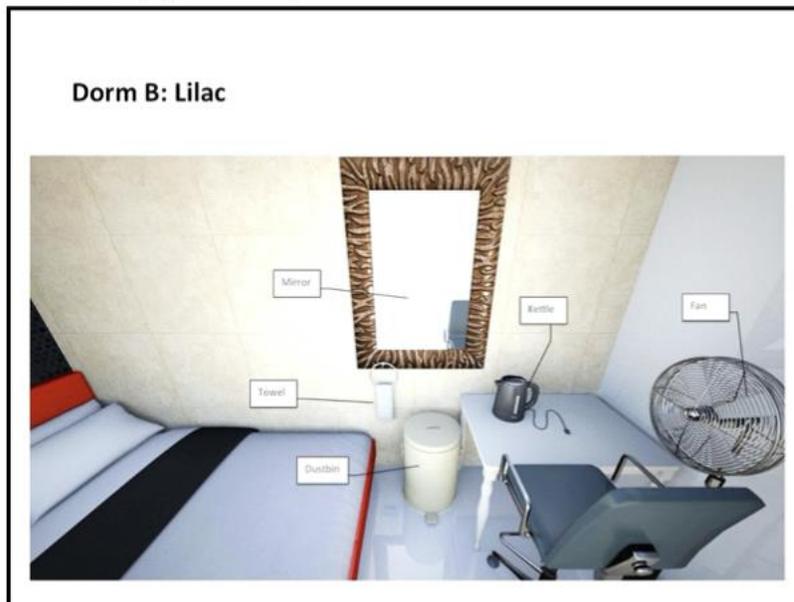
Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 1 Room Inventories

Student B

You are looking at the picture of a new dorm room for next semester, and your partner is looking at the picture of another dorm room. Compare the two images without looking at your partner's, and check if your partner has the same items. You can also compare them to your real bedroom. Spot the difference.

Image 2: RoomInventoriesB
© Bill Wullur 2018
Image created with MS Powerpoint
Room picture created using a free online room creator at <https://roomstyler.com>
Acct: Aaron153



Task Specification and Content Version 2, 7/AUG/2018

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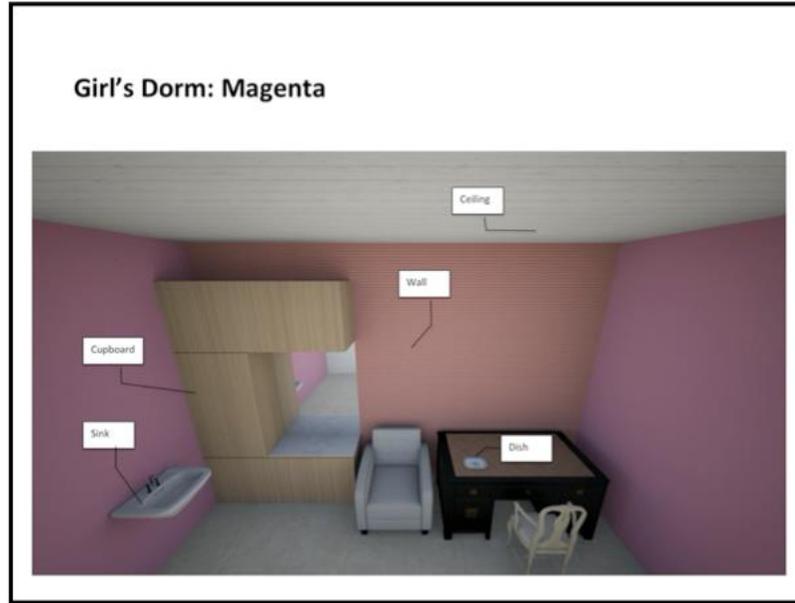
Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 2 Room Furniture

Student A

You are looking at the picture of a girl's room, and your partner is looking the picture of a boy's room. Compare the two images without looking at your partner's, and check if your partner has the same items. You can also compare them to your real room. Spot the difference.

Image 3: RoomFurnitureA
 © Bill Wullur 2018
 Image created with MS.Powerpoint
 Room picture created by Bill Wullur using a free online room creator at <https://roomstyler.com>
 Acct: Aaron153



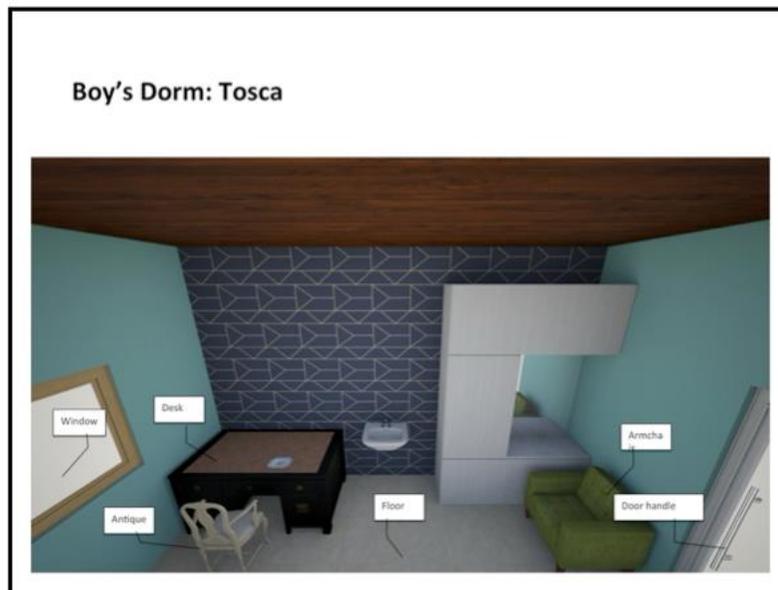
Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 2 Room Furniture

Student B

You are looking at the picture of a boy's room, and your partner is looking at the picture of a girl's room. Compare the two images without looking at your partner's, and check if your partner has the same items. You can also compare them to your real room. Spot the difference.

Image 4: RoomFurnitureB
 © Bill Wullur 2018
 Image created with MS.Powerpoint
 Room picture created using a free online room creator at <https://roomstyler.com>
 Acct: Aaron153



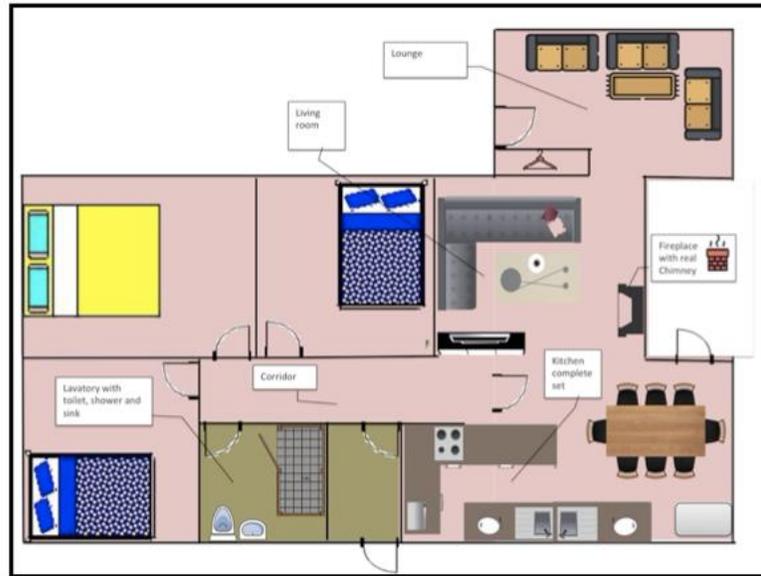
Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 3 Floor plans

Student A

You are looking at the picture of a floor plan, and your partner is looking at the picture another floor plan. Compare the two images without looking at your partner's, and check if the similarities and difference of your floor plan to your partner's. You can also compare them to the current house you are living in.

Image 5: FloorplansA
 © BillWullur 2018
 Created with Ms.Powerpoint
 Some icons/pictures are downloaded from
 www.flaticon.com using a paid subscription
 by Bill Wullur, account: user8395158



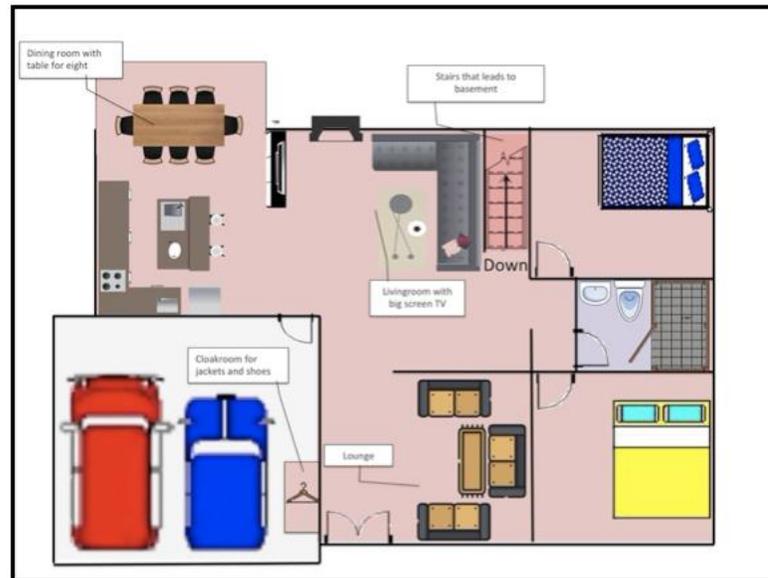
Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 3 Floor plans

Student B

You are looking at the picture of a floor plan, and your partner is looking at the picture another floor plan. Compare the two images without looking at your partner's, and check if the similarities and difference of your floor plan to your partner's. You can also compare them to the current house you are living in.

Image 6: FloorplansB
 © BillWullur 2018
 Created with Ms.Powerpoint
 Some icons/pictures are downloaded from
 www.flaticon.com using a paid subscription
 by Bill Wullur, account: user8395158



Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 4 The right accommodation

Student A

You are looking at the profiles of three people, each of them plan to rent a room. Your partner is looking at information about three properties. Discuss with your partner to recommend the best property for them.

Glossary:

Cheap = murah
Smell = bau
Coal = batubara
Brick = batu bata
Fence = pagar
Airy room = ruang banyak udara
Privacy = kebebasan pribadi
Stairs = tangga

Image 9: RightAccommodationA
© BillWullur 2018
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Looking for Accommodation

Aaron ↓

Male, student, want a cheap dorm, need no furniture, like to make new friend, hate coal smell



Clifford →

Male, Musician, want to play trumpet, wants airy room, hate outside noise



Chloe ←

Female, model, has lots of clothes, want privacy and security (brick fence), hate stairs



Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 4 The right accommodation

Student B

You are looking at the features of three properties, while your partner is looking at the profiles of three people who are looking for property to rent. Discuss with your partner to help them find the best dorm for each person.

Glossary:

Furnished = berperabot
Upstairs = ruang atas
Property = tempat tinggal
Hedge = tanaman pagar
Neighbour = tetangga
High ceiling = plafon tinggi
Lawn = Halaman
Ladder = tangga

Image 10: RightAccommodationB
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Available Accommodation

\$ 200/month



Property type:

Apartment ↑

Female only, 1 per room, laundry, no parking, furnished, brick fence, upstairs only

\$ 280/month



Property type:

Dorm →

Male or female, 2 per room, not furnished, coal heater, hedge around the lawn (no fence) basement (access by ladder only)



\$ 130/month

←Property type:

Dorm Male or female, furnished, no neighbour, high ceiling, near train station, big lawn

Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 5 Dorm living

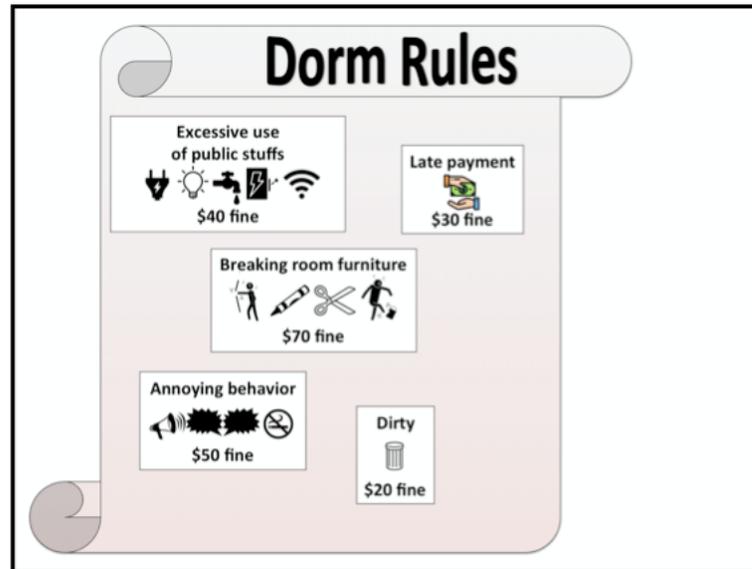
Student A

You are looking at some of the rules of a dormitory, while your partner assesses three people and their behaviour. Discuss with your partner to help determine the fine for each of them.

Glossary:

Excessive = berlebihan
 Fine = denda
 Annoying = mengganggu
 Furniture = perabot
 Dirty = kotor
 behaviour = tingkah laku

Image 11: DormLivingA
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Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 5 Dorm living

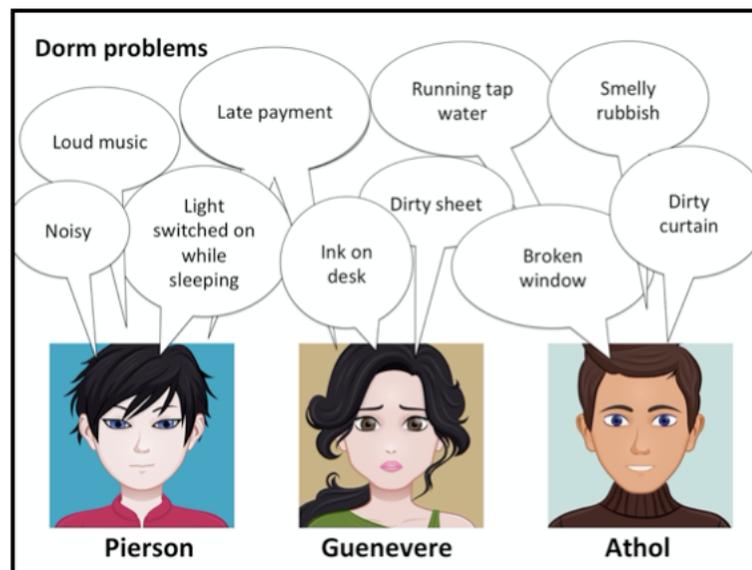
Student B

You are looking at the behaviour of three people which violating some of the rules of a dormitory (Your partner has that information). Discuss with your partner to help determine how much fine should be charged for each of them.

Glossary:

Curtain = tirai
 Sheet = sprei
 tap = keran
 Switch(ed) = saklar lampu
 Rubbish = sampah
 Noisy = ribut

Image 12: DormLivingB
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Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 6 House bills

Student A

You are looking at the profiles of people renting a house, where each of them rent a room. Your partner is looking at the current house bills. Discuss with your partner to fairly split the bill based on the usage.

Glossary:

Bulb = balon lampu
 Stove = kompor
 Shower = mandi
 Home country = negara asal
 Housework = pekerjaan di rumah
 Switch on = menhidupkan saklar

Image 19: HouseBillsB
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Renata →

Owns some gadget and laptop, spent most of her time cooking in gas stove, take showers everyday, still use old bulb  for light





Mark ↑

Rents the biggest bedroom. Plays video games, watch TV and use computer a lot. He always switch on the AC.



← Timothy Owns a small freezer and a microwave, spend most nights calling his wife at his home country. He does all the housework

Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 6 House Bills

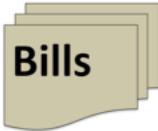
Student B

You are looking at the current house bills, where each of them rent a room. Your partner is looking at the profiles of people renting a house. Discuss with your partner to fairly split the bill based on the usage.

Glossary:

Bill(s) = tagihan
 Electricity = listrik
 Period = jangka waktu
 Rent = sewa
 long distance = jarak jauh

Image 20: HouseBillsB
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Bills

Bills for this period:

-  Rent: \$230 for large room, \$200 for regular room
-  Gas: \$300, over \$100 from last period
-  Electricity: \$450.
-  Water: \$250
-  Phone: \$150, \$50 for long distance call

Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 7 Delivery route

Student A

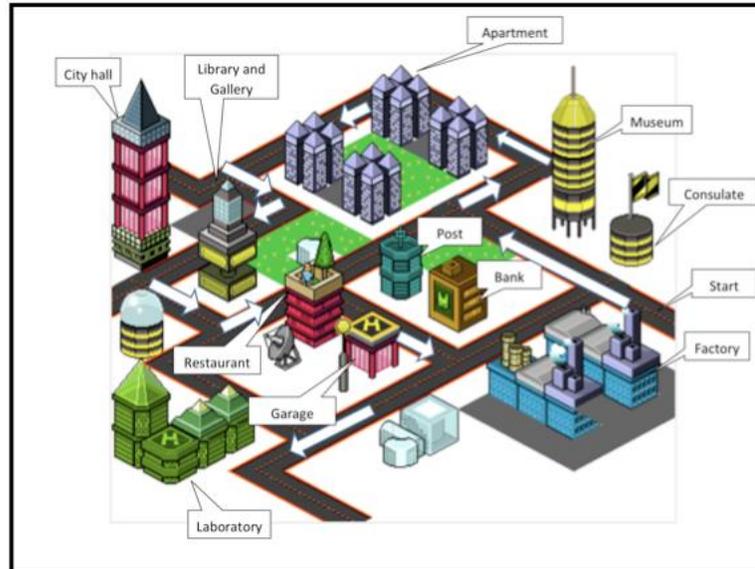
You are looking at an old map of a neighbourhood with the delivery route, while your partner is looking at the newest map of the same area. Help your partner by giving direction for the delivery route and draw it his or her map. Notice that the maps might change over time. Indicate the building in which the delivery takes place. This is the 2008's map with delivery route.

Glossary:

Factory = pabrik
 Garage = bengkel
 Gallery = gedung pameran
 City hall = balai kota
 Consulate = kedutaan asing

Image 17: DeliveryRouteA

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 Created with MS Powerpoint, Map created by Bill Wullur using a free online map creator at <https://www.citycreator.com>



Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 7 Delivery route

Student B

You are looking at a map of a neighbourhood, while your partner is looking at the old map of the same area with the delivery route. Ask direction from your partner draw it on your map. Notice that the maps might change over time. Indicate the building in which the delivery takes place. The 2018 map looks like this.

Glossary:

Apartment = apartemen
 Library = perpustakaan
 Laboratory = laboratorium
 Post = kantor pos

Image 18: DeliveryRouteB

© BillWullur 2018
 Created with MS Powerpoint, Map created by Bill Wullur using a free online map creator at <https://www.citycreator.com>



Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 8 In the courtroom

Student A

You are looking at the court system in Indonesia, while your partner is looking at the court system in the USA. Compare what you see regarding these things below. Provide missing information best of your knowledge. List what else you know!

Glossary:

Prosecutor = jaksa penuntut

Lawyer = pengacara

Defendant = tertuduh

Image 7: IndonesianCourtroom

© detik.com

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Images downloaded from:

https://id.vltrends.com/uploads/posts/2018-04/jaksa-kpk-interogasi-fbi-didapat-atas-perintah-pengadilan_1.jpeg

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Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 8 In the courtroom

Student B

You are looking at the court system in the USA, while your partner is looking at the court system in Indonesia. Compare what you see concerning these things below. Provide missing information best of your knowledge. List what else you know!

Glossary:

Judge = hakim

Jury = juri

Clerk = penyalin berita acara

Image 8: USACourtroom

© getty images

Distorted/filtered by Bill Wullur with Ms.Powerpoint

Pictures downloaded from:

<https://carwad.net/sites/default/files/pictures-of-courtroom-136202-3105026.jpg>

Used only for learning resources



Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 9 My dream job

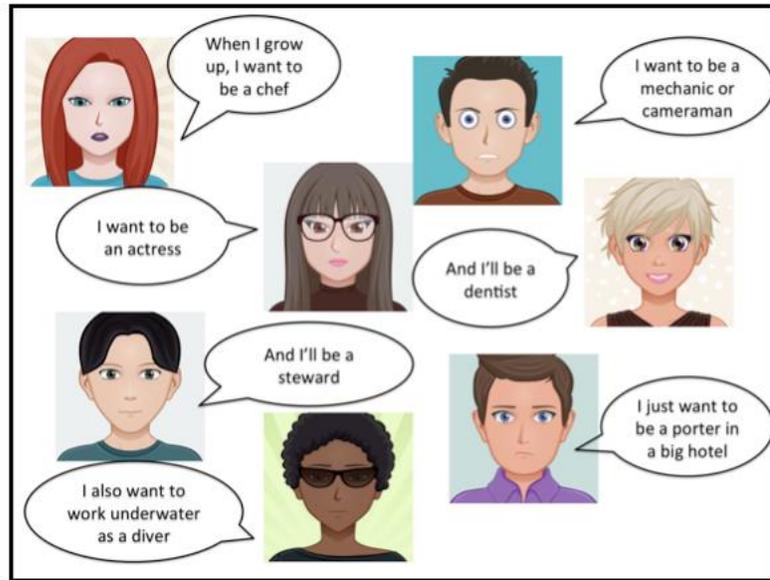
Student A

You are looking at a picture of seven people talking about their dream job when they were young. Your partner is looking at a picture of the same people and what they are doing ten years later. Which of them fulfil their dream job? Discuss with your partner.

Glossary:

Steward = pramugara(i)
 Dentist = dokter gigi
 Porter = pesuruh di hotel
 Diver = penyelam
 Chef = tukang masak profesional

Image 15: MyDreamJobA
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Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 9 My dream job

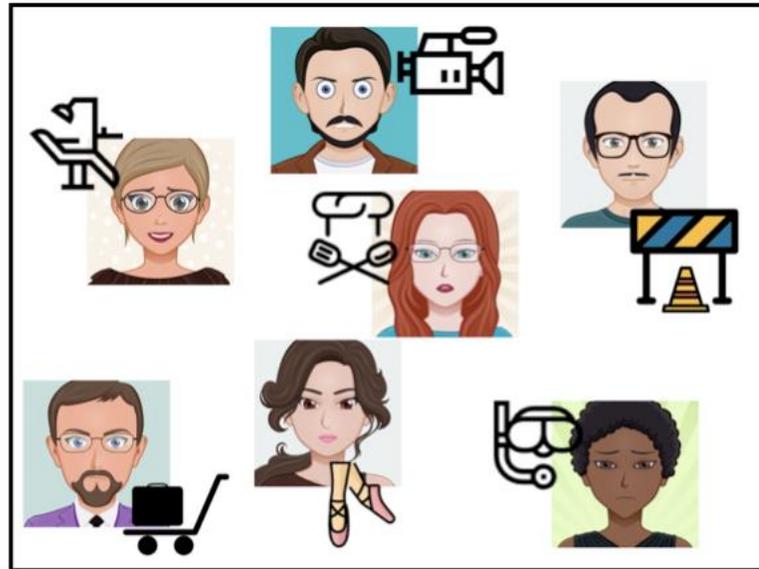
Student B

You are looking at a picture of seven people and what they are doing right now. Your partner is looking at a picture of the same people ten years ago and their dream job. Which of them fulfil their dream? Discuss with your partner.

Glossary:

Cameraman = Tukang syuting/foto
 Mechanic = montir
 Dancer = penari
 Actress = pemain film
 Construction job = pekerjaan bangunan

Image 16: MyDreamJobB
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Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 10 Jobs and partners

Student A

You are looking at a picture of 8 people (or 4 couples) sitting together in a restaurant. Can you guess what the occupations of all these people are? Clue: *The chemist sits near to the carpenter and the butcher seats near to the greengrocer.* Your partner has the same picture and another clue.

Glossary:

Butcher = tukang daging
 Chemist = apoteker
 Physician = dokter
 Postman = tukang pos

Image 13: JobsAndPartnersA
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Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 10 Jobs and partners

Student B

You are looking at a picture of 8 people (or 4 couples) sitting together in a restaurant. Can you guess what the occupations of all these people are? Clue: *The journalist sits near to the physician and the postman seats near to the nurse.* Your partner has the same picture and another clue.

Glossary:

Greengrocer = penjaja sayuran
 Carpenter = tukang
 Mechanic = montir
 Journalist = wartawan

Image 14: JobsAndPartnersB
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Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 11 Profiles and jobs

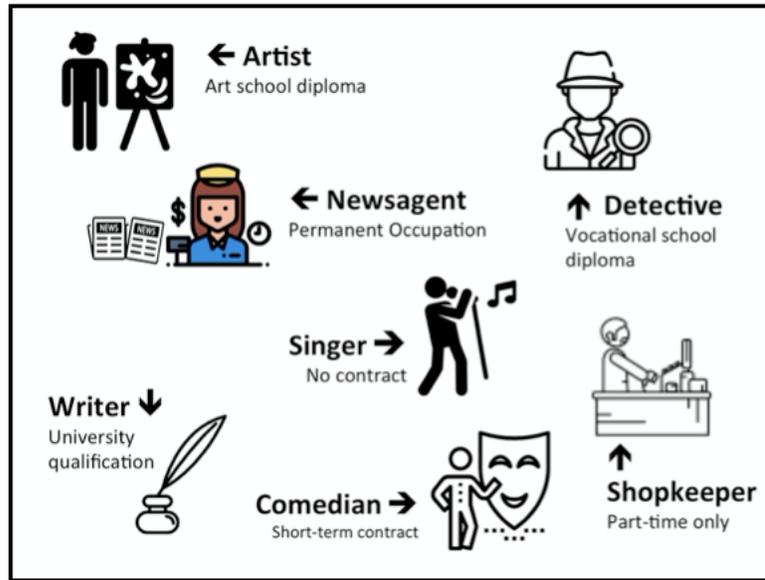
Student A

You are looking at the kinds of advertised job, while your partner is looking at the CV and qualification of several people for career choice. Discuss with your partner to help advise on future careers.

Glossary

Artist = pelukis
 diploma = ijazah
 Occupation = pekerjaan
 Qualification = kualifikasi
 Newsagent = penjaja Koran
 Writer = penulis
 Comedian = pelawak
 Shopkeeper = penjaga toko

Image 21: ProfilesAndJobsA
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Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 11 Profiles and jobs

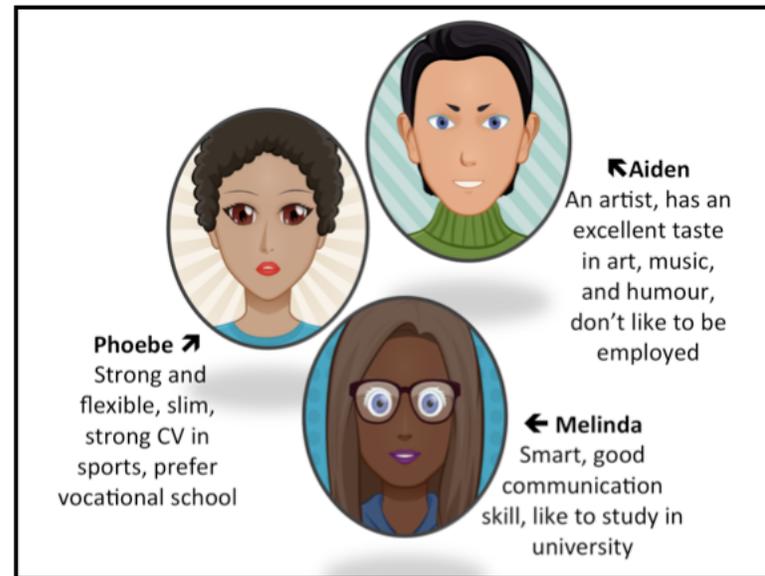
Student B

You are looking at the CV evaluation and qualification of several people for career choice, while your partner is looking at the kinds of advertised job. Discuss with your partner to help advise on their future careers.

Glossary

Employ(ed) = mempekerjakan
 Occupation = pekerjaan
 CV = lembar riwayat hidup dan catatan kualifikasi dan pengalaman kerja
 Art = seni
 Humour = lawak
 Vocational school = sekolah ketrampilan

Image 22: ProfilesAndJobB
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 creator program at <https://avatarmaker.com>



Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 12 Career comparison

Student A

You are looking at the career offer from three companies, while your partner is looking at the qualification of several candidates. Discuss with your partner to help match these people and the best career for them.

Glossary

Quit = berhenti, menarik diri

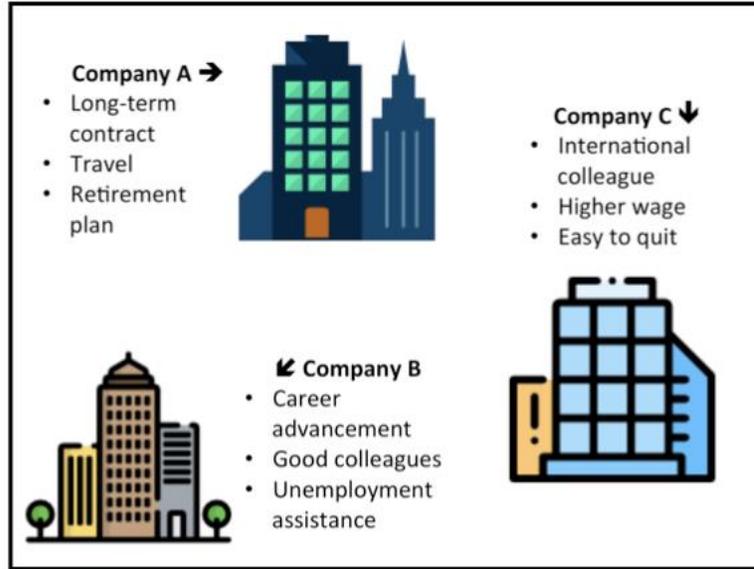
Wage = upah kerja

Travel = jalan-jalan

Retirement plan = rencana pensiun

Career advancement = Pengembangan karir

Image 23: CareerComparisonA
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Company A →

- Long-term contract
- Travel
- Retirement plan

Company B ↙

- Career advancement
- Good colleagues
- Unemployment assistance

Company C ↓

- International colleague
- Higher wage
- Easy to quit

Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 12 Career comparison

Student B

You are looking at the qualification of three candidates, while your partner is looking at the career offer from three companies. Discuss with your partner to help match these people and the best career for them.

Glossary

Commitment = bertahan di suatu tempat,

Pension = pensiun

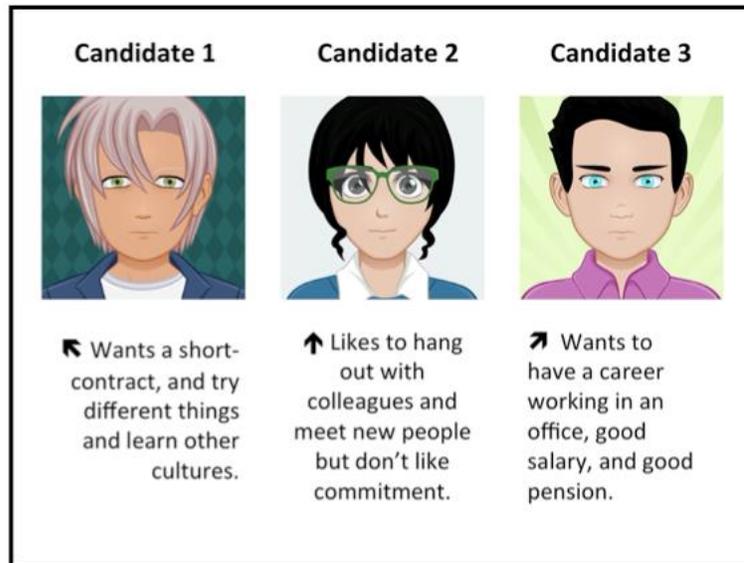
Colleagues = rekan kerja

Contract = kontrak kerja

Career = karir

Salary = gaji

Image 24: CareerComparisonB
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Candidate 1

↙ Wants a short-contract, and try different things and learn other cultures.

Candidate 2

↑ Likes to hang out with colleagues and meet new people but don't like commitment.

Candidate 3

↗ Wants to have a career working in an office, good salary, and good pension.

Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

QUESTIONNAIRE

- I have received information regarding this research and had an opportunity to ask questions. I believe I understand the purpose, extent and possible risks of my involvement in this project and I voluntarily consent to take part.

Student no:

Pair no:

A

B

This questionnaire is intended to investigate your self-assessment of engagement and lexical learning. The questionnaire will use a rating scale of 1 to 5, which translates to strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, and strongly agree. Circle the number that applies to you.



		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Task engagement						
1.	I liked talking about this topic	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I took notice of what my partner said	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I participated to complete of the task	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I felt bored with this task	1	2	3	4	5
5.	My partner and I resolved our different opinion	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I think my partner and I did great job on the task	1	2	3	4	5
Lexical knowledge						
7.	I noticed words that were new to me.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	When my partner used words new to me, I tried to use them myself	1	2	3	4	5

Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

QUESTIONNAIRE (2)

- I have received information regarding this research and had an opportunity to ask questions. I believe I understand the purpose, extent and possible risks of my involvement in this project and I voluntarily consent to take part.

Student no: _____

Pair no: _____ A B

This questionnaire is intended to investigate your self-assessment of engagement and lexical learning. The questionnaire will use a rating scale of 1 to 5, which translates to strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, and strongly agree. Circle the number that applies to you.



		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Task engagement						
1.	I liked talking about this topic	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I took notice of what my partner said	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I participated to complete of the task	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I felt bored with this task	1	2	3	4	5
5.	My partner and I resolved our different opinion	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I think my partner and I did great job on the task	1	2	3	4	5
Lexical knowledge						
7.	I noticed words that were new to me.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	When my partner used words new to me, I tried to use them myself	1	2	3	4	5
9.	By completing these tasks, I learnt the following words:	1. _____		4. _____		
		2. _____		5. _____		
		3. _____		6. _____		

INTERVIEW GUIDED QUESTIONS

This questions guide the interview/focus group process

Task engagement

1. Which topic do you like the best? What do you like about these topics? Do you engage more when you like the topic?
2. Do you enjoy working with your partner? How well do you know her or him? Do you prefer working with other (same gender/different gender)? How well did listen to your partner? Will you participate more when given different partner?
3. Did you give your best in completing the task? How far did you go to complete the task? What motivated you to complete the task?
4. Do you easily get bored? Do you usually get bored when study English? Do you like talking to partner in English?
5. Did you have different opinion with your partner regarding the task? Did you resolve it? Did your partner challenge you when you have different opinion? Did you?
6. How much would you grade your work?

Lexical knowledge

7. Did you learn new words from these activities? Have you learn new words from your partner? Did you teach new words to your partner?
8. Did you try to use new words in your conversation? Do you think this task help you learn new words?
9. Do you feel you made progress with English by using these activities? Do you like it? Will you recommend it to others?
10. Do you think that the more you participated, the better your progress in learning new words? Will a better topic help you learn faster? Will a better partner help you learn faster?]

APPENDICES C. PILOT STUDY REVISIONS

- C.1 Task and target word revisions
- C.2 Pilot study task sheet
- C.3. Pilot study target word item facility analysis

No	Information	Original Task (Pilot study)	Revised Task (Main study)
Task #1	Task type	Spot the difference	Spot the difference
	Task title	Room inventories	Room inventories
	Task direction	Learners compare room objects at the beginning and the end of the semester to check the inventory list	Compare two dorm rooms to spot the differences
	Target words	Window, blanket, mirror, desk, microwave, fan.	Towel, dustbin, fan, mirror, vase, kettle, pillow
Task #2	Task type	Similarities and differences	Spot the difference
	Task title	Floor plans:	Room furniture
	Task direction	Learners compare two kinds of floor plans and give their preference.	Comparing two dorm rooms to spot the difference
	Target words	Living room, basement, bedroom, chimney, corridor, garage	Lounge, cloakroom, chimney, lavatory, basement
Task #3	Task type	Similarities and differences	Similarities and differences
	Task title	Court system	Floor plans –
	Task direction	Learners compare the role of participants in two courtrooms, the Indonesian and the USA.	Compare floor plans of two houses
	Target words	Politician, judge, lawyer, staff	Judge, guard, clerk, lawyer, courtroom, defendant
Task #4	Task type	Information gap	Information gap
	Task title	<i>The right accommodation:</i>	The right accommodation –
	Task direction	Learners match several accommodation options with prospective tenants.	Advise the best accommodation for three tenants
	Target words	Furnished, coal, upstairs, rent, ceiling, hedge	Property, upstairs, lawn, furnished, ceiling, hedge

Task #5	Task type	Information gap	Information gap
	Task title	<i>Dorm rules and problems:</i>	Dorm living –
	Task direction	Learners design a guide for choosing dorm-based rules.	Count the fine based on how many rules are violated
	Target words	Electricity, phone, rent, curtain, furniture	Sheet, tap, curtain
Task #6	Task type	Information gap	Information gap
	Task title	<i>House bills:</i>	House bills
	Task direction	Learners split the house bills for three house tenants based on the appliance and electronic use.	Split the house bills based on appliance and electronic use
	Target words	Phone, gas, fan, rent, property	Bulb, switch, shower, rent
Task #7	Task type	Information gap	Information gap/Giving and receiving direction
	Task title	<i>Profiles and jobs:</i>	Delivery route
	Task direction	Learners match personal profiles and advertised jobs.	Give delivery route directions with two incomplete maps
	Target words	CV, career, occupation, colleague, diploma, qualification	Gallery, city hall, factory
Task #8	Task type	Information gap	Information gap
	Task title	<i>Career comparison:</i>	In the courtroom
	Task direction	Learners compare career choices in different companies.	Compare Indonesian court system with the one of the USA
	Target words	Pension, quit, wage, candidate	Clerk, defendant, judge, lawyer, courtroom, guard

Task #9	Task type	<i>Information gap/Line drawing</i>	Information gap
	Task title	<i>Delivery route:</i>	My dream job
	Task direction	Learners give and receive directions using two incomplete maps.	Checking if a person has fulfilled his or her dream job or not
	Target words	Cinema, bank, museum, factory	Chef, diver, porter, steward,
Task #10	Task type	Picture matching	Information gap/Picture matching
	Task title	<i>Jobs and workplace:</i>	Job and partner
	Task direction	Learners match different jobs and workplaces.	Matching job and people
	Target words	Dentist, artist, banker, designer, housewife	Carpenter, butcher, chemist, greengrocer, profession,,
Task #11	Task type	<i>Picture placement</i>	Opinion task - Information gap
	Task title	<i>Furniture and appliances:</i>	Profiles and jobs
	Task direction	Learners give and receive advice on how to place the objects in a picture.	Match personal profiles and advertised future job
	Target words	Antique, armchair, desk, cupboard, sink, dish, carpet	Artist, CV, employ, occupation, qualification, diploma, newsagent
Task #12	Task type	Picture matching	Opinion Task - Information gap
	Task title	<i>Job and uniform</i>	Career comparison
	Task direction	Learners match job and working related uniform/ appearance.	Compare career development among several companies
	Target words	Dancer, labourer, mechanic, postman, nurse	Candidate, pension, quit, wage

Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 1 Student A

You are looking at the picture of Andi's room at the start of the school year, and your partner is looking the picture at the end of the school year. Compare the two images without looking at your partner's, and check if your partner has the following items, and spot the difference.

	Start of school year	End of school year	Difference
window			
blanket			
curtain			
mirror			
desk			
microwave			
fan			
iron			
vase			
carpet			
cooker			
cushion			
towel			
pillow			
chair			
seat			
bucket			
pan			



Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 1 Student B

You are looking at the picture of Andi's room at the end of the school year, and your partner is looking the picture at the start of the school year. Compare the two images without looking at your partner's, and check if your partner has the following items, and spot the difference.

	Start of school year	End of school year	Difference
window			
blanket			
curtain			
mirror			
desk			
microwave			
fan			
iron			
vase			
carpet			
cooker			
cushion			
towel			
pillow			
chair			
seat			
bucket			
pan			



Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 2 Student A

You are looking at the picture of a floor plan, and your partner is looking the picture another floor plan. Compare the two images without looking at your partner's, and check if the similarities and difference of your floor plan to your partner's. Is your floor plan has all of these? If yes, how many? Which is bigger/what size is it (small, medium or large)? Write N/A if unknown.

	Do you have?		Which is bigger?	
	Floor plan A	Floor plan B	Floor plan A	Floor plan B
Basement				
Bedroom				
Chimney				
Corridor				
Garage				
Bathroom				
Lavatory				
Roof				
Cloakroom				
Cottage				
Door				
Garage				
Garden				

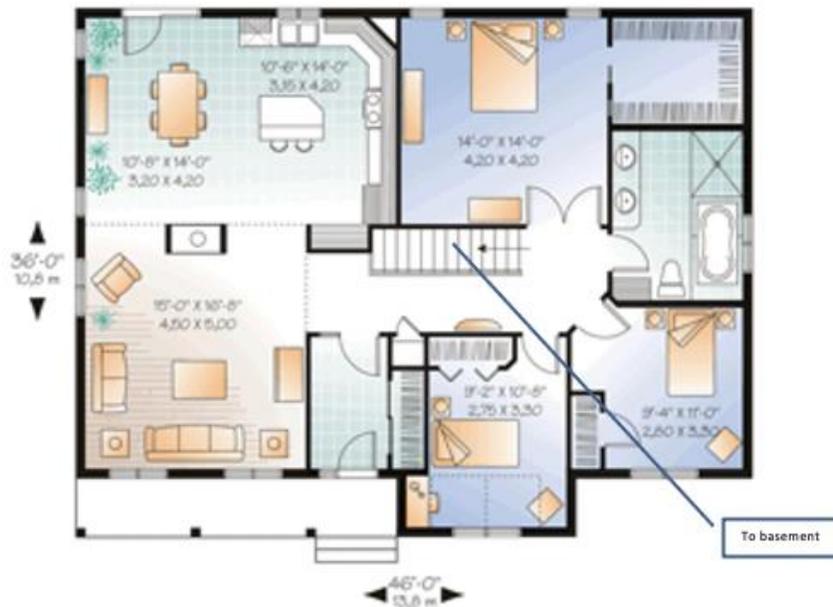


Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 2 Student B

You are looking at the picture of a floor plan, and your partner is looking the picture another floor plan. Compare the two images without looking at your partner's, and check if the similarities and difference of your floor plan to your partner's. Is your floor plan has all of these? If yes, how many? Which is bigger/what size is it (small, medium or large)? Write N/A if unknown.

	Do you have? How many?		Which is bigger?	
	Floor plan B	Floor plan A	Floor plan B	Floor plan A
Basement				
Bedroom				
Chimney				
Corridor				
Garage				
Bathroom				
Lavatory				
Roof				
Cloakroom				
Cottage				
Door				
Garage				
Garden				



Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 3 Student A

You are looking at the court system in Indonesia, while your partner is looking at the court system in the USA. Compare what you see regarding these things below. Provide missing information best of your knowledge. List what else you know!

	Do you have?		How is it different?	
	Courtroom A	Courtroom B	Courtroom A	Courtroom B
Politician				
Judge				
Lawyer				
Staff				
Police				
Clerk				
Priest				
Guard				
Steward				
Interpreter				
Cameraman				
Journalist				



Task 3 Student B

Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

You are looking at the court system in the USA, while your partner is looking at the court system in Indonesia. Compare what you see concerning these things below. Provide missing information best of your knowledge. List what else you know!

	Do you have?		How <u>is</u> it differ?	
	Courtroom B	Courtroom A	Courtroom B	Courtroom A
Politician				
Judge				
Lawyer				
Staff				
Police				
Clerk				
Priest				
Guard				
Steward				
Interpreter				
Cameraman				
Journalist				



Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 4 Student A

You are looking at the profiles of three-person looking for renting different properties, while your partner is looking three properties. Discuss with your partner to help them find the best property for themselves, by looking at their profiles and match with what kind of property they need.

	Aaron	Chloe	Clifford
Furnished			
Coal			
Upstairs			
Laundry			
Neighbour			
Rent			
Ceiling			
Wall			
Floor			
Bed			
Brick			
Fence			
Garage			
Garden			
Lavatory			
Plant			

Aaron, male, first-year student, prefer cheap dorm, need only basic furniture, care not about the appearance and the energy used, need a parking spot.

Chloe, female, second-year student, prefers a clean, neat and beautiful place to stay, care much about privacy and security.

Clifford, male, second-year student, love to cook, like to listen to loud music, used to receive a lot of visitors.

Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 4 Student B

You are looking at the floorplans of three properties currently on the market, while your partner is looking at the profiles of three-person looking for property to rent. Discuss with your partner to help them find the best property, by matching features and property they need.

	Aaron	Chloe	Clifford
Furnished			
Coal			
Upstairs			
Laundry			
Neighbour			
Rent			
Ceiling			
Wall			
Floor			
Bed			
Brick			
Fence			
Garage			
Garden			
Lavatory			
Plant			

Lavender dorm Female only, private bathroom, lavatory and laundry, beautiful garden, high fence, quite an area, additional storage at the basement, private laundry, no parking. Rent is \$2,000 per semester.

Magenta dorm Male or female, fully furnished, gas kitchen set, private parking, a large high-ceiling living room, a balcony, 3-car garage, and a customized kitchen set. Rent is \$2,800 per semester.

Tosca dorm Male or female, upstairs, utility bill included, minimal furnishing, shared lavatory, and bathroom, coal heated, maple wood floor, a parking spot, Rent is \$1,300 per semester.

Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 5 Student A

You are looking at some of the rules of a dormitory, while your partner assesses the problems arise in routine dorm life. Discuss with your partner to help determine penalty point for each offense to help rules become effective.

Rules	Penalty (fine)	Diana	Glenn	Adella
Excessive use of public property	40			
Late payment of rent (third offense)	30			
Breaking public property	70			
Annoying behaviour	50			
Dirty room	20			
	Total:			

Fine: Set from \$20 - \$100



Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 5 Student B

You are looking at some of the rules of a dormitory, while your partner assesses the problems arise in routine dorm life. Discuss with your partner to help count how much money they need to pay for fine.

Problem	Penalty (fine)			
Electric bill is very high; room light is still on during sleeping time				
Public phone is used by certain people only				
Occasional Late payment of rent				
Window is blocked by closet or bed				
Housework is not done properly				
Doorbell rang at late night				
Annoying flatmate especially during sleeping time				
Smelly rubbish not thrown out for weeks				
Cleaning the room				

Diana: Annoying the flatmate during the sleeping time by listening to loud music, she has been warned. Her room light is still on during the sleeping time.

Glenn: Is very lazy at cleaning his room, as smelly rubbish was not thrown out for weeks. He has not done the housework properly, and his flatmate is annoyed.

Adela: Use the phone too much that other people have no chance to use it, she also broke her window and torn the curtain yesterday when she was mad.

Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 6 Student A

You are looking at the profiles of people renting the house (each rent a room, while your partner is looking at the current house bills (gas, electricity, and phone). Discuss with your partner to help count how much money they owe the landlady

What to pay!	Mark	Renata	Timothy
Gas			
Electricity			
Phone			
House rent			
Total:			

Gas bill: \$300 this period, over almost \$100 from the last bill.

Electricity bill: \$450 this period.

Phone bill: \$150 this period, almost 50% are international calls.

House rent: \$230 for large room (1 only), \$200 for regular room.

Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 6 Student B

You are looking at the current house bills (gas, electricity, and phone), while your partner is looking at the four people renting the house (each rent a room). Discuss with your partner to help count how much money they owe the landlady

What to pay!	Mark	Renata	Timothy
Gas			
Electricity			
Phone			
House rent			
Total:			

Mark: Rents the main bedroom. Owns a lot of electronic devices, such as home theatre stereo, DVD, computer, video, and several toys. He also uses the AC every day.

Renata: Owns some gadget and laptop, use fan in her room, spent most of her time cooking.

Timothy: Owns a small freezer and a microwave, spend most nights calling his home country.

Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 7 Student A

You are looking at the kinds of advertised job, while your partner is looking at the CV and qualification of several people for career choice. Discuss with your partner to help advise on future careers.

What to pay!	Yvonne	Leroy	Elfie
Athlete			
Actor/actress			
Captain			
Detective			
Instructor			
Model			
Musician			
Poet			
Comedian			
Dancer			
Total:			

Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 7 Student B

You are looking at the CV and qualification of several people for career choice, while your partner is looking at the kinds of advertised job. Discuss with your partner to help advise on future careers.

What to pay!	Future careers
Yvonne	
Leroy	
Elfie	

- Yvonne: Perfect candidate for manager, smart, curious, good communication skill. Has a diploma in qualification, work well with colleague, want a long career with pension.
- Leroy: Has an excellent taste in art, music, and humor. Strong confidence in front of the public, but also enjoyed working alone.
- Elfie: Strong and flexible, excellent control over her body, a tall, good-looking and slender (slim) figure body.



Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 8 Student A

You are looking at the career offer from 3 companies, while your partner is looking at the qualification of several candidates. Discuss with your partner to help give advice which company offer the best benefit for each.

Benefits	Candidate 1	Candidate 2	Candidate 3
Pension			
Career advancement			
International colleague			
Easy to quit			
Higher wage and salary			
Better staff			
Long-term contract			
Retirement plan			

Company A	Long-term contract Travel Retirement plan
Company B	Career advancement Better-staff/Assistant Pension
Company C	International colleague Higher wage Easy to quit Unemployment assistance

Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 8 Student B

You are looking at the CV and qualification of several people for career choice, while your partner is looking at the kinds of advertised job. Discuss with your partner to help advise on future careers.

	Company
Candidate 1	
Candidate 2	
Candidate 3	

Candidate 1: Wants a short-contract since he likes to try different things and learn other cultures. However, he does not want to be unemployed.

Candidate 2: Has excellent taste in art, music, and humour. Strong confidence in front of the public, but also enjoyed working alone.

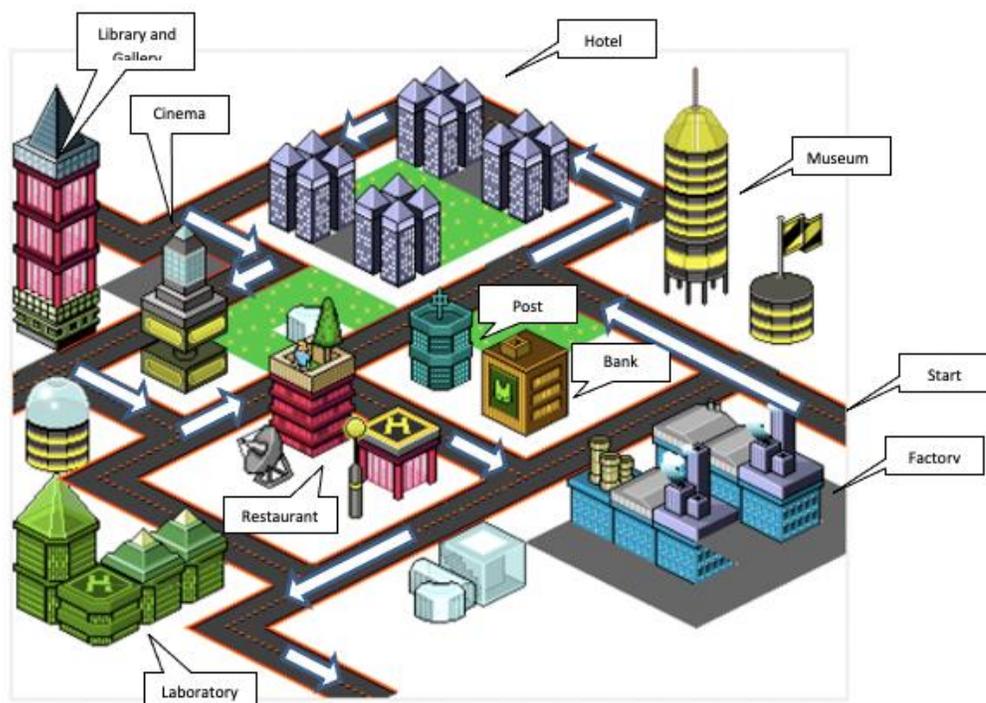
Candidate 3: Strong and flexible, great control over her body, a tall, good-looking and slender (slim) figure body.

Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 9 Student A

You are looking at an old map of a neighbourhood with the delivery route, while your partner is looking at the newest map of the same area. Ask your partner to help give direction for the delivery route and draw it his or her map. Notice that the maps might change over time. Indicate the building in which the delivery takes place.

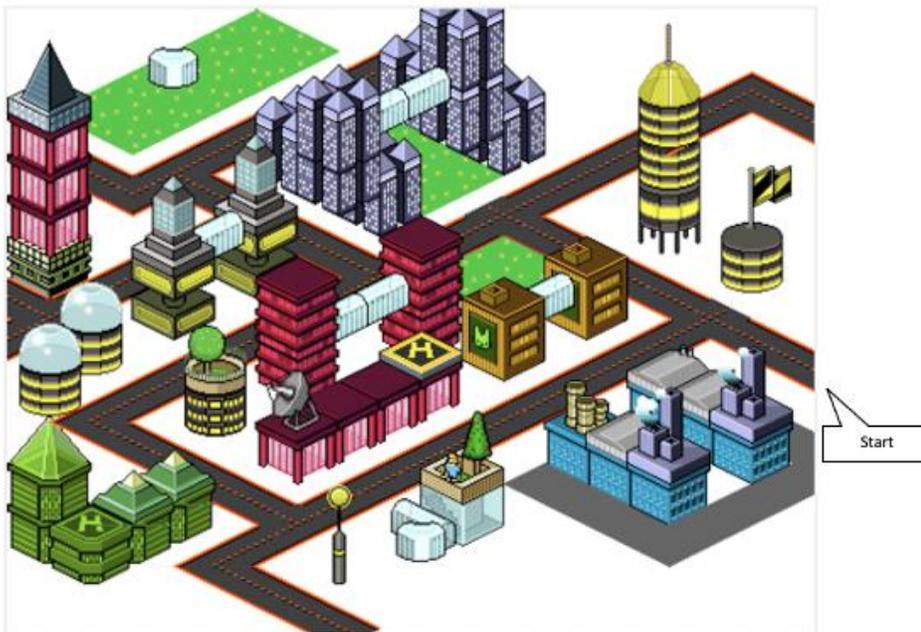
The 2008's map with delivery route



*Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning***Task 9 Student B**

You are looking at the newest map of a neighborhood, while your partner is looking at an old map of the same area, with the delivery route. Ask your partner to help give direction for the delivery route and draw it on your map. Notice that the maps might change over time.

The 2018's map



Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning**Task 12 Student A**

You are looking at the list of jobs, while your partner is looking at the pictures of uniforms related to a job. Working with your partner, identify their job from what they are wearing.

This is the information for you:



Jobs

Dancer	Doctor	Priest
Labourer	Army/soldier	Porter
Mechanic	Cameraman	Librarian
Postman	Chef	
Nurse	Servant	



Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 10 Student B

You are looking at the picture of workplaces, while your partner is looking at the picture of people and their job. Working with your partner, match picture and the place where they mostly work. This is the information for you:

		Workplace	
Salon	Bank	Home	Workshop
Studio	Pharmacy	Government office	Publishing company
Office	Road	Anywhere	
			
			
			
			
			
			
			

Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning**Task 11 Student A**

You are looking at two pictures a room and several furniture/appliances. Your partner is looking at the same picture but has been arranged. With your partner direction, organize the furniture/appliances to match the other image.

Ask about these items

Desk

Dishwasher

Dish

Cupboard

Cooker

Oven



Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 11 Student B

You are looking at a picture of a room with several furniture/appliances inside. Your partner is looking at the room and the appliances, but not arranged. Give your partner some directions to arrange the furniture/appliances to match your picture.

Tell specifically about these items

Microwave

Sink or basin

Drawer

Armchair

Alarm

Radio



Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 12 Student A

You are looking at the list of jobs, while your partner is looking at the pictures of uniforms related to a job. Working with your partner, identify their job from what they are wearing.

This is the information for you:

Jobs		
Dancer	Doctor	Priest
Labourer	Army/soldier	Porter
Mechanic	Cameraman	Librarian
Postman	Chef	
Nurse	Servant	

Multidimensional task engagement and second language lexical learning

Task 12 Student B

You are looking at the picture of several people and their uniform, while your partner is looking at the picture of their job. Working with your partner, identify their job from what they are wearing.

This is the information for you:

	Things they usually bring	
Statoscopes Books Camera	Gun Signature Pad Wrench	Trolley Voice recorder Bible
		
		
		
		
		
		
		

Table C-3 Pilot study target word item facility analysis

No	Target words	IF Score	Decision	No	Target words	IF Score	Decision
1	Blanket	.92	Replace	31	CV	.08	Keep
2	Carpet	.75	Replace	32	Bedroom	.75	Replace
3	Fan	.17	Keep	33	Employ	.17	Keep
4	Microwave	.83	Replace	34	Occupation	.25	Keep
5	Mirror	.67	Keep	35	Qualification	.33	Keep
6	Basement	.67	Keep	36	Candidate	.33	Keep
7	Chimney	.33	Keep	37	Career	.58	Keep
8	Corridor	1	Replace	38	Colleague	.67	Keep
9	Staff	.75	Replace	39	Pension	.42	Keep
10	Living-room	.83	Replace	40	Quit	.25	Keep
11	Judge	.58	Keep	41	Wage	.25	Keep
12	Politician	.75	Replace	42	Bank	1	Replace
13	Garage	.58	Keep	43	Cinema	1	Replace
14	Profession	.5	Keep	44	Factory	.17	Keep
15	Lawyer	.67	Keep	45	Museum	1	Replace
16	Ceiling	.	Keep	46	Banker	.83	Replace
17	Coal	.75	Replace	47	Designer	1	Replace
18	Furnished	.5	Keep	48	Hairdresser	.92	Replace
19	Laundry	.92	Replace	49	Housewife	.83	Replace
20	Curtain	.75	Keep	50	Antique	.42	Keep
21	Upstairs	.42	Keep	51	Armchair	1	Replace
22	Neighbor	.67	Keep	52	Cupboard	.67	Keep
23	Property	.42	Keep	53	Desk	.33	Keep
24	Phone	.92	Replace	54	Dish	.5	Keep
25	Window	.92	Replace	55	Sink	.67	Keep
26	Electricity	.75	Replace	56	Dancer	1	Replace
27	Gas	1	Replace	57	Labourer	.92	Replace
28	Furniture	.75	Replace	58	Mechanic	1	Replace
29	Artist	.5	Keep	59	Nurse	1	Replace
30	Rent	.75	Replace	60	Porter	.25	Keep

Total keep = 31

Total Replace = 29

APPENDICES D. TASK TRANSCRIPT

- D.1. Sample transcript of Level 1 participants
- D.2. Sample transcript of Level 2 participants
- D.3. Sample transcript of Level 3 participants

Sample transcripts - level 1 participants

Transcript Dyad no 1, level 1, both males. Task 1

- Male #1 In my dorm is lilac? In my head room have a bed the colored is red, white, and black.
Male #1 I have a towel... my ... and mirror, kettle, and fan. My fan is big and mirror...
Mirror...
Male #2 In my room i have pillow, towel, vase, carpet, chair and i have fan but small i have
microwave and ... mirror.
Male #1 In my room dorm name hall b is lilac, i have a bed the color red, white, black i have
mirror, towel, dustbin, table, kettle, fan, and chair.
Male #2 In my room i have a bed the color is blue and white and i have a pillow, towel, vase,
and i have carpet and mirror and chair and also i have fan and microwave.
Male #1 What is the size your fan?
Male #2 My fan so small
Male #1 In my room my fan is big
Male #2 But i have ...
Male #2 Microwave
Male #1 But i'm not have microwave, but i have kettle?
Male #2 I don't. I don't have
Male #1 In my room have dustbin are you have a dustbin?
Male #2 I don't have dustbin but i have vase
Male #1 Vase for, vase for
Male #2 Vase flower
Male #1 In my room have a towel are you have a towel?
Male #2 Yes i have my towel the color is white
Male #1 Yes me too
Male #1 What the color your bed?
Male #2 My bed color is blue and white
Male #1 In me red and the carpet spring bed white and black
Male #2 Do you have carpet?
Male #1 No i'm not have carpet
Male #2 I have carpet

Transcript Dyad no 1, level 1, both males. Task 2

- Male #1 In my dorm for boy his name is tosqa i have a desk, window, and empty floor, and
door handle
Male #2 In my room is girls dorm her name is magenta she have cupboard, sink, wall, ceiling,
and dust
Male #1 Are you have a armchair?
Male #2 No
Male #1 No

Male #1 You have window?
Male #2 No
Male #1 You have desk?
Male #2 Yes i have
Male #1 Sink? You have sink?
Male #2 Yes i have sink.

Transcript Dyad no 1, level 1, both males. Task 11

Male #1 Phoebe strong and flexible slim strong cv in sport prefer in vocational school and aiden an artist has an excellent taste in art music and humor don't like to be an employee. Melinda smart good communication skill like to study in university.
Number 1 hobby
Male #2 The person is you have a shopkeeper for part time only and a newsagent for permanent occupation and a last for ... a writer university
Male #1 People number 2 aiden he is an artist has an excellent in art music and humor and don't like to be employed.
Male #2 He is have a artist art school and a singer and a last for ...
Male #2 Writer
Male #1 For the last people she is melinda and she is smart good communication skill and like to study in university.
Male #2 She is writer for permanent skill permanent job and a
Male #1 She is smart and ...
Male #2 And newsagent ... smart ... shopkeeper part time
Male #1 Okay thank you for your information

Transcript Dyad no 1, level 1, both males. Task 12

Male #1 Number 1 candidate
Male #2 Short contract ...
Male #2 She is To in company c it's a international college higher wage and easy to quit
Male #1 Aah okay for candidate number one thank you. And for candidate number two she's like to hang out with colleague and meet new people but don't like commitment
Male #2 For candidate number two she is a take company a to long term contract travel and retirement plan for candidate number two
Male #1 Oh thank you for your information. And for candidate number three he is wants to have career working in office good salary and good pension
Male #2 For the candidate three is the last company b is a took career advancement, good colleague and unemployment assistance for candidate number three
Male #1 Oh okay thank you
Male #2 Thank you

Transcript Dyad no 7, level 1, both males. Task 1

Male #2 I have a pillow towel vase carpet chair how about you?
Male #1 I have a mirror kettle fan towel and dustbin... my dustbin color is white and my kettle color is black and my towel color is white and you?
Male #2 My pillow is ...
Male #2 Blue color towel is white color vase red color carpet rainbow color chair blue color
Male #1 Do you have a vase?
Male #2 No i don't have and do you have a kettle? A kettle?
Male #1 No i don't have
Male #1 Do you have a fan?
Male #2 No i don't ... yes i have do you have a chair?
Male #1 Yes i have a chair do you have a microwave?
Male #2 No i don't have. Do you have a dustbin?
Male #1 No i don't have
Male #2 Do you have a table
Male #1 Yes i have and a... do you have a ... do you have a towel?
Male #2 Yes i have is white color how many your pillow?
Male #1 My pillow a ... i have a one pillow
Male #2 Do you have a tv?
Male #1 No i don't have and you?
Male #2 Same

Transcript Dyad no 7, level 1, both males. Task 2

Male #1 You have cupboard?
Male #2 Cup
Male #1 You have sink?
Male #2 Yes i have
Male #1 You have?
Male #2 Yes i have
Male #1 You have dish?
Male #2 Yes i have dish
Male #1 Ceiling?
Male #2 Yes i have
Male #1 And wall?
Male #2 I have wall
Male #2 You have window?
Male #1 Window? No i don't have
Male #2 You have desk?
Male #1 Desk? Yes i have
Male #2 You have antique?

Male #1 Antique? Yes i have
 Male #2 You have floor?
 Male #1 I have
 Male #2 You have armchair? Armchair
 Male #1 No i don't have
 Male #2 You have door handle?
 Male #1 Door handle? No i don't have.
 Male #2 Okay thank you
 Male #1 Thank you

Transcript Dyad no 7, level 1, both males. Task 11

I see there is there are three people and there are three people and they're want look
 Male #1 for a job. First people you see name is a phoebe she is a strong and flexible slim
 strong physic in sport prefer occasional school and second people she is
 She is a girl your name melinda smart good communication skill like to study in
 Male #1 university and third people boys he name is aden an artist has an excellent taste in art
 music and humor don't like to be employee and they are a look for a job
 Phoebe ... suitable career is artist singer and detective melinda suitable career is
 Male #2 writer comedian and shop keeper and aden suitable career is artist singer and
 comedian

Transcript Dyad no 7, level 1, both males. Task 12

And my map there are three candidate they look for a job first candidate wants a short
 Male #1 contract and try different things and learn other cultures candidate two likes two hang
 out with colleague and meet new people but don't like commitment, third candidate
 wants to have a career working in an office good salary and good passion
 Male #2 They are look for a job
 Male #2 The first candidate suitable company b
 Male #2 The second candidate suitable company a and third candidate suitable company c.

Transcript Dyad no 9, level 1, both females. Task 1

Female #1 Dorm a lavender has a pillow
 Female #2 Dorm b lileq has a towel but not has a vase
 Female #1 Dorm a not has um has not a dustbin but dorm b has a dustbin
 Female #2 Dorm b has not a but dorm a has a carpet
 Female #2 Dorm b has a kettle but dorm a hasn't a kettle not has a kettle
 Female #1 Dorm a has a toaster but dorm b a toaster
 Female #2 Dorm b has a big fan but dorm a has a small fan
 Female #2 Dorm b has square mirror
 Female #1 Dorm a has a oval mirror

Transcript Dyad no 9, level 1, both females. Task 2

- Female #2 Boys dorm has a window
Female #1 But girls dorm does ... not
Female #2 Has not
Female #1 Doesn't
Female #2 Boys dorm has a window
Female #1 But girls dorm has not a window
Female #1 Girls dorm has a wall
Female #2 Boys dorm has a door handle but girls dorm ...
Female #1 But girls dorm ...
Female #2 You don't have a desk
Female #2 Oh you have a desk
Female #1 Girls dorm has a dish
Female #2 But boys dorm has a desk
Female #2 I has a window but you ...
Female #1 Girls dorm magenta has not a window
Female #2 Boys dorm has a armchair has a green armchair
Female #1 Girls dorm has a um um grey armchair

Transcript Dyad no 9, level 1, both females. Task 11

- Female #1 Phoebe character is strong and flexible strong physics in sport favorite vocational school
Female #2 Phoebe can be a ...
Female #2 Can be a detective and can be an ... writer
Female #1 And melinda's character is smart good communication skill like to study in university
Female #2 Melinda can be a writer a ...
Female #2 An artist and that's it
Female #1 And aiden character is an artist has an excellent taste in art music and humor don't like to be employee
Female #2 Aiden can be an artist singer and comedian that's all

Transcript Dyad no 9, level 1, both females. Task 12

- Female #1 Ok the candidate one, he wants a short contract, and try different things and learn other culture
Female #2 I think ah because candidate one wants a short contract, ah i think he... he can work at company c because in company c is easy to quit so whenever he want to quit, he can because he... uh... want a short contract.
Female #1 Uh... the candidate two likes to hang out to it colleague... colleague and meet new people butdon't like commitment.
Female #2 Eh, i think she can work at company a, because company a is a long term contract, travel and retirement plan, because she wants to meet new people and he like.. She likes to hang out so she can take company a because in company a have a travel

- Female #1 Candidate three wants to have a career working in an office, good salary and good pension
- Female #2 I think he can work at company b, because at company b has... will be a career advancement, good colleagues and unemployment assistance.

Transcript Dyad no 12, level 1, both females. Task 1

- Female #1 I stay in mila dormitory in my dormitory i have a mirror i have a towel i have a dustbin i have a kettle i have fun and i have cupboard and how about you?
- Female #2 Now my dorm color is white i have vas i have a carpet my carpet color is red i have a chair i have towel and i have pillow
- Female #1 Boys dormitory my color in my dormitory tosca in my dormitory i have window i have chair i have antique a floor i have armchair and door handle and how about you?
- Female #2 In my bedroom i have a ceiling wall i have disc i have cupboard and i have sink

Transcript Dyad no 12, level 1, both females. Task 2

- Female #1 I have a paint paint my house on and i have to bed big big bed
- Female #1 I have a cupboard and desk and i have cha ... i have a sofa in my bedroom and i have a ...
- Female #1 I have a doll in my bedroom and how about you?
- Female #2 My bedroom aaa color is ... is white and i have i have i have vas in my bedroom and i have a carpet my carpet color is red i have towel and i have pillow and i have chair in my bedroom
- Female #1 Oh i have too
- Female #2 Okay
- Female #1 Next two
- Female #1 In my bedroom i have a desk i have a door handle i have a window and i have antique so how about you?
- Female #2 In my bedroom i have ceiling i have a cupboard i have wall i have sink and i have dish
- Female #1 I have a sink too

Transcript Dyad no 12, level 1, both females. Task 11

- Female #1 His name aden an artist has an excellent taste in art music and humor don't like to be employee
- Female #2 Aden could be an artist in art school diploma and sing a singer and no contract a comedian a short term contract
- Female #1 Feeby strong and flexible slim strong cv in sport prefer vocational school
- Female #2 People number two feeby could be an detective and could be school in professional school diploma could be waiter universitas qualification and could be shop keeper in part time only
- Female #1 Melinda smart good communication skill like to study in university
- Female #2 People number three melinda could be a ... waiter in university qualification and could be news agent permanent occupation and could be ...
- Female #1 Detective school in professional school diploma

Transcript Dyad no 12, level 1, both females. Task 12

- Female #2 Candidate one wants short contract and try different things and learn others culture
- Female #2 Maybe candidate one can ...
- Female #2 Can work in company b and a ... company b
- Female #2 Want a candidate who have a carrier assessment good college and unemployed assistant
- Female #1 Candidate two likes to hang out with colleagues and meet new people but don't like to commitment
- Female #2 Candidate two can work in company c because company c want people who international college higher wage easy to quit
- Female #1 Candidate three wants to have a carrier working in an office good salary and good pension
- Female #2 Candidate three can work in company a can too in company c eh ... company a long term contract travel retirement plan
- Female #2 Okay that's all from our conversation
- Female #1 Thank you

Sample Transcripts - Level 2 participants

Transcript Dyad No 18, Level 2, Male and Female. Task 1

- Male Are you have ... have a mirror in your bedroom in your dorm?
Female What about table? Do you have table in your room?
Male Yes I have also. Are you have a kettle and fan in your dorm?
Female I'm have fan but I don't have kettle
Male Oh okay. How about chair? Are you have chair?
Female Yes I have. What about vase? Do you have vase in your room?
Male No my room is not have vase how about a towel and the pillow? Are you have towel and pillow?
Female Yes I have. What about carpet? Do you have carpet in your room?
Male Oh no. There's no carpet in my dorm
Female What about the of your mirror?
Male The ... my mirror is square how about your mirror?
Female I have a circle mirror
Male Oh.
Female What color of your (shirt?)
Male My (shirt?) Is I think is white and grey how about you?
Female Me too
Male My bed is red how about you your bed?
Female My bed is brown
Male Yes

Transcript Dyad No 18, Level 2, Male and Female. Task 2

- Female Hi Acel I want to ask something do you have window in your dorm?
Male No I not have window at my dro .. At my dorm aaa do you have disc in your dorm?
Female Yes I have. How about the armchair? Do you have armchair in your room?
Male Oh yes not I'm not have armchair how about the sink, are you have sink?
Female Yes I have what color of your wall?
Male My dorm wall is pink or red, pink pink
Female Why you choose pink?
Male I don't ...
Female What about table do you have table?
Male Oh yes I have table also are you have a cupboard?
Female Yes I have do you have door handle?
Male Yes I ... my ... oh no there is no handle on my door (my yes?) What about the floor?
Female My floor is grey maybe
Male Oh yes we are same

Female What about the ceiling what color of your ceiling?
Male White my ceiling is white how about your ceiling?
Female My ceiling is brown
Male Are you have antique in your dorm?
Female Yes I have, okay thank you Acel

Transcript Dyad No 18, Level 2, Male and Female. Task 11

Female Hi Marsel I have two friends and they are looking for occupation?
Male And then?
Female Do you have the kinds of a part of job or something like that?
Male Oh yes of course I have a seven job can you look at the CV and read to me?
Female Okay the first person is Feby she is strong and flexible slim strong CV in sports and prefer vocation school
Male I think she is an be detective job
Female Detective?
Male Just one next person
Female Next is Adan , Adan is an artist has an excellent taste in art music and humor but he don't like to be employee
Male Okay he can be an artist singer and comedian
Female Wow that's really match with ... singer and comedian wow
Female Okay the last person in Melinda she is smart good communication skill like to study in university
Male She can be news agent and writer
Male And I have one job shop keeper and Feby can take that job
Female Repeat please Feby can be what?
Male Feby can be shop keeper job
Female Okay thank you for recommendation Marsel
Male Yes your welcome Amei God bless
Female I will call them to meet you
Male Yes yes meet me bye
Female Bye

Transcript Dyad No 18, Level 2, Male and Female. Task 12

Female Candidate one wants a short contract and try different things and learn other culture
Male I think the best kind of work for eh candidate one is
Male He's company B, career advancement, good colleagues, unemployment assistance
Female Candidate two likes to hang out with colleagues, and meet new people but don't like commitment
Male Uh

Male The best career for candidate two is company C. He's international colleagues, higher wage and easy to quit
Female Candidate three want wants to have a career working in an office, good salary and good pension
Male Um And the candidate three the best career is company A, this is long term contract, travel, retirement plan

Transcript Dyad No 19, Level 2, Male and Female. Task 1

Female Do you have pillow in your dorm?
Male Yes. I have pillow
Female Do you have towel in your dorm?
Male Uhm. No. I don't have towel
Female Do you have vase in your dorm?
Male No I don't have vase
Female Do you have carpet in your dorm?
Male No . I don't have carpet
Female Do you have chair in your dorm?
Male Yes. I have chair
Male Do you have towel in your dorm?
Female Yes. I have towel
Male Do you have mirror in your dorm?
Female No. I don't have mirror
Male Do you have dustbin in your dorm?
Female No I don't have dustbin in my dorm
Male Do you have kettle in your dorm?
Female No I don't have kettle in my dorm.
Male Do you have fan?
Male In your dorm?
Female No, I don't have fan in my dorm.

Transcript Dyad No 19, Level 2, Male and Female. Task 2

Female Do you have ceiling in your dorm?
Male Ceiling.. Yes, i have ceiling
Female Do you have wall in your dorm?
Male Yes . I have wall
Female Do you have dish in your dorm?
Male Yes, I have dish
Female Do you have cupboard in your dorm?

Male Yes. I have cupboard
 Female Do you have sink in your dorm?
 Male Yes. I have sink
 Male On your dormitory, do you have window?
 Female No. I don't have window
 Male Hmm.. How about antique?
 Female No. I don't have.
 Male Hmm... and desk?
 Female I don't have desk in my dorm.
 Male How about floor?
 Female No. I don't have floor in my dorm
 Male And the armcha?
 Female No. I don't have
 Male And the last one. Do you have door handle?
 Female No I don't have door handle in my dorm.

Transcript Dyad No 19, Level 2, Male and Female. Task 11

Female Phoebe is strong and flexible slim strong physic in sport prefer vocational school
 Male I think the best career for him is singer
 Female Aden an artist has an excellent taste in art music and humor don't like to be an employee
 Male I think the future carrier for Aden is two the first one is artist and the second is singer
 Female Melinda is smart good communication skill like to study in university
 Male I think she the best carrier for Melinda is writer

Transcript Dyad No 19, Level 2, Male and Female. Task 12

Female Candidate 1 want to show contract and try to find different thing and learn other culture
 Male I think the best carrier for candidate 1 is ...
 Male Is company B carrier investment good college and an employment assistant
 Female Candidate 2 like to hang out with college and meet new people but don't like commitment
 Male The best carrier for candidate 2 is company C is international colleague high care wage and easy to quit
 Female Candidate 3 want to have carrier working in a office good salaries and pension
 Male And for candidate 3 the best carrier is company A this is long term contract travel retirement plan
 Female Candidate 1 want to show contract and try to find different thing and learn other culture
 Male I think the best carrier for candidate 1 is ...

Male Is company B carrier investment good college and an employment assistant
Female Candidate 2 like to hang out with college and meet new people but don't like commitment

Transcript Dyad No 20, Level 2, Male and Female. Task 1

Female Do you have blue pillow?
Male No I don't have
Male Do you have mirror?
Female Yes I have
Female Do you have white towel
Male Yes. I have
Male Do you have dustbin?
Female No I don't have
Female Do you have carpet?
Male No, I don't have
Male Do you have kettle?
Female No, I don't have. Do you have chair?
Male Yes I have. Do you have fan?
Female No I don't have

Transcript Dyad No 20, Level 2, Male and Female. Task 2

Male At your dorm, do you have cupboard?
Female No, I don't have
Female In your dorm, do you have window?
Male No I don't have
Male Do you have wall?
Female Yes, I have
Female In your dorm, you have floor?
Male Yes, I have
Male Um Do you have um sink?
Female No, I don't have
Female Do you have door handle?
Male No, do you have dish?
Female Yes, I have

Transcript Dyad No 20, Level 2, Male and Female. Task 11

Female First Aiden, an artist, has an excellent taste in art, music and humour, don't like to be employed.
Female So, What the best job for Aiden?

Male I think best job for Aiden is comedian,
 Female Second Melinda, smart, good communication and skill, like to study in university
 Female So, what the best job for Melinda?
 Male Best job for her is writer
 Female And third Phoebe, strong and flexible, slim, strong CV in sports, prefer vocational school. So what the best job for Phoebe?
 Male For Phoebe best job is be a detective

Transcript Dyad No 20, Level 2, Male and Female. Task 12

Female Candidate one
 Female Wants a short contract, try different things and learn another culture
 Male Em for candidate one go to company C
 Female Candidate two like... Likes to hang out with colleagues and meet new people but don't like commitment
 Male Candidate two go to company A
 Female Candidate three wants to have career working in an office good salary and good pensions
 Male For candidate three go to company B

Transcript Dyad No 22, Level 2, Both females. Task 1

Female #1 In dorm A, there is a pillow, there is a towel, there is a vase, there is a carpet, and there is a chair
 Female #2 In dorm B, there is a fan, there is a kettle, mirror, towel, and dustbin
 Female #1 In dorm A, there is a vase and carpet.
 Female #2 In dorm B, there is no carpet and vase.. In dorm B, there is a dustbin and kettle
 Female #1 In dorm A, there is no dustbin and kettle
 Female #2 In dorm B, the towel is hang
 Female #1 In dorm A, the towel is on the table .. On the bed
 Female #2 In dorm B, the fan I big
 Female #1 And in dorm A, is small
 Female #2 In dorm B, the miirror is square
 Female #1 In dorm A, the mirror is circle .

Transcript Dyad No 22, Level 2, Both females. Task 2

Female #1 In girls dorn, there is cupboard, sink, wall and a dish on the table
 Female #2 In boys dorm, the color is tosca there is a desk, window, antique, floor, armchair, and door handle
 Female #1 In girls, dorm, the wall color are purple and red
 Female #2 In boys, dorm, the color wall is blue and green.
 Female #1 In boys dorm, there is a window
 Female #2 In girls dorm, there is no window

Female #1 In boys dorm there is a armchair
 Female #2 In girls dorm,
 Female #1 Have two..
 Female #2 In boys dorm, there is a dish on the desk
 Female #1 In the girls' dorm there is

Female #2 In boys dorm, there is a floor
 Female #1 In girls; dorm too, there is a floor
 Female #2 In boys dorm, there is a door handle
 Female #1 In girl's dorm, there is no door handle
 Female #2 In boys dorm, there is a antique
 Female #1 In girl's dorm,
 Female #1 There is a antique

Transcript Dyad No 22, Level 2, Both females. Task 11

Female #1 I want to introduce about phoebe, she is strong and flexible, slim, strong CV in sports, prefer vocation school.. What do you think about she wants to be?
 Female #2 I think she can take vocational school diploma because she is prefer vocational school and she wants to be detective
 Female #2 Okay, the second is aiden, he is an artist, has an excellent taste in art, music, and humour
 Female #2 I think
 Female #2 He can take uhmm art school diploma because
 Female #2 He is an atist, or he can ..
 Female #2 Be singer because he likes music or
 Female #2 Short term contract
 Female #2 Because he is humour and he will be a comedian
 Female #1 The third is melinda, she is smart, good communication skill, likes to study in university
 Female #2 I think she can take university qualification because she likes to study in university and I think she will be a writer
 Female #2 Ok thank you.

Transcript Dyad No 22, Level 2, Both females. Task 12

Female #1 Candidate one
 Suitable with company B because candidate one wants short contract and try
 Female #2 different and learn other culture and candidate two suitable with company A because she like to hang out with other colleagues and company A has travel and
 Female #1 Candidate three suitable with company C because she had to work at the office with good salary and pension
 Female #2 And company C has international colleagues and higher wages

Sample Transcripts - Level 3 participants

Transcript Dyad No 26, Level 3, Male and Female. Task 1

Female Do your room have a mirror?
Male Yes
Female Uh.. And towel too?
Male Yeah.. Ummm
Male Do you have a pillow in your room?
yellow Uh.. I think i have.
Female Is that a pillow
Male Yes
Female Oh okay
Male Do you have...
Male A fan in your room?
Female Fan? Yes, i have.
Female In the... In my table in the room I have kettle and fan.
Female Kettle do you have too?
Male Are you have fan and microwave?
Female Oh I don't have microwave
Female How about the chair?
Male Yes I have
Female So same place with me
Female And table too?
Male Yes
Female Okay
Male Uhm do you have carpet?
Female What?
Male Carpet?
Female Carpet.
Female Oh I don't
Female I think I don't have
Male What about vase? Do you have vase?
Female Vase?
Male Vase.
Female Oh no, I don't have vase too
Male What color of your pilllow?
Female I have white pillow.
Female And now how about you?
Female White too?

Male I have white pillow and blue
Female And your towel you have?
Male Yes
yellow Nearby of the
Female Mirror or not?
Male My towel is in the
Male Bed
Female So the difference of your room and my room is
Female I don't have vase,
Female And....
Male Carpet.
Female Carpet
Female And what to?
Male Microwave...
Female Microwave.
Female And what.. And the pillow... color of the pillow.
Female And how about the dustbin. Do you have dustbin.
Male Dustbin?
Female Oh you don't have dustbin.
Female Okay

Transcript Dyad No 26, Level 3, Male and Female. Task 2

Female Now go the window.. In boys dorm?
Male I don't have a window.
Female You don't have...
Female And floor.. Do you have floor?
Male Yeah
Female What color
Female I think
Male It looked like grey
Female Grey?
Female Oh. It's the different color, your floor and my floor.. I have a ...
Male Do you have dish in you dorm?
Female Desk?
Male Dish.
Female Oh. Dish
Female No I don't have. I just have desk
Female Desk. Table and desk

Female Do you have?
Male Yes
Female And the antique?
Male I think I don't have.
Female You don't have?
Male Oh yes, I have.
red Uhm do you have armchair in you room?
Female Ohh yeah yes. I have.
Female My color is the green
Female Okay. How about door handle?
Female Door handle? Do you have door handle?
Male No.
Female Door. You don't have a door? You not have a door?
Male No, I don't see door in here.
Female Oh okay.
Male My picture is don't have a door.
Female I think you can't go outside, because you don't have a door.
Male Do you have cupboard?
Female Cupboard?
Female No, I don't have cupboard.
Male What color of your wall?
Female Grey.
Male Wall..
Female Oh. Wall. I
Female I have a think it's blue color, I think
Female Cause I don't know my color black or not
Female So just it?
Male Do you have sink?
Female Sink?
Female Sink like?
Male To wash your hand.
Female Oh yes I have.
Female I have sink and
Female I don't have a dish.
Female Do you have dish?
Female So the difference your room and my room just the color.
Male Yes. Color
Female I have a toska you have ..
Male Magenta..

Female I have a door handle
Female And you don't have a door.
Female I have a grey floor and armchair
Female The color is the green
Female Like your color.
Male My color Is grey.
Female Oh grey, you color is the grey.
Female And we have a sink too
Female Okay just. It.
Male Just it.

Transcript Dyad No 26, Level 3, Male and Female. Task 11

Female We have a girl name phoebe,
Male Phoebe?
Yellow Phoebe
Yellow Strong and flexible, slim, strong CV in sport, prefer vocational school
Female What career is ...
Male She is great to be a detective
Yellow Ok
Female We have a man he's name is Aiden, He is an artist, has an excellent taste in art, music and humour, don't like to be employed
Male Uhm..
Female What the career for him?
Male The career for him, an artist
Female We have a girl named Melinda,
Female She's smart, good communication skills, like to study in university.
Male I think, Career for her is writer, in university qualification

Transcript Dyad No 26, Level 3, Male and Female. Task 12

Female We have three candidates
Female For choice, the best,, the best office for them
Female The first candidate, he wants a short contract, and try different things and learn other cultures
Female What's the best career for them?
Male How about company C, .. Uhhh..because there, international colleague, higher wage, easy to quit
Female The second candidate, she likes to hang out with colleagues and meet new people but don't like commitment.
Female How about she?

Female What the best career for she?
Female She likes to hang out with colleagues and meet new people but don't like commitment
Female The third candidate, he's wants to have a career working in an office, good salary and pension
Male Good pension?
Female Pension
Oh.. For candidate two, uhh i think she can go with company b, because company b, career advancement, good colleagues, unemployment assistance and the third candidate, i
Male think he's match with company a, because company a, long term contract, travel, and retirement plan.

Transcript Dyad No 29, Level 3, Male and Female. Task 1

Male Do you have a carpet in your room?
Female Uhhh no, I don't
Female Uhh.
Female Do you mirror in your room?
Male Yes I have one.
Female What is the shape of your mirror?
Male Circle. And you?
Female My mirror is.. Uhm. Rectangle
Male What about towel, do you have one?
Female Yes I have one.
Male And .. A chair?
Female I also have one
Male What about fan?
Female I have the fan
Female Also
Female Do you have dustbin in your room?
Male Uhm.. No, i don't have
Male Do you have pillow in your dorm room?
Female Yes, I have.. On my bed

Transcript Dyad No 29, Level 3, Male and Female. Task 2

Female Do the girls dorm have windown in their room?
Male No.
Male In the girls dorm room don't have a window
Female How about the .. Door handle?

Male Off course

Male In boys dorm room have a cupboard?

Female Cupboard

Female Yes. They have

Male And the sink, do you have one?

Female Yes, the boys dorm have a sink in their room

Male What about dish?

Female Dish? Uhm

Female They have it on their desk

Male What about ceiling ?

Male Do you have it?

Female Yes.

yellow What about the color?

Male Uh.the color is

Male Is purple on the wall

Male And

Male White.. On the ceiling

Male And another wall is

Male Orange

Female The boys dorm have .. Brown color for the ceiling

Female And toska,

Female On their walls .. And grey on their floor

Male Have boys dorm room have a mirror

Female Uhhh.. They don't have it

Female Oh. They have it, on their

Female They have It on the cupboard

Transcript Dyad No 29, Level 3, Male and Female. Task 11

Female Aiden is an artist has an excellent taste in art, music, and humour and he don't like to be employed

Female So, what kind of

Male Job is match with aiden?

Female Hmm

Male I think

Male He will be good an artist, art school diploma

Female And melinda is a smart, good communication skill, and she likes to study in univeristy

Male Hmm..

Male He will be good a writer, uh.. University qualification.

Female And.. Pheobe, she is strong and flexible, slim

Female And she has a strong CV in sports and she prefer vocational school.
Female What kind career does match her?
Male Hmm..
Male She will be uh.. Good detective.. Uhhh
Male Because she is smart and good, and profesional school diploma

Transcript Dyad No 29, Level 3, Male and Female. Task 12

So there are three candidates that looking for career and the candidate one, he wants a short contract and try different things and learn other cultures.. So what kind of career that match with candidate one?
Male Candidate one, I think she need to try in company C.
Male Uhhh in the company C, international collague, hihger wage, and easy to quit
Female The second candidate, she likes to hang out with colleagues and meet new people but don't like commitment
Male She need to try in company B.. Uhhh in company B has a career advancement , good colleagues, unemployment assistance
Female And the third candidate, he wants to have a career working in an office, he wants to have a good salary and good pension
Male Uh.. Company a i think is gonna be good to candidate 3, it's a long term contract, trevel retirement plan.
Female Ok

Transcript Dyad No 31, Level 3, Both males. Task 1

Male #1 Do you have a fan?
Male #2 I have a fan. A little fan
Male #2 Are you have a kettle?
Male #1 Yes I do
Male #2 How many pillow do you have?
Male #1 I have one pillow in my room
Male #2 I have two pillow
Male #2 What is your pillow color?
Male #1 White
Male #2 Oh, I am blue and white
Male #1 Do you have a dustbin in you room?
Male #2 No, I don't have
Male #2 Do you have a carpet in your room?
Male #1 No, I don't.
Male #2 What shape of your mirror?
Male #1 Rectangle

Male #2 Oh. I'm oval
Male #1 Do you have a chair in you room?
Male #2 Yes I have
Male #2 Do you have a carpet in your room?
Male #1 No I don't have
Male #2 Do you have a vase?
Male #1 No, I don't

Transcript Dyad No 31, Level 3, both males. Task 2

Male #2 Do you have a sink?
Male #1 No I don't
Male #1 Oh yes I do
Male #1 Do you have a desk?
Male #2 Yes I have
Male #2 Do you have a cupboard?
Male #1 Yes I have
Male #1 Do you have a window in your room?
Male #2 No, I don't
Male #1 And any antique stuff in your room?
Male #2 Yes I have
Male #1 Do you have a sofa in your room?
Male #2 Yes I have a white sofa
Male #2 What color of your cupboard? My cupboard is brown
Male #2 My cupboard is white?
Male #1 What is your ceiling color?
Male #2 My ceiling color is white
Male #2 Mine is dark brown
Male #1 Is your house have garage?
Male #2 No I don't have
Male #1 How many bed room do you have in your house?
Male #2 I have three bedroom.
Male #2 Mine is two
Male #2 Do you have a basement in your house?

Transcript Dyad No 31, Level 3, both males. Task 11

Male #1 Phoebe is strong and flexible, slim, strong CV in sports, prefer vocational school, what kind of job she have to applied?
Male #2 Maybe she's suitable to detective,.. Yeah

Male #1 Aiden, an artist, has an excellent taste in art, music, and humour, don't like to be employed. What kind of job he have to applied?

Male #2 Wait.. He's an artist

Male #1 Don't like to be employed ..

Male #2 Hmm..

Male #2 Yeah, he's suitable with artist, comedian, ...

Male #2 Singer,, yeah!

Male #1 Melinda is smart, good communication skill, like to study in university.. What kind of job she have to applied?

Male #2 Maybe, she's suitable with the second, newsagent.. Wait..

Male #2 Ehmm

Male #2 Yeah.. Writer..

Transcript Dyad No 31, Level 3, both males. Task 12

Male #1 Candidate one, wants short a short contract and try different things and learn other cultures..

Male #2 Hmm

Male #2 Short contract..

Male #2 Candidate one,

Male #2 He wants short contract...

Male #2 Maybe suitable with company C, because easy to quit.. And he wants to try different things, and company C is international collage.

Male #2 Candidate one suitable with company C

Male #1 Candidate two, likes to hang out with colleagues, meet new people, but don't like commitment..

Male #1 Candidate three, wants to have a career working in an office, good salary, and good pension

Male #2 Candidate three,wants to have a career working in an office

Male #2 Good salary and good pension,

Male #2 Yeah, suitable with company B, cause company B has career advancement, good colleagues, and unemployment assistance

Transcript Dyad No 32, Level 3, both females. Task 1

Female #1 Do you have a mirror?

Female #2 Yes.

Female #2 Do you have

Female #2 Fan?

Female #1 Yes I have

Female #1 Do you have any pillow?

Female #2 Uh. I have only

Female #2 One. One pillow

Female #2 Do you have kettle?

Female #1 No, I don't
Female #1 Do you have any carpet?
Female #2 Carpet? Um no!
Female #2 Do you have towel?
Female #1 Yes I have
Female #1 Do you have a chair?
Female #2 Yes.
Female #1 What colour is your chair?
Female #2 It is
Female #2 Green
Female #1 Do you have any vase?
Female #2 Vase? No, i don't
Female #1 Do you have any microwave?
Female #2 Microwave. No
Female #1 What colour is your vase? Oh you don't have
Female #2 Yeah, I don't have any
Female #2 Do you have a bed?
Female #1 Yes, I have.
Female #1 Before you said, you have a fan right? What colour is your fan?
Female #2 It is black
Female #2 What is the shape of your mirror?
Female #1 Um, I have an oval mirror

Transcript Dyad No 32, Level 3, both females. Task 2

Female #1 What colour is your wall?
Female #2 It is toska
Female #2 Do you have an armchair?
Female #1 No I don't. But I guess I have. But it is not listed here, if it's an armchair.
Female #1 Do you have a sink?
Female #2 Sink? Oh, yes!
Female #1 How many sink do you have?
Female #2 Only one sink
Female #2 Do you have any antique stuff
Female #1 No I don't.
Female #1 Do you have a ceiling?
Female #2 Off course!
Female #1 How about cupboard? Do you have cupboard?
Female #2 Yes

Female #2 Do you have window?
 Female #1 Oh I don't have window. Exactly. Maybe I use aircond
 Female #2 Oh
 Female #1 Because there is no window
 Female #1 Do you have any table?
 Female #2 Hmm. Only desk
 Female #1 Okay.
 Female #1 I think that's all in my room. Do you have things there?
 Female #2 Oh wait.
 Female #2 Do you have any door handle.
 Female #1 I guess I have, but its not showed in the picture.

Transcript Dyad No 32, Level 3, both females. Task 11

Female #1 So I have
 Female #1 I have jobs here, but I need to see if your candidate are fit with all the jobs that I have. So do you have how many candidate?
 Female #2 Uh.. I have three candidates, the first one is uh, aiden..
 Female #2 He's an artist, has an excellent taste in art, music and humour, but don't like to be employed
 Female #1 Oh my God, its so sad.
 Female #1 The second one,
 Female #2 Is phoebe, she's strong and flexible, slim, strong CV in sport and prefer vocational school
 Female #1 Hmm.
 Female #2 And the last one is Melinda, she's smart, good communication skill, and like to study in university
 Female #1 Oh I see, uh.. I offer seven different jobs which is an artist, newsagent, singer, writer, comedian, shop keeper and detective. And what happen, is that Aiden fit as an artist
 Female #2 Artist.. Yeah
 Female #1 But he doesn't like to be employed right?
 Female #2 Yes
 Female #1 So, hmm.. In here i have a singer..
 Female #2 Singer?.. Oh!
 Female #1 But, the singer is we have no control,
 Female #2 Oh!
 Female #1 But I guess, Aiden still good to become an artist
 Female #1 And for your second candidate, Phoebe, I heard that she prefer to be in vocational school
 Female #2 Yeah
 Female #1 Of course,
 Female #1 I offer you a detective, because detective it is from vocational school diploma..

Female #2 Oh yeah.. She prefer vocational school
And for your last candidate Melinda, uhm.. She's smart, good communication skill, and
Female #1 she likes to study in university.. So it's good that she to become a writer, because a writer
is for university qualification. So I repeat, Aiden for an artist, Phoebe for a detective, and
Melinda for a writer
Female #2 Thank you

Transcript Dyad No 32, Level 3, both females. Task 12

Female #1 Good morning Madam..
Female #2 Good morning..
So today, I offer you three different company. So for the first company, the name was
company A, and the specification of this company is that if you want your candidate to
Female #1 work in here, your candidate will have long term contract, but in a long term contract they
have tend to travel to maybe to city around us, and the company offer you retirement plan
so if you old enough and you cannot work, it's ok don't be afraid because you have
retirement fee.
Female #1 And for the second company, the name was company B, in here you have a career
advancement and you have also good colleagues to working on, and in here you'll have
also an employment assitence, so that it's not be like the first company maybe, this is
more flexible.
Female #1 And for the company C, the workers or the employee are allowed from international
colleagues so that in here you'll not have only Indonesians, you'll also have Philippines,
Americans, and others, and you will have a higher wage, they will pay for a higher
amount. And also the good things that this company will not give you a long-term
contract because in there it's stated that in this company you are easy to quit.
Female #2 Okay
Female #1 So tell me about your candidate!
Female #2 I think the first candidate is fit for the company C
Female #1 Why?
Female #2 Cause a male
Female #1 Uhu
Female #2 A male, wants a short contract,
Female #1 Oh good!
Female #2 And try different things, and learn other cultures
Female #1 Oh good! Yeah because in here we have an international colleague
Female #2 Yeah.. Candidate two, female, like to hangout with colleague and make new people, but
don't like commitment. I think she fits
Female #1 Company B
Female #2 Yeah.. With the company b.
Female #1 Ok, and the last?
Female #2 And the last one, a male, wants to have a career working in an office, good salary, and a
good pension.. Uh..
Female #2 He fits to the

Female #1 Company A

Female #2 Company A

Female #1 Ok, thank you madam. See you tomorrow!

APPENDICES E. COMMON EUROPEAN FRAMEWORK OF REFERENCE (CEFR) - ENGLISH

- E.1. CEFR Levels - Global scale
- E.2. CEFR Levels - Self assessment grid
- E.3. CEFR Levels - Qualitative aspects of spoken language use

CEFR Levels - Global scale

Proficient	C2	Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. Can summarise information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in more complex situations.	
	User	C1	Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognise implicit meaning. Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
Independent	User	B2	Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.
	User	B1	Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes & ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.
Basic	User	A2	Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment). Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need.
	User	A1	Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce him/herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.

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CEFR Levels - Self assessment grid

	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2
Listening	I can recognise familiar words and very basic phrases concerning myself, my family and immediate concrete surroundings when people speak slowly and clearly.	I can understand phrases and the highest frequency vocabulary related to areas of most immediate personal relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local area, employment). I can catch the main point in short, clear, simple messages and announcements.	I can understand texts that consist mainly of high frequency everyday or job-related language. I can understand the description of events, feelings and wishes in personal letters.	I can understand extended speech and lectures and follow even complex lines of argument provided the topic is reasonably familiar. I can understand most TV news and current affairs programmes. I can understand the majority of films in standard dialect.	I can understand extended speech even when it is not clearly structured and when relationships are only implied and not signalled explicitly. I can understand television programmes and films without too much effort.	I have no difficulty in understanding any kind of spoken language, whether live or broadcast, even when delivered at fast native speed, provided I have some time to get familiar with the accent.
Reading	I can understand familiar names, words and very simple sentences, for example on notices and posters or in catalogues.	I can read very short, simple texts. I can find specific, predictable information in simple everyday material such as advertisements, prospectuses, menus and timetables and I can understand short simple personal letters.	I can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. I can enter unprepared into conversation on topics that are familiar, of personal interest or pertinent to everyday life (e.g. family, hobbies, work, travel and current events).	I can read articles and reports concerned with contemporary problems in which the writers adopt particular attitudes or viewpoints. I can understand contemporary literary prose.	I can understand long and complex factual and literary texts, appreciating distinctions of style. I can understand specialised articles and longer technical instructions, even when they do not relate to my field.	I can read with ease virtually all forms of the written language, including abstract, structurally or linguistically complex texts such as manuals, specialised articles and literary works.
Spoken Interaction	I can interact in a simple way provided the other person is prepared to repeat or rephrase things at a slower rate of speech and help me formulate what I'm trying to say. I can ask and answer simple questions in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics.	I can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar topics and activities. I can handle very short social exchanges, even though I can't usually understand enough to keep the conversation going myself.	I can connect phrases in a simple way in order to describe experiences and events, my dreams, hopes and ambitions. I can briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans. I can narrate a story or relate the plot of a book or film and describe my reactions.	I can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible. I can take an active part in discussion in familiar contexts, accounting for and sustaining my views.	I can express myself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. I can use language flexibly and effectively for social and professional purposes. I can formulate ideas and opinions with precision and relate my contribution skilfully to those of other speakers.	I can take part effortlessly in any conversation or discussion and have a good familiarity with idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms. I can express myself fluently and convey finer shades of meaning precisely. If I do have a problem I can backtrack and restructure around the difficulty so smoothly that other people are hardly aware of it.
Spoken Production	I can use simple phrases and sentences to describe where I live and people I know.	I can use a series of phrases and sentences to describe in simple terms my family and other people, living conditions, my educational background and my present or most recent job.	I can connect phrases in a simple way in order to describe experiences and events, my dreams, hopes and ambitions. I can briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans. I can narrate a story or relate the plot of a book or film and describe my reactions.	I can present clear, detailed descriptions on a wide range of subjects related to my field of interest. I can explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.	I can present clear, detailed descriptions of complex subjects integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion.	I can present a clear, smoothly-flowing description or argument in a style appropriate to the context and with an effective logical structure which helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points.
Writing	I can write a short, simple postcard, for example sending holiday greetings. I can fill in forms with personal details, for example entering my name, nationality and address on a hotel registration form.	I can write short, simple notes and messages relating to matters in areas of immediate needs. I can write a very simple personal letter, for example thanking someone for something.	I can write simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. I can write personal letters describing experiences and impressions.	I can write clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects related to my interests. I can write an essay or report, passing on information or giving reasons in support of or against a particular point of view. I can write letters highlighting the personal significance of events and experiences.	I can express myself in clear, well-structured text, expressing points of view at some length. I can write about complex subjects in a letter, an essay or a report, underlining what I consider to be the salient issues. I can select style appropriate to the reader in mind.	I can write clear, smoothly-flowing text in an appropriate style. I can write complex letters, reports or articles which present a case with an effective logical structure which helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points. I can write summaries and reviews of professional or literary works.

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CEFR Levels - Qualitative aspects of spoken language use

	RANGE	ACCURACY	FLUENCY	INTERACTION	COHERENCE
C2	Shows great flexibility reformulating ideas in differing linguistic forms to convey finer shades of meaning precisely, to give emphasis, to differentiate and to eliminate ambiguity. Also has a good command of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms	Maintains consistent grammatical control of complex language, even while attention is otherwise engaged (e.g. in forward planning, in monitoring others' reactions).	Can express him/herself spontaneously at length with a natural colloquial flow, avoiding or backtracking around any difficulty so smoothly that the interlocutor is hardly aware of it.	Can interact with ease and skill, picking up and using non-verbal and intonational cues apparently effortlessly. Can interweave his/her contribution into the joint discourse with fully natural turntaking, referencing, allusion making etc.	Can create coherent and cohesive discourse making full and appropriate use of a variety of organisational patterns and a wide range of connectors and other cohesive devices.
C1	Has a good command of a broad range of language allowing him/her to select a formulation to express him/ herself clearly in an appropriate style on a wide range of general, academic, professional or leisure topics without having to restrict what he/she wants to say.	Consistently maintains a high degree of grammatical accuracy; errors are rare, difficult to spot and generally corrected when they do occur.	Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously, almost effortlessly. Only a conceptually difficult subject can hinder a natural, smooth flow of language.	Can select a suitable phrase from a readily available range of discourse functions to preface his remarks in order to get or to keep the floor and to relate his/her own contributions skilfully to those of other speakers.	Can produce clear, smoothly-flowing, well-structured speech, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
B2	Has a sufficient range of language to be able to give clear descriptions, express viewpoints on most general topics, without much conspicuous searching for words, using some complex sentence forms to do so.	Shows a relatively high degree of grammatical control. Does not make errors which cause misunderstanding, and can correct most of his/her mistakes.	Can produce stretches of language with a fairly even tempo; although he/she can be hesitant as he or she searches for patterns and expressions, there are few noticeably long pauses.	Can initiate discourse, take his/her turn when appropriate and end conversation when he / she needs to, though he /she may not always do this elegantly. Can help the discussion along on familiar ground confirming comprehension, inviting others in, etc.	Can use a limited number of cohesive devices to link his/her utterances into clear, coherent discourse, though there may be some "jumpiness" in a long contribution.
B1	Has enough language to get by, with sufficient vocabulary to express him/herself with some hesitation and circum-locutions on topics such as family, hobbies and interests, work, travel, and current events.	Uses reasonably accurately a repertoire of frequently used "routines" and patterns associated with more predictable situations.	Can keep going comprehensibly, even though pausing for grammatical and lexical planning and repair is very evident, especially in longer stretches of free production.	Can initiate, maintain and close simple face-to-face conversation on topics that are familiar or of personal interest. Can repeat back part of what someone has said to confirm mutual understanding.	Can link a series of shorter, discrete simple elements into a connected, linear sequence of points.

A2	Uses basic sentence patterns with memorised phrases, groups of a few words and formulae in order to communicate limited information in simple everyday situations.	Uses some simple structures correctly, but still systematically makes basic mistakes.	Can make him/herself understood in very short utterances, even though pauses, false starts and reformulation are very evident.	Can answer questions and respond to simple statements. Can indicate when he/she is following but is rarely able to understand enough to keep conversation going of his/her own accord.	Can link groups of words with simple connectors like "and," "but" and "because".
A1	Has a very basic repertoire of words and simple phrases related to personal details and particular concrete situations.	Shows only limited control of a few simple grammatical structures and sentence patterns in a memorised repertoire.	Can manage very short, isolated, mainly pre-packaged utterances, with much pausing to search for expressions, to articulate less familiar words, and to repair communication.	Can ask and answer questions about personal details. Can interact in a simple way but communication is totally dependent on repetition, rephrasing and repair.	Can link words or groups of words with very basic linear connectors like "and" or "then".

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