No fault of expression was noticed anywhere in his face, in his eyes, in his forehead, nor in his eyebrows or any other limbs.

Sri Rama to Lakshmana about Hanuman, Sloka 31

Valmiki Ramayana (1993: 44)
Chapter Two

Review of Literature

Introduction

This chapter presents the various works that are related to the present research. The review of such works gives insights to the researcher on how the ideas can be used in this research. The search for related literature makes the researcher identify the research gap based on which the research can progress in a new direction.

Review

Long et al (1976) *Doing things with words: verbal interaction in lockstep and small group classroom situations* is an early study of small group talk and interlanguage. Quality speech concentrates on the variety of moves and quantity speech depends on the number of moves. Student talk should include both amount and variety. This is significantly greater in the small groups than in the teacher-led discussions. When students talked more, they used a wider range of speech acts in the context. Students receive significantly more individual language practice opportunities in group work than in lockstep lessons. The range of language functions (rhetorical, pedagogic, and interpersonal) practised by individual students is wider in group work than in lockstep teaching.

Bruton et al (1980) in *Learner and teacher roles in the treatment of oral error in group work* studied errors and error treatment in small-group discussions based on various problem solving tasks. Their learners were adults from a variety of language backgrounds. They found that learners were capable of correcting each other
successfully, even though their teachers had not instructed them to do so. Learners were able to employ a variety of different error treatment strategies, among which were the offering of straight alternatives and the use of repair questions. The most frequent errors were lexical items not syntax or pronunciation. The frequency of other-correction and completions by students is higher in group work. Learners almost never miscorrect during unsupervised group work. This study shows the importance of training students to correct each other. The teachers should pay an equal amount of attention to errors of syntax and pronunciation.

Long (1981) in Input, interaction and second language acquisition makes an analysis of the use of tasks in the second language acquisition and his important finding in this study is that two-way tasks stimulate modified interactions.

Varonis et al (1983) in "Target language" input from non-native speakers made a study on interlanguage talk and negotiation for meaning through repair sequences. They noticed there was a greater frequency of negotiation sequences in non-native dyads than in dyads involving NSs. The most negotiation occurred when the NNSs were of different proficient levels. This study shows the value of non-native conversations as a nonthreatening context in which learners could practise language skills and make input comprehensible through negotiation. Negotiation of NNSs was found to be a useful activity to manipulate input. When input was negotiated, it was found that conversation could proceed with a minimum of confusion.

Morrison et al (1983) in Monitoring and second language learners studied the effect of monitoring in non-native discussions. The subjects were monitoring their own speech and self-correcting for lexis, syntax, discourse and truth value without feedback
from others in a highly communicative context. They also monitored the output of their interlocutors. The groups were asked to pay attention to and provide feedback on their members’ speech.

Porter’s (1983) *Variations in the conversations of adult learners of English as a function of the proficiency level of the participants* is an unpublished Ph.D. dissertation. The researcher examined the language produced by adult learners in task-centered discussions done in pairs. There were 18 subjects, 12 Non-Native Speakers and 6 Native Speakers of Spanish and they represented three proficiency levels - intermediate, advanced, and native speaker. Each subject participated in separate discussions with a subject from each of the three levels. Porter compared interlanguage talk with talk in NS/NNS conversations to look for differences across learner proficiency levels. The findings with reference to quantity of speech were that learners produced more talk with other learners than with NS partners and learners produced more talk with advanced-level than with intermediate-level partners and the conversation with advanced learners lasted longer. In order to examine the quality of speech, Porter measured the number of grammatical and lexical errors, false starts. Learner speech showed no significant differences across contexts. This contradicts the popular notion that learners are more careful and accurate when speaking with NSs than when speaking with other learners. When the researcher analysed the interactional features, no significant differences were found in the amount of repair by NSs and learners. In the matter of repair, the learners used confirmation checks, clarification requests, comprehension checks. The learners also made use of the three communication strategies - verification of meaning, definition request, and indication of lexical uncertainty. Learners attempted negotiating repair
similar to NSs and the learners at the two proficiency levels were equally competent to do such repair work. The researcher also noted that learners made more repairs of this kind with intermediate than with advanced learners. In the matter of communication strategies, the researcher identified very low frequencies of “appeals for assistance”. Verification of meaning, definition request resulted in indication of lexical uncertainty. Learners made the appeals in similar numbers whether talking to NSs or to other learners. It was also found that NNSs were good conversational partners. The researcher noticed low frequency of other-correction by both learners and NSs and social constraints might have caused this. Miscorrections were not a serious threat in unmonitored group-work. Labeled prompts - words, phrases, or sentences were added in the middle of the other speaker's utterance to continue or complete that utterance. Learners got more practice using this conversational resource with other learners than they did with NSs. Porter concluded that although learners cannot provide each other with the accurate grammatical and sociolinguistic input that NSs can, learners can offer each other genuine communicative practice, including the negotiation for meaning that is believed to aid SLA. Learners receive significantly more practice opportunities in NNS/NNS than in NS/NNS dyads, more when the other NNS has greater rather than equal proficiency in the SL.

Breen (1984) in Process syllabuses for the language classroom discusses that means should be focused upon in framing the syllabus for language learning. When there is a focus upon the means, psychological and social resources are applied to learning a new language. There is a greater concern with capacity for communication. In learning a language, there is a priority of process over content.
Long et al (1985) in *Group work, interlanguage talk and second language acquisition* offer five pedagogical arguments for group work. Group work increases language practice opportunities, improves the quality of student talk, helps individualize instruction, promotes a positive affective climate work, and motivates learners. Group work has a psycholinguistic rationale. The importance of comprehensible input in Second Language Acquisition is discussed in detail quoting studies of interlanguage talk. The authors give the summary of research findings and the implications of group work for the classroom at the end.

Montgomery et al (1985) in *Real reality revisited: An experimental communicative course in ESL* study the use of classroom tasks and supplemented them with community-based experiments. This has a strong basis of sociolinguistic rationale and the result is there are remarkable language gains.

Long (1985b) in *Input and second language acquisition theory* proposes three steps in promoting language learning. In step 1, (a) linguistic/conversational adjustments promote (b) comprehensible input. In step 2, (b) comprehensible input promotes (c) acquisition. In step 3, (a) linguistic/conversational adjustments promote (c) acquisition.

Murphy (1986) in his article, *Communication and correction in the classroom*, states that the mistakes of the language learner require to be corrected. Teachers are partial and selective in making correction. Fluency indicates the use of the language and accuracy indicates the knowledge of the language. Correction gives the feedback. Correction from the teacher followed by correction from fellow learners can have the desired effect. Mistakes of fluency may need immediate correction. The learners’ use of the gambits provides interesting insights.

Berwick’s (1988) the effect of task variation in teacher-led groups on repair of English as a foreign language is an unpublished doctoral dissertation drawing on insights from functional grammars. The systemic-functional model first articulated by Halliday attempts to draw explicit links between the functions which language exists to fulfil and its realization at the level of lexicogrammatical choice. This research explored differences at the level of lexicogrammar attributable to different task types. In the matter of classifying tasks, Berwick distinguishes between pedagogical and collaborative goals on the one hand and expository and experiential processes on the other. Tasks with pedagogical goals are concerned with the transfer of information through explicit instruction. Collaborative tasks emphasized cooperative, consensual behaviour and exchange of information about a problem or topic which participants explore freely during the task itself. Tasks based on expository processes are concerned with theoretically based knowledge which is called theoretical knowing (knowing what). Experiential processes are concerned with procedural knowledge which is practical knowledge (knowing how). The independent variable in Berwick’s study was the task. Dependent variables included a range of discourse features associated with the negotiation of meaning in interaction and utilized in many of the task investigations based on the input hypothesis. Variables included clarification requests, comprehension checks, confirmation checks, definitions, display questions, echoes, expressions of lexical uncertainty, referential questions, self-expansions, self-repetitions, and other-repetitions.
Duff’s (in press) *Task force on interlanguage performance: An analysis of task as independent variable* is a longitudinal case study of a single learner, investigating the extent to which performance on different types of tasks yielded different types of information on the subject’s inter language. The three tasks investigated are an interview conversation, a picture description, and a Cambodian folk tale narration. The dependent measures were the amount of language produced, the range of vocabulary elicited, nominal reference, and negation. The data were collected from a 24-year-old Cambodian male, over a 2-year period. This is a departure from the cross-sectional research.

Skehan (1988) in *A cognitive Approach to Learning Language* brings together applied linguistics, psychology, and language teaching. He discusses processing account in second language learning. The first group of three chapters focuses on ‘psycholinguistics’. He wants syntax to play a minimal role and offers a greater role for lexicalized knowledge. The ‘psycholinguistics processes’ indicate the importance of attention. He rejects three models of L2 learning - Universal Grammar, Multidimensional Model, Analysis/Control in favour of ‘dual-model’ supported by rule-based, examplar-based systems. In the second group of four chapters, Skehan concentrates on language teaching, history of task-based teaching, three goals of fluency, accuracy, and complexity which are associated with the dual-mode model. The five principles for task-based instruction are the choice of target structures and tasks, task sequencing, continuous evaluation by the students, and a need for focus on form. In the third group three of chapters, the author refers to individual variables in L2 learners, aptitude research, and aptitude in relationship to the age factor. The last two chapters are on teaching.
Nunan (1991) in *Communicative tasks and the language curriculum* discusses Task-Based Language Teaching at three levels - the conceptual basis, the curricular basis, and the empirical basis. He points out the features of TBLT which entered the language field from the educational mainstream. Insight from research into teacher’s professional planning and decision-making processes enhance the status of task as a curriculum planning tool.

Markee’s (2000) *Conversation Analysis* is a study on how learners use talk to learn a new language. Conversation Analysis, initiated by a sociologist, Harvey Sacks, is a methodical resource for Second Language Acquisition studies. The author gives two examples of conversation analysis. The three major hypotheses in SLA literature - the discourse hypothesis, the social interaction hypothesis, and the interaction hypothesis are discussed. Social interaction theories advocate task-based, small-group teaching approaches. It is a qualitative research in which the important details of the individual behaviour are analysed using highly detailed transcripts for capturing naturally occurring data. It is a sociolinguistic approach to SLA. Insights about the process of acquisition are gained from in-depth investigation of use. Interational competence has three components - sequential organization, turn-taking and repair. The differently patterned interactional practices generate opportunities for conversational restructuring, meaning negotiation, and eventually language acquisition. The instrumental value of CA is to demonstrate the relationship between comprehended input and acquisition. Markee conducts micro-analytic investigation into classroom talk extracted from complete transcripts demonstrating the power of CA in pinpointing whether, when, where, and how language acquisition occurs in the course of negotiated interaction. Markee says that L2
learners “probably learn far more than individual words as a result of a focus on lexis” in the course of talk-in-interaction(163). The author discusses equal or naturalistic Vs unequal or instructed power exchange systems. There are three speech exchange systems - ordinary conversation, traditional classrooms, and nontraditional classrooms. Talk-in-interaction is a resource for understanding and acquiring new words. Conversation analysis confirms the social interaction hypothesis giving insights on how language is spoken and how learners learn from speaking language and how small-group interaction aids language learning. There is self-initiated repair in student -student talk in the second language. Ordinary conversation is syntactically rich. Markee says that “task-based, small group-based instruction approximates the open-ended, locally managed or organization of ordinary conversation”(p.75). Conversation Analysis deals with management of the classroom, number of speakers at one time, length, grammatical make-up, length of speech event , and content. Repair in equal and unequal power situations is not an impediment to conversational flow but enables speakers to maintain their social relationships and construct shared conversational meaning. In Conversation Analysis one can identify “collaboratively achieved micro-moments of cognition“(p.33).

Wright (2000) in No more pencils. No more books? Arguing for the use of experiential learning in post secondary environmental studies classrooms discusses the use of experiential learning theory in environmental studies courses at the tertiary level. This theory offers effective teaching. The author explains the concept of andragogy - the art and science of teaching adults. Though the term ‘andragogy’ was used in German literature in 1833, it was introduced by Malcolm Knowles in North America in the year 1968. Adults are self-directed learners based on the extensive experiences they have.
Hence they prefer experiential and task-centred learning. Experiential learning is a
student-centred approach. It develops independent thought and critical reflection. It aims
at the development of skills and the acquisition of knowledge. Students experience a
sense of passivity in traditional teaching methods. Students are required to memorise
isolated pieces of information without understanding its practical application. In
experiential learning, students are able to make connections between their education and
their daily lives. Motivation and satisfaction are increased through active participation in
learning. Activities become natural motivators. Individuals are able to achieve higher
grades. Experiential learning results in more preparation, and more creativity. Teachers
are not only knowledge experts but also facilitators of experiences and participants in the
learning process. Experiential tools can include role-play activities, problem-solving
exercises. There is a shift from memorization of a body of knowledge to a process of
inquisition, knowing and understanding.

Virjo et al (2001) in *Task-based learning (TBL) in undergraduate medical education*
present the experiences of implementing TBL study module for fourth-year
medical students at the University of Tampere in Finland. Eighty five students
participated in this study in 1998 and 1999. In the clinical phase, there were difficulties in
adapting to the life of professionals in health care units. The method worked and led to
learning the skills connected with the general practitioner’s work in health centre hospital.
The students were better after the study module than on the onset.

Doughty et al (2001) in *Optimal Psycholinguistic Environments for Distance
Foreign Language Learning* present ten methodological principles of TBLT and
pedagogical procedures for psycholinguistically optimal L2 learning environments. The
use of task and not the text becomes the unit of analysis. Learning is promoted by doing the tasks. The input should not only be elaborate but also be rich. The richness includes quality, quantity, variety, genuineness, and relevance. Tasks should encourage inductive or chunk learning. There is focus on form. Tasks should also provide negative feedback.

Developmental processes and ‘Learner Syllbuses’ should be respected. Tasks promote co-operative/collaborative learning and ‘scaffolded’ discourses. Tasks offer individualized instruction. TBLT promotes functional language proficiency without sacrificing grammatical accuracy. The authors explore the technological options for distance education.

Ellis (2003) in *Task-based Language Learning and Teaching* says that tasks promote communication and social interaction. There are ten chapters in this book. The first chapter presents the interrelation between speaking tasks and L2 acquisition. There are ‘focused’ and ‘unfocused’ tasks. The relation between SLA and language pedagogy are discussed. In chapter two, listening tasks are the parameter to improve SLA. The outline of an interactive model of listening comprehension is given to develop learning strategies like note taking. Listening should lead to comprehension as well as learning and for introducing new materials. In chapter three, the author discusses social interaction among the learners. The author describes input, interaction hypothesis, the negotiation of meaning, communication strategies, and communicative effectiveness. Context and familiarity are the significant factors in learning. In chapter four, the author presents quantity and quality, fluency, accuracy and complexity of tasks. The author makes it clear that linguistic knowledge contributes to acquisition and giving sufficient time to the L2 speaker promotes accuracy. The fifth chapter deals with focused tasks. The content and
message are focused. The learners get explicit knowledge through focused activities. The
knowledge acquired by the learners will activate fluency. In the sixth chapter, the author
approaches tasks from a sociocultural theory that differences produced by contextual and
cultural differences modify and affect the results of each task. In the seventh chapter, the
author discusses the rationale behind TBLL, course design, type of tasks, thematic
content, sequencing, focus on form, and teacher’s procedures for implementing this
approach. In chapter eight, the author analyses the teaching principles, level of task
difficulty, goals, performance orientation, students’ active role, taking risk, focus on
meaning, opportunities to focus on form, and need of students’ self-evaluation of
progress and performance. In the ninth chapter, the author provides the authenticity,
validity, and reliability to task assessment to measure long term learning. In the tenth
chapter, the author points out the courses that claim to be task-based but they are only
task-supported.

Leaver et al (2004) in Task-Based Instruction in Foreign Language Education
present their experiences with Task-Based Instruction in thirteen chapters. In the first
chapter, there is an overview of TBLT. Open/closed, one way/two way,
focused/unfocussed, real world/pedagogic tasks are discussed. Pretask, task, and post-task
activities are explained. In the second chapter, TBLT is applied to a basic Czech course,
an advanced Russian course, and a Ukrainian course. A task is an activity “that results in
a product with a measurable result” (p. 47). The outcomes are motivation, non-boring
practice, curricular flexibility, promotion of learning how to learn, natural error
correction, risk taking, higher proficiency results, student satisfaction, better programme
evaluation results, and “intrinsic rewards” (p. 64). In the third chapter an advanced
Spanish course at Yale University is discussed. The linguistic and paralinguistic skills were taught. There was language improvement and the students expressed their satisfaction. This method could improve students’ “awareness of the connotative and the denotative language” (p. 77). Chapter four explains teaching English in Brazil to different learners. The presentation, practice, and the production programme was found to be ineffective. Tasks which make students relate to their own lives and tasks with an element of competition were included in the syllabus. The learning was found to be effective. There were changes in students’ view of learning. There was a move towards independence. Students had satisfaction and teachers gained confidence. Chapter five was devoted to learning Arabic at Ohio State University. The course was based on information transfer principle, information gap principle, and functional principle. There were oral, reading, writing, and integrative tasks. Learners were found to develop communicative abilities. Chapter six presents the Japanese language programme which followed an outcome-based curriculum. There were greater motivation, confidence, higher rate of achieving outcomes, emergence of a collaborative and supportive learning environment. In chapter seven, teaching Spanish to professionals is presented. The teacher is a facilitator. Grammar teaching and error correction procedures made use of tasks. The students experienced deeper learning, immediate applicability, self-determination of success, and student satisfaction. In chapter eight, teaching French for engineers and other technical professions is discussed. In this advanced course of French, tasks related to issues of daily life, issues of culture, and issues of workplace were included. The author concludes task-based learning experiences are vital for “the kind of knowledge needed in a truly global economy” (p. 173). In chapter nine, Task-based
instruction in online learning of Arabic, Chinese, Korean, Russian, and Spanish is presented. Chapter ten deals with writing and grammar tasks to be presented in a virtual classroom. These tasks were found to lower affective obstacles and to promote a sense of community with Email groups and webheads. Synchronous chats are part of the course. Chapter eleven presents the use of web technology to promote writing, analytic thinking, and creative expression in German. The learners were asked to design a web page, to do a project as tasks. In chapter twelve, implementing task-based assessment in a TEFL environment is detailed. Language production skills are developed through tasks. The last chapter discusses approaches to teacher development. Training seminars, knowledge of history of methodologies, collaboration on lesson planning, and classroom observation can develop teachers.

Nunan (2004) in *An Introduction to Task-Based Teaching* points out that Task-Based Language Teaching is a central concept in the Asia-Pacific region - in Japan, Vietnam, China, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Korea, and Malaysia. There are seven chapters in this book. In the first chapter, the author defines the notion of ‘task’ and presents the differences between ‘TBLT’ and ‘CLT’. In the second chapter, the author discusses the procedure for creating an integrated syllabus, pedagogic task, lesson planning, and materials design. The key principles of TBLT are highlighted. In the third chapter, the author explains task goals, input data, procedures, teacher role, learner role, settings for TBLT. In chapter four, the author gives the summary of research, task difficulty, and task grading. In chapter five, the author discusses the place of focus on form in TBLT. In chapter six, the author explains the issues and difficulties in grading of tasks, sequencing
and integrating tasks into lessons. In the last chapter, the author makes suggestion for introducing tasks in teacher development workshops.

Simpson (2006) in *Task-Based Learning for Newcomers* discusses three models. The first model is PPP model. The teacher presents a particular language item. The language item is practised in a controlled way and it is produced by the learners. The second model is TTT model - Test, Teach, Test. In this model production stage comes first. The learners are asked to perform a task without any input or guidance from the teacher. The learners may have lexical or grammar problems. The teacher makes a language analysis. The learners are asked to do a similar task. There is arbitrariness in the PPP model and randomness in TTT. The language focus may not reflect the needs of the learners. The third model is TBL - Task-Based Learning. In the pre-task phase, the teacher explores the topic. The lexical items are discussed. He gives further input. The schemata of the learners are activated. They become personally involved in the lesson. The task cycle has three stages - the task, planning, and reporting. The teacher monitors and encourages without correcting. The learners aim for accuracy during the planning stage. The teacher chairs the report. The focus is on fluency and accuracy. The language focus is on analysis and practice. TBL makes learners use the language for genuine communication. The students gain motivation. There is private rehearsal as well as public performance. In private practice students gain fluency and in public presentation they gain accuracy. There is action as well as reflection. TBL integrates all four skills. TBL does not exclude grammar. It is a collaborative enterprise. The learners move from fluency to accuracy plus fluency.
Conclusion

The researcher was able to get insights from the review of literature. He reviewed the relevant literature belonging to the period from 1976 to 2006. This enabled the researcher to formulate his own strategy. There are a lot of research works in the area of written composition in India. The researcher could not find any research on developing oral communication using Task-Based Language Teaching. This is the research gap. So the researcher fills the research gap by using TBLT to initiate oral communication of ESL tertiary level students. The concept of conversation analysis is also introduced in this thesis. The researcher tries to develop fluency as well as accuracy through Task-Based Language Teaching. The spoken corpora collected in the course of the experiment give exciting insights to the researcher on oral communication of adult learners. So the researcher hopes that this study will be a rich contribution in the field of English Language Teaching in India.