

**EXAMINING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF METHOD OF INSTRUCTION AND
TEACHER- AND LEARNER-LED DISCOURSE IN MORPHOSYNTACTIC
DEVELOPMENT**

by

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This study is a conceptual replication of Toth (2008), who found that teacher-led activities (as compared to learner-led activities) in second language (L2) Spanish classrooms were correlated with higher accuracy rates on a grammaticality judgment (GJ) task and a written production task targeting the use of anticausative verbs. The present study examines whether method of instruction, combined with classroom activity type, has an effect on accuracy rates in GJ and production tasks. Seventy-one L2 Italian students at an American university participated in a 3-day lesson sequence. Results show that neither the method of instruction nor the type of classroom activity had a statistically significant effect on accuracy rates. This may be due to morphosyntactic and semantic properties of the target structure (anticausative *si* in Italian) or because of quantity of input that is part of the type of instructional method used.

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

The main theoretical constructs that I consider in this study are method of instruction and classroom discourse types. The question of which method of instruction is more effective is a much-debated topic. Recent research (Doughty, 2003; Erlam, 2003; R. Ellis, 2008) has shown that classroom-based studies that examine the effects of instruction are often inconclusive. This is for various reasons. Norris and Ortega (2000) conducted a meta-analysis of 250 articles (from 1980-1998) that studied the effectiveness of L2 teaching and instruction. After eliminating any articles that did not meet their rigorous methodological standards, they were left with 77 studies, and of these, only 49 studies had sufficient statistical information to be included in their final analysis. Of these, only 3 studies were classroom-based research studies. Some researchers (Hulstijn, 1997) argue that empirical classroom research is problematic, if not impossible, given the many variables and lack of controlled-for conditions in the classroom. Others, however, argue that ecological validity is eliminated if the research is conducted outside of the classroom (Doughty, 2003). Other researchers such as Ellis (2008) and Erlam (2003) found that often method of instruction is operationalized in different ways, making generalization and replication difficult. All of this demonstrates the need for ecologically valid, controlled-for empirical classroom research. It was my intention, therefore, to outline and execute an ecologically valid and controlled study (to the greatest extent possible) that examines the effects of method of instruction and learner task type on morphosyntactic development.

One might wonder why we should replicate and expand the research on teacher- and learner-led discourse conducted by Toth (2008) in Spanish L2 courses. In recent years the idea of

conducting replication studies has been supported by researchers such as Polio and Gass (1997). Replication studies are often not conducted in the field of SLA, and one reason is because of the nature of the research itself. Frequently there are too many variables, making true replication difficult, if not impossible. However, Polio and Gass (1997) claim that one form of replication may be pertinent and practical to SLA researchers. Polio and Gass call for more conceptual replications, which “alter various features of the original study and serve the purpose of confirming the generalizability or external validity of the research” (Polio and Gass, 1997, p. 502). It was my intent, therefore, to replicate and expand upon the study conducted by Toth (2008) in order to ascertain its generalizability.

Of course, there are also pedagogical implications to consider. Toth (2008) found that teacher-led discourse (as opposed to learner-led discourse) may provide better quality and more accurate input and feedback in a classroom setting, leading to better performance on grammaticality judgment and production tasks that test morphosyntactic development. The method of instruction in Toth (2008) was explicit, metalinguistic instruction, conducted both in L2 Spanish and L1 English. However, many instructors of L2 language in American universities employ inductive methods when teaching grammatical target structures. An important question that was not investigated in Toth (2008) is whether inductive or deductive methods of instruction may affect the quantity and quality of learner interaction and output. In this study, I will examine whether method of instruction (inductive and deductive) may influence how classroom discourse and interaction is constructed and then will test if this affects the accuracy of a morphosyntactic structure in L2 Italian.

1.1 INDUCTIVE AND DEDUCTIVE APPROACHES IN SLA

Method of instruction as a construct in SLA research has been a much debated topic. The debate over how method of instruction should be treated is exemplified even in the definition of key concepts. For example, many researchers have deliberated whether *any* form of instructed (classroom) SLA can be implicit and/or incidental, since there is always an intended learning goal on the part of the instructor (and often on the part of the students) (Doughty, 2003). Following DeKeyser (2003) and Ellis (2008) I will first delineate the differences between implicit and explicit instruction and inductive and deductive instruction. I will then operationally define the key constructs that I used in this study.

Explicit instruction is defined as metalinguistic knowledge, often in the form of grammar rules and explanations, which is conveyed by the instructor to the student in a direct way, often in the L1 of the student (DeKeyser, 2003; Ellis, 2008). Explicit knowledge of the L2, therefore, is also characterized in similar ways, often as metalinguistic knowledge. Implicit instruction is more difficult to define. In fact, there is little agreement as to what a comprehensive definition might be (Ellis, 2008). Implicit instruction may be defined as when the student has no metalinguistic knowledge of what the target structure might be (if there is perceived target, since the student might not even be aware what the learning objective is) (Ellis, 2008). It has also been defined as “learning without awareness of what is being learned” (DeKeyser, 2003, p. 314). Implicit knowledge is often defined as procedural and internalized (Ellis, 2008). Since classroom-based learning often includes specific target structures and clear learning objectives, using implicit instruction as an operationally defined variable is not viable. Furthermore, while truly implicit learning may happen in the classroom, L2 language instructors are not intentionally structuring their lesson plans and syllabi around implicit instruction. Therefore, the terms

“inductive” and “deductive” are now more commonly used to describe L2 classroom instruction (DeKeyser, 2003).

Deductive instruction has been identified as analogous to explicit instruction, in that metalinguistic knowledge is conveyed to the learner via rule formation and explanations that are often in L1 of the students (DeKeyser, 2003; Ellis, 2008). Inductive instruction differs from implicit instruction in that there is an awareness of what is to be studied in a particular lesson. However, inductive instruction is characterized by “going from the particular to the general, from examples to rules” (DeKeyser, 2003, p. 314). In the L2 classroom, both inductive and deductive instruction entails explicit instruction, but generally does not entail implicit instruction. In this study, I will use one particular kind of explicit inductive and deductive instruction, called “form-focused instruction,” or FFI.

Spada (1997, p. 73) first introduced “form-focused instruction” as “any pedagogical effort used to draw the learner’s attention to language form.” The term “focus on form” is common in L2 pedagogy, and can be defined as “[drawing] students’ attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication” (Long, 1991, p. 45-46). Ellis (2008) claims that focus-on-form can be explicit or implicit, depending on the attentiveness (or lack thereof) of the students and the role of the instructor (who may or may not be providing metalinguistic information.) Ellis (2008) also explains that since the goal of explicit instruction is not only explicit knowledge but also implicit knowledge (procedural, internalized and therefore “acquired”), explicit instruction may be more effective in the classroom.

If explicit instruction is more effective, and if form-focused instruction allows for the possible acquisition of metalinguistic and procedural L2 knowledge (as is claimed in research

outlined below), then we should investigate further the two kinds of explicit form-focused instruction (FFI), inductive and deductive. Deductive explicit FFI is characterized by metalinguistic explanation, usually consisting “of information about a specific linguistic property supported by examples [...] provided orally by the teacher or in written form in a textbook or reference grammar” (Ellis, 2008, p.442). In deductive FFI, feedback consists of explicit correction and/or metalinguistic feedback. Inductive explicit FFI is generally characterized by rule discovery learning, in which “consciousness-raising (CR) tasks” or activities are employed by the instructor in order to “[provide] L2 data in some form and [the learners] are required to perform some operation with it, the purpose of which is to arrive at an explicit understanding of some regularity of the data” (Ellis, 1991, p. 239). Inductive explicit FFI involves practice activities that may involve task-based practice, text manipulation or text creation, often targeting comprehension as well as rule formation (Ellis, 2008). Corrective feedback generally consists of repetition or corrective recasts. Both highlight and reformulate the learner error and provide feedback by using emphatic stress (Ellis, 2008). Since the learner is usually aware that corrective feedback is being provided by the instructor, recasts and repetition is regarded as explicit error correction.

In a review of deductive and inductive explicit FFI, Ellis (2008) found that while most research on the relative effects of deductive and inductive FFI is inconclusive (due to differently operationalized variables and varying methodological procedures), there is some intriguing evidence as to how deductive and inductive FFI may be effective in various ways. For example, Fotos and Ellis (1991) studied Japanese learners of English in a comparison between an explicit grammar lesson and a communicative task that did not explicitly state the learning goal, dative alternation. They found that both deductive and inductive instructional methods resulted in gains

of the target structure. Lyster (1994) examined various teaching methods used to teach French sociolinguistic norms and found that the experimental groups of L2 French learners who learned via explicit instruction (using cultural comparisons) performed better than the control groups; this suggests that students learned both the form and the sociolinguistic meaning of the forms. Spada, Lightbown, & White (2006) and Housen, Pierrard & Vandaele (2006) found that experimental groups (as compared to control groups) performed better in free production tests, suggesting that L2 implicit knowledge may be obtained via explicit deductive instruction. Erlam (2003) studied English learners of L2 French and found that deductive instruction of French double object pronouns was more effective in comprehension and production tasks, but noted lots of individual variation within the deductive group. Mohamed (2001) found that consciousness-raising tasks were found to be more effective with high intermediate learners but not with low-intermediate learners. It appears that inductive and deductive explicit FFI does positively affect learning, but there has been relatively little research as to determine if one type or another is more effective. Given the need for more research on deductive and inductive explicit FFI, I will use these instructional approaches as the variables in this study. Another advantage of using these variables is that other researchers have already operationalized them in the studies discussed in this section, allowing for more generalizable results. In Table 1, I outline how these variables will be used in this study.

Table 1. Deductive and Inductive FFI (adapted from Ellis (2008))

	Deductive	Inductive
Instruction	Metalinguistic explanation Morphosyntactic features clearly explained in L1 & L2 Sample sentences are used, followed by rule explanation	Consciousness raising tasks Input flood Enhanced input (oral emphasis/font manipulation) Visual aids demonstrate

Feedback	Visual aids demonstrate meaning Explicit correction Errors are overtly pointed out Metalinguistic feedback in the L1 and L2	meaning and form Repetition of the correct form Corrective recasts, using oral emphasis No explicit correction No metalinguistic feedback
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I hypothesized that inductive explicit FFI may result in a larger quantity of accurate target structures provided in the input, highlighting both the meaning and form of the target structure, since the emphasis on form and meaning may help learners perform better in the production task and the open narrative task. Explicit, deductive instruction and feedback may help learners perform better on grammaticality judgment tasks. As far as I know, there has been no specific study that looks at both method of instruction and classroom discourse types, to which we now turn.

1.2 TEACHER – AND LEARNER-LED DISCOURSE IN THE SECOND LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

There is now ample evidence that “interaction promotes L2 acquisition” (Swain & Suzuki, 2008). Part of the rationale for Toth’s (2008) study is that there is little conclusive evidence on the effects of learner-led and teacher-led discourse and morphosyntactic development. While task-based activities have long been an integral part of L2 classes (Shekan, 1998; Pica, 2008), there is little concrete, empirical evidence that learner-led (LLD) or teacher-led discourse (TLD) activities play a role in the development of L2 morphosyntax (Toth, 2008).

In the history of L2 classroom-based theory and research, researchers have argued that LLD may provide better opportunities for learners who wish to employ their L2 knowledge

outside of the classroom setting (Toth, 2008; Long and Porter, 1985). LLD activities also provide more speaking opportunities for the students and may allow for more negotiation of meaning. Information gap activities (such as the activity used in Toth (2008)) help to provide authentic-use situations in the classroom and are considered to be helpful learning tools (Pica, 2008). There may be some drawbacks to LLD, however. Toth (2008) suggests that LLD may not lead to grammar acquisition, as “learners might not be fully engaged in the instructional goal” (p. 241). LLD tasks often have students focus on meaning and negotiation of meaning and may not elicit the accurate use of target structures.

1.3 THE TARGET STRUCTURE: ANTICAUSATIVE *SI* IN STANDARD ITALIAN

In his 2008 study, Toth targeted various functions of the clitic *se* in L2 Spanish classes at an American university, with a specific focus on reflexive, passive and middle voice constructions. While all of these forms were taught over a seven-day period, the focus of Toth (2008) was the anticausative use of *se*. Anticausativization “deletes the agentive external argument of a transitive verb” (Zubizarreta, 1985, p. 259). While English does not have an overt anticausative morpheme, Romance languages such as Spanish, French and Italian do use an overt morpheme, such as the clitic *se* in Spanish and the clitic *si* in Italian. Anticausativization allows for the “detransitivizing” of the verb and the absorption of the agent; the action may seem to be unplanned or spontaneous, without any apparent intervention of an overt agent (Giacalone Ramat, 2006). In Italian, the detransitivizing of the verb is also apparent, in that the auxiliary verb that forms the past tense is *essere*, which denotes an intransitive verb in the preterit form

(Renzi, 1991). (1) provides sample sentences of the (a) transitive and (b) “detransitivized,” anticausative form (with no apparent agent) in standard Italian.

(1) Transitive and anticausative *si* in Italian

a. *Matteo ha rotto la finestra.*

AGENT PATIENT

“Matthew broke the window.”

b. *La finestra si è rotta.*

PATIENT

“The window broke/was broken.”

Giocalone Ramat (2006) notes that the anticausative construction in Italian may be particularly problematic for L2 learners because of its complex morphological structures. Toth (2008) notes that the semantic properties of the verbs may complicate L2 acquisition of anticausative *se*. In this study, I chose to focus on the use of anticausative *si* in Italian not only because it was the target structure in Toth (2008) in his study of L2 Spanish and the structure is analogous in Italian, but also because of its morphological and semantic features. The clitic *si* was not an entirely new structure to the participants, as it was taught with reflexive and passive verbs in the second semester of L2 Italian at the university where I conducted this study. However, the semantic features of anticausative *si* and its use of the intransitive auxiliary verb *essere* in the preterit form are features that were not previously studied. I believe that the anticausative *si* is morphosyntactically complex enough to provide a challenge to intermediate level Italian students, but allows for a context (especially in an inductive grammar lesson) where vocabulary (previously instructed household items and verbs) would not be a concern. Also, since an overt morphological structure is absent in the L1 English language of the participants, I could control for L1 influence and interference.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Based on the discussion provided in the introduction to this proposal, I have determined the following research questions:

1. Will LLD or TLD provide an advantage in grammaticality judgments and sentence-level picture description tasks for the Italian anticausative *si*?
2. Will inductive or deductive FFI instruction provide an advantage in grammaticality judgments and sentence level picture description tasks?
3. Which combination of teaching method and classroom discourse task provides the greatest advantage in the GJ and sentence production tasks?
4. Will any combination provide an advantage in the production of an open (written) narrative?
5. Will any advantage continue over time?

2.0 METHODS

2.1 PARTICIPANTS

The participants for this study were four intact classes of elementary level Italian students at an American university. At the time of the treatment students had studied Italian for approximately 7 months at the university level. Prior to treatment participants completed a survey to control for factors such as prior study abroad experience or extensive study or knowledge of another Romance language. Participants who had studied abroad in Italy and those who had extensive knowledge of another Romance language were excluded from the study. Participants who were “heritage speakers”, or who have one or more family members that speak Italian in the home, were also excluded. Table 2 shows the post-survey class sizes and the treatment variables.

Table 2. Participant Groups

Group No.	<i>N</i>	Method of Instruction	Classroom Activity
1	18	Deductive FFI	Teacher-Led
2	19	Deductive FFI	Learner-Led
3	15	Inductive FFI	Teacher-Led
4	19	Inductive FFI	Learner-Led

As in Toth (2008) participants were introduced to the reflexive and passive uses of *si* in their second semester of study of L2 Italian, but they had not been exposed to anticausative *si*.

This was also controlled for in a pretest, the results of which are discussed in the Results section of this paper.

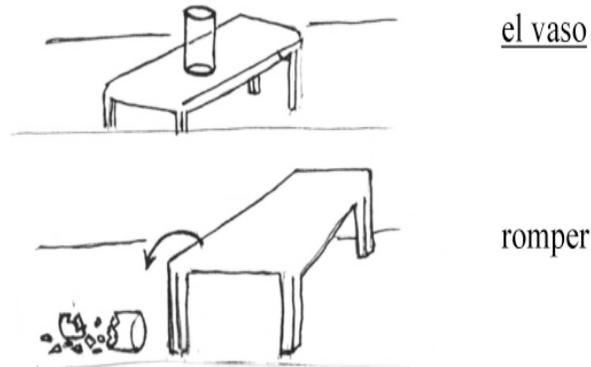
2.2 INSTRUMENTS

Over a three-day period, the participants in each intact class received a different treatment, which is detailed in the Procedures section of this paper. Two classes received inductive form-focused instruction, followed either by teacher-led (TLD) or learner-led discourse (LLD) activities. The other two classes received deductive form-focused instruction followed by TLD or LLD activities. The target structure in this study, the anticausative *si*, was measured in a pretest, immediate posttest and a delayed posttest.

The tests follow the form and function of those used by Toth in his 2008 study. There was a production task and a grammaticality judgment task on each test. Unlike Toth (2008), I also employed a open written narrative task in which students were asked to describe and narrate an event from their past using the anticausative *si*.

In the production task, there were 12 drawings that the students described in a sentence. Two of the drawings elicited the anticausative *si*, four elicited the reflexive *si* (taught in the second semester of L2 Italian and reviewed before the treatment) and the rest of the drawings represented cases where the use of *si* is ungrammatical. Figure 1 provides an example used in Toth (2008) that I replicated for this study, using Italian language appropriate forms.

Figure 1. A sample item used on the production task targeting anticausative *se* in Spanish (from Toth, 2008, p. 252)



The grammaticality judgment (GJ) task consisted of fifty sentences on a 7-point Likert scale, where participants chose 1 if the sentence seemed completely ungrammatical and 7 if they deemed the sentence perfectly grammatical. There was also a category labeled “don’t know” that participants could choose if they were unsure of the grammaticality of the sentence. Participants were asked not to analyze the sentences, but quickly go through the sentences and then assess how grammatically accurate they seemed to be. Of the fifty sentences in the GJ task, 10 contained unergative verbs (5 of which were grammatical, 5 ungrammatical), 10 unaccusative verbs (5 grammatical, 5 ungrammatical), 15 fillers and 15 questions where *si* was tested. Of the fifteen sentences that tested *si*, 5 sentences were grammatical sentences using the anticausative *si*, 5 were anticausative sentences without *si*, and 5 were ungrammatical because they featured an overt subject with an anticausative verb construction containing *si*. In the end 12 of these sentences were used in the quantitative analysis. This is because three of the sentences used the verb *cadere* (to fall), which is an intransitive verb. At first I thought I might be able to test this intransitive verb to see if students overgeneralized the use of anticausative *si* to intransitive

verbs, but in the end it confounded the quantitative analysis of the transitive verbs. All items on the tests were randomly ordered. (The grammaticality judgment tasks used for this experiment are in Appendix A of this paper.) All vocabulary used in the tests had already been presented to the participants during the course of regular coursework or during the treatment. However, students were allowed to ask for clarification of any particular vocabulary items that they didn't understand.

In order to control for the validity of the test and the sentences used in it, I administered the test to native speakers of Italian before administering it to the participants in the pretest. Any items that were found to be too ambiguous or featuring ungrammatical or nonstandard use of anticausative *si* were eliminated.

I also chose to also include an open narrative task in order to elicit any implicit or procedural use of the target structure (as suggested in Norris & Ortega, 2000). Here, I asked students to narrate and describe an event that happened to them in the past, in which an “unplanned occurrence” or accident occurred. This task was timed (15 minutes) and was administered after the sentence level production task and GJ task. I provided assistance to participants who had questions about vocabulary, but not questions about grammatical structures.

In addition to the tests, I also videotaped the instruction portion of the lesson (featuring the inductive and deductive FFI treatments) and the teacher-led discussions on the second and third days of treatment. I also recorded the students' pair and small group work using digital recorders, so that I can examine their classroom discourse and their use of the target grammar structure. The recorded portions were transcribed for further analysis and will be part of a future research project.

2.3 PROCEDURES

Toth's (2008) study was conducted over seven days. Because of time limitations and since the scope of my study was more focused, the treatment and testing were conducted over three days. The elementary Italian classes that participated in this study met five days a week, allowing me to conduct the experiment over three consecutive days.

As I discussed in the introduction to this paper, Toth (2008) chose to present the target grammatical structure using explicit, metalinguistic information in a 5-10 minute period. In this study, I followed Toth's procedures as closely as possible, with one exception, that of method of instruction. As outlined in Table 3, two of the participant groups received a 15-minute period of deductive form-focused instruction (FFI) and two groups received a 15-minute period of inductive form-focused instruction. Both introductions of the target structure were presented using a Microsoft Powerpoint presentation. This helped to control for how much and what kind of new information was presented to each group. This was also a common method of presentation in these particular classes and so students were used to this format. The deductive FFI introduction included metalinguistic explanation in Italian, with example sentences that "[outlined] the formation of sentences using [*si*] and then [contrasted] the form-meaning relationship signaled by its presence in detransitivized sentences versus its absence in transitive ones." (Toth, 2008, p. 248) This involved the use of picture description followed by an analysis of the target grammatical structure. As discussed in Ellis (2008), any reactive comments provided explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback. As per Toth (2008), English equivalents were also given and metalinguistic information in English was also provided.

Table 3. Treatments and Procedures used in the present study

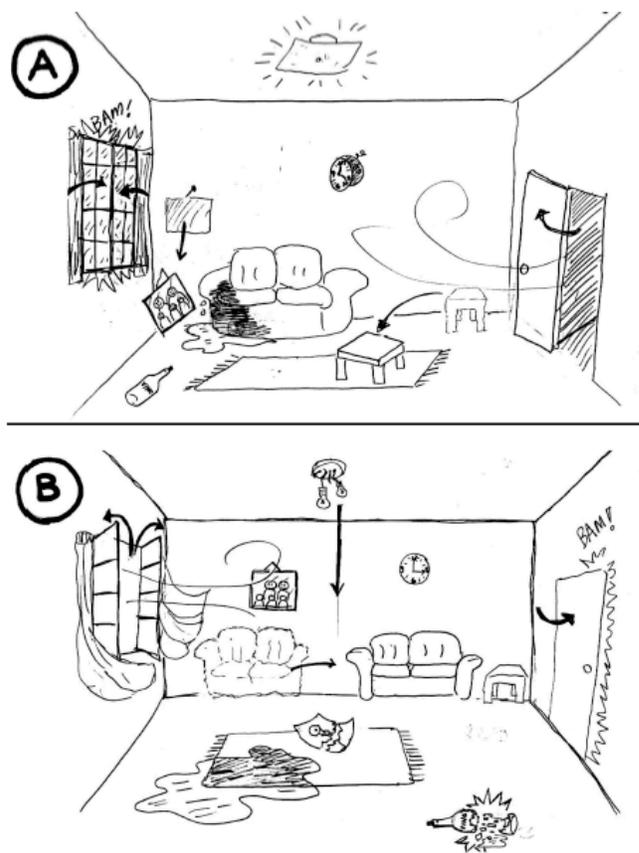
Group No.	Pretest	Method of Instruction	Classroom Activity	Posttests
1	GJ, Production	Deductive FFI	Teacher-Led	GJ, Production, Narrative
2	GJ, Production	Deductive FFI	Learner-Led	GJ, Production, Narrative
3	GJ, Production	Inductive FFI	Teacher-Led	GJ, Production, Narrative
4	GJ, Production	Inductive FFI	Learner-Led	GJ, Production, Narrative

The inductive FFI presentation was conducted entirely in Italian. (At the elementary level in this Italian program, even metalinguistic information is given in Italian, and relevant metalinguistic terminology is also introduced in the previous semester.) The inductive introduction of target grammar consisted of consciousness-raising tasks and production- and comprehension based practice activities. As with the deductive FFI group, the presentation employed picture description tasks, but no metalinguistic information was given. Oral emphasis and repetition (on the part of the instructor) was used to draw the attention of the students to the target structure. The reactive comments were in the form of corrective recasts, but again, no metalinguistic explanation was used.

Following the introduction of the anticausative *si*, for all groups there was a 30-minute period in which students completed either learner-led or teacher-led discourse tasks (as detailed in Table 3). The tasks themselves were similar to those used by Toth (2008); one task was identical. The learner-led discourse (LLD) group first had a pre-task period of 1-2 minutes in which the instructor distributed materials, went over the objectives of the task, brainstormed any vocabulary items the students might use in the task and reviewed the interrogative structures that were employed in the completion of the task. The first LLD group task was an information gap

task in which participants described a set of two pictures (see Figure 2 for the picture used in Toth (2008) and this study) and identified the differences between the two pictures, describing the physical changes by using the anticausative *si*.

Figure 2. The information gap activity used in Toth (2008)



Following the activity, there was a brief post-task activity in which participants described to the class what they found. As in Toth, in the second task participants described pictures in which there was depicted a series of “unfortunate events” that happened to a character. A post-task activity consisted of a review of the answers.

The second task was structured narration, where participants described an incident or accident similar to those found in the first two activities. This incident may have been from the participant's own past or was an invented account. In the pre-task activity, the instructor gave some sample sentences and told students that they could ask the instructor about any vocabulary words that they did not already know. The participants were asked to take notes on what their partners described. In the post-task activity participants were asked to write a brief summary of their partner's story. In this way students had the opportunity not only to practice structured, form-focused tasks, but also practice open-ended, personalized narratives. (Toth, 2008, p. 250) On the third day of treatment participants shared their narratives with the class and a review of the tasks was conducted. The immediate posttest was administered during the last 25 minutes of class time. The narrative task was the first part of the posttest. As in Toth (2008), the production task was administered before the GJ task so that the GJ task wouldn't influence the participants' responses.

Toth (2008) employed two tests that he switched between the two groups so that no group had the same test consecutively. For example, Group 1 took Test A in the pretest, then Test B for the immediate posttest, then Test A again in the delayed posttest. In order to recreate Toth's study as closely as possible, I also administered the tests in the same manner.

The teacher-led discourse (TLD) groups had tasks that were similar to the LLD groups' tasks, with the exception that the activity was conducted with the entire class instead of in pairs or small groups. The same pre-task activities were used in order to review vocabulary. The same illustrations were used to talk about before-and-after events (see Figure 2) and the "unfortunate events" activity that employed the use of the anticausative *si*. Since there was no need for a post-task activity (the instructor had already reviewed the answers with the class,) the students spent

that time preparing for the second task. The second task was identical to the one used with the LLD groups, that of narrating an accident/incident similar to those found in the first task. In the pre-task students took a few minutes to prepare their narrative, jotting down any key words or asking for help with any incidental new vocabulary items. The narratives were then told to the class. The instructor asked follow-up and clarification questions as necessary, providing recasts of the target structure where appropriate. Since there was not enough time to have all participants tell their story, a portion of the third day's lesson was used in this activity.

For all groups, the third day of instruction involved the completion of the previous day's tasks, a brief closure activity and the administering of the posttest. The posttest consisted of a grammaticality judgment test, a production task, and an open narrative task. The delayed posttest was administered 21 days later.

Between the immediate and the delayed posttest, no further instruction or practice of the anticausative *si* was administered in class. Any use of the anticausative *si* in the classroom was entirely incidental.

3.0 RESULTS

3.1 ANALYSIS

For the quantitative analysis I used similar scoring procedures as in Toth (2008) to allow for a fair comparison of the results. For the GJ and production tasks, the answers for the items that elicited anticausative *si* were separated from the other items. For the GJ task there were 12 sentences and for the production task there were 2 target sentences. For the sentence production task, any correct use of anticausative *si* was awarded one point. Any other answers resulted in zero points, even if the sentence was grammatical. For the grammaticality judgment test, scores ranged from 1 to 7 (1 for an ungrammatical sentence and 7 for a grammatical sentence) and were entered as raw scores into an analysis of individual means and then the individual scores were entered into an analysis of variance (ANOVA). In order to account for all of the items in the GJ task more easily, the target sentences that were ungrammatical were given an inverse score (1 for a grammatical sentence and 7 for an ungrammatical sentence). This means that in effect we could interpret a score of 1 as “least correct” and a score of 7 as “most correct”. The neutral “don’t know” category was treated as a non-response and removed. For the open narrative task, correct use of the anticausative *si* was rewarded one point. All other uses of *si* were not counted, nor were any incorrect incidents of the anticausative *si* counted for the statistical analysis of this study. All of the scores were entered into a General Linear Model repeated-measures ANOVA to

examine the mean scores over time (in the pretest, posttest and delayed posttest) for the sentence production tasks, the GJ task and the open narrative task.

3.2 QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

The General Linear Model repeated-measures ANOVA examined one within-subjects factor, time, and two between-subject factors, the method of instruction and the type of activity used in class. The multivariate analysis reveals that there were no statistically significant effects for between-subjects factors (method of instruction and type of classroom activities), but there was a significant effect for the within-subjects factor, time, as detailed in this section. Table 4 shows the General Linear Model (GLM) analysis for all of the GJ task sentence items.

Table 4. General Linear Model of GJ Task Items (All Task Items)

Group No.	<i>n</i>	Group Type	Pretest Mean	SD	Posttest Mean	SD	Delayed Mean	SD
1	18	D-FFI, TL	3.68	.581	4.91	1.28	4.39	.929
2	19	D-FFI, LL	3.92	.483	4.75	.938	4.49	1.08
3	15	I-FFI, TL	4.03	.762	4.93	.916	4.80	.905
4	19	I-FFI, LL	4.07	.927	5.06	.846	5.0	1.14

D-FFI = deductive form-focused instruction; -FFI = inductive form-focused instruction
 TL = teacher-led classroom activities ; LL = learner-led classroom activities

For all tasks items in the immediate posttests the only significant effect was for the within-subjects factor, time, $F(1, 67) = 56.16, p = .001$. For the between-subjects factors, method of instruction and type of activity, there were no significant effects, $F(1, 67) = .91, p = .34$. For all task items in the delayed posttest, again the only significant factor was time, $F(1, 76)$

= 5.43, $p = .023$, while the between-subjects factors showed no effect, $F(1, 67) = .21, p = .64$. While the data in Table 4 show that there were few gains in the number of “correct” answers (i.e., closer to a score of 7), this may be because the gains largely depended on the type of sentence used in the GJ task. Table 5 shows the GLM analysis for items 1-4 (sentences with grammatical use of anticausative *si*); Table 6 shows the GLM analysis for items 5-8 (anticausative sentences that lack *si* and are thus ungrammatical); Table 7 shows the GLM analysis for items 9-12 (sentences that are ungrammatical because the feature anticausative *si* with an overt subject proper noun or pronoun.)

Table 5. GLM Analysis of GJ Task Items 1-4 (Grammatical Anticausative with *si*)

Group No.	<i>n</i>	Group Type	Pretest Mean	SD	Posttest Mean	SD	Delayed Mean	SD
1	18	D-FFI, TL	4.04	1.48	6.56	.723	5.97	.969
2	19	D-FFI, LL	4.50	1.27	6.38	.813	6.01	1.15
3	15	I-FFI, TL	3.97	1.47	5.98	1.16	5.67	1.26
4	19	I-FFI, LL	4.57	1.43	6.34	.613	6.27	.957

D-FFI = deductive form-focused instruction; I-FFI = inductive form-focused instruction
 TL = teacher-led classroom activities ; LL = learner-led classroom activities

Table 5 shows that participants were able to identify grammatical sentences that use the target structure *si* with relatively high accuracy. For tasks items 1-4 in the immediate posttest the only significant effect was for the within-subjects factor, time, $F(1, 67) = 107.72, p = .001$. For the between-subjects factors, method of instruction and type of activity, there were no significant effects, $F(1, 67) = .24, p = .68$. For task items 1-4 in the delayed posttest the again the factor time was significant, $F(1, 67) = 5.67, p = .020$; the between subject factors showed no significant effects, $F(1, 67) = .003, p = .96$.

Table 6. GLM Analysis of GJ Task Items 5-8 (Ungrammatical Anticausative, no *si*)

Group No.	<i>n</i>	Group Type	Pretest Mean	SD	Posttest Mean	SD	Delayed Mean	SD
1	18	D-FFI, TL	3.03	1.46	3.88	2.16	3.58	1.73
2	19	D-FFI, LL	3.12	1.36	3.61	1.70	3.64	1.50
3	15	I-FFI, TL	3.57	.937	3.82	1.96	4.36	1.08
4	19	I-FFI, LL	3.10	1.50	3.38	1.77	4.19	1.78

D-FFI = deductive form-focused instruction; I-FFI = inductive form-focused instruction
 TL = teacher-led classroom activities ; LL = learner-led classroom activities

In Table 6 we see that even in the posttest and the delayed posttest participants fared little above chance (3.5). For tasks items 5-8 in the immediate posttest there were no statistically significant effects. The within-subjects factor, time, was near significance, $F(1, 65) = 3.57, p = .063$. For the between-subjects factors, method of instruction and type of activity, there were no significant effects, $F(1, 65) = .16, p = .691$. Similarly, for task items 5-8 in the delayed posttest the again the factor time was not significant, $F(1, 67) = .74, p = .393$. Also, the between subject factors showed no significant effects, $F(1, 67) = .001, p = .97$.

Table 7. GLM Analysis of GJ Task Items 9-12 (Ungrammatical, overt subject)

Group No.	<i>n</i>	Group Type	Pretest Mean	SD	Posttest Mean	SD	Delayed Mean	SD
1	18	D-FFI, TL	3.83	1.39	4.22	1.91	3.67	1.95
2	19	D-FFI, LL	3.91	1.31	4.07	1.65	3.78	1.52
3	15	I-FFI, TL	4.46	1.18	4.96	1.24	4.38	1.37
4	19	I-FFI, LL	4.17	1.50	5.27	1.12	4.56	1.52

D-FFI = deductive form-focused instruction; I-FFI = inductive form-focused instruction
 TL = teacher-led classroom activities ; LL = learner-led classroom activities

For tasks items 9-12 in the immediate posttest the within-subjects factor, time, shows a significant effect, $F(1, 66) = 5.82, p = .019$. For the between-subjects factors, method of instruction and type of activity, there were no significant effects, $F(1, 66) = .85, p = .36$. Similarly, for task items 9-12 in the delayed posttest again the factor time was significant, $F(1, 67) = .1055, p = .002$. Also, the between subject factors showed no significant effects, $F(1, 67) = .445, p = .507$. Table 7 shows that participants again fared only slightly above chance. Descriptive statistics confirm this as noted in Table 8.

Table 8. Descriptive Statistics for the GJ Task Items (1-12), All Groups

Item No.	Pretest Mean	SD	Posttest Mean	SD	Delayed Mean	SD
1	4.16	1.93	6.46	.829	6.16	1.17
2	4.21	1.86	6.49	1.22	5.90	1.54
3	4.05	1.74	6.41	1.04	5.80	1.83
4	4.39	1.88	5.98	1.46	6.15	1.13
5	4.35	1.75	4.27	2.24	4.07	2.01
6	4.95	1.92	4.37	2.24	4.33	2.18
7	4.72	1.48	4.20	2.43	4.43	1.9
8	4.80	1.64	4.32	2.39	3.76	2.08
9	4.10	1.89	3.31	2.23	3.92	2.18
10	3.77	1.83	3.20	2.07	3.68	2.18
11	3.82	2.13	3.03	1.96	4.20	2.32
12	3.96	1.64	3.87	1.98	3.86	2.12

Table 8 shows that participants were more accurately able to determine whether a grammatical sentence is grammatical (items 1-4), while there the reverse is true for items 5-12; participants were less accurate after the treatment in most cases.

Table 9 shows the descriptive statistics for the production task items. The highest possible score is 2.00. None of the between-subjects factors were statistically significant in a univariate analysis.

Table 9. Descriptive Statistics for the Production Task

Group No.	<i>n</i>	Group Type	Pretest Mean	SD	Posttest Mean	SD	Delayed Mean	SD
1	18	D-FFI, TL	0	0	1.66	.685	1.05	.998
2	19	D-FFI, LL	0	0	1.42	.768	.842	.958
3	15	I-FFI, TL	0	0	1.60	.828	1.00	.925
4	19	I-FFI, LL	0	0	1.57	.692	1.42	.837

3.3 QUALITATIVE RESULTS

The narrative task was included in the immediate and delayed posttests and asked that participants recall or invent a “disastrous event or unfortunate mishap” using past tense verbs. Students on average produced only 1-2 accurate uses of the anticausative construction. For the purposes of this study, “accurate use” was operationalized as a transitive verb marked intransitively by the auxiliary verb *essere*, used in conjunction with an appropriate past participle and the anticausative marker *si*. Furthermore, an overt subject must not be present in the sentence to be counted as “accurate”. Gender agreement errors were not penalized since the majority of the participants’ constructions did not agree in gender. (2) and (3) illustrate “inaccurate” constructions and (4) gives an example of an “accurate” construction.

2. “Inaccurate” use of the anticausative (use of the auxiliary verb *avere*)

La macchina di Maria si ha rotto.
the car of Maria ANTI AUX break-PAST
“Maria’s car was destroyed.”

3. “Inaccurate” use of the anticausative (overt subject marker)

Maria si è rotto la macchina.
Maria ANTI AUX break-PAST the car
“Maria broke her car.”

4. “Accurate” use of the anticausative

La macchina si è rotta.
the car ANTI AUX break-PAST
“The car broke.”

The most common verbs used by participants were the verbs *rompere*, “break”, and *dividere*, “divide”. This may be because they had recently studied and practiced these verbs when they learned preterit (*passato prossimo*) verbs in class. The verbs “break” and “divide” are also two of the more frequently-used verbs of those used in the presentation; other verbs like “crumble”, “spill” and “turn up-side down” are not presented in the textbook and would not occur frequently in typical classroom discourse.

It is interesting to note that even participants who did not produce many accurate anticausative constructions in the narrative task still made the distinction between causative and anticausative constructions in the syntax of the sentences, marking causative constructions with an overt subject (the AGENT) and a transitive verb, while marking anticausative constructions with the PATIENT in the subject position in conjunction with the intransitive auxiliary *essere* and the anticausative *si*. (5) provides a typical example of this distinction.

5. Example of written narrative produced by a participant in this study

“[...] *John ha rotto la macchina nella altra macchina. John ha caduto alla macchina. Le porte di macchina si sono buttati nella via. La macchina di John si è dividuto nel due.*”

“John broke the car in the other car. John fell [auxiliary verb error] at/to the car. The doors of car were thrown in the street. The car of John divided [incorrect form of the past participle] in the two.”

In (5) we see that despite the fact that this student made various errors (in spelling, auxiliary verb agreement and preposition selection), he was still able to produce an overt subject with a transitive verb, as in, “John broke the car.” This student was also able to move the direct object of the last sentence (“the car”) to the subject position in the anticausative construction “*la macchina di John si è divuduto...*”, or “the car of John was divided [in two].” Even though the student is not able to produce the correct past participle, using *divuduto* instead of the grammatical *divisa*, he produces the correct syntactic structure of the anticausative sentence.

In the delayed posttest the majority of participants (72%) did not produce any anticausative constructions (as compared to only 22% of participants who did not produce any anticausative forms in the immediate posttest.) In both Toth’s (2008) student and in the present study, the anticausative was not taught or practiced in class during the time from the immediate posttest to the delayed posttest. Toth found that his participants did retain some knowledge of the anticausative construction in Spanish, so why should it be the case that the L2 Italian students in this study were not able to produce the target construction? I believe this may be due the fact that the delayed posttest was administered to students without any prior warning (so that participants would not study or review the anticausative prior to the test.) Here, there can be no comparison with Toth (2008), since he did not administer a narrative task in his posttests, but it may be students need some time to prepare before writing a narrative, as they would in class. During a normal in-class writing task, students typically had some time to brainstorm vocabulary, review grammatical structures and practice in a pre-writing activity. In the delayed

posttest included in this study, however, students did not have time to practice and this may have left many of them with little to say.

4.0 DISCUSSION

With regards to the research questions posed in the introduction to this paper, I found that neither teacher-led nor learner-led classroom activities provided an advantage in the grammaticality judgment task or the production task. Furthermore, neither inductive nor deductive FFI instruction gave any group a statistically significant advantage in these same tasks. While it remains to be seen whether a qualitative analysis of the students' production in class will provide any indication of why this may be, I hope to illustrate in this section the possible reasons as to why participants performed as they did in the GJ and production tasks and the narrative task. One possibility might stem from the similarities between anticausative constructions and other common constructions that use the auxiliary verb *essere*, "to be", as described in (6-8) below. Another reason for the similarity amongst the groups may have to do with the type of instruction used in this study, form-focused instruction.

In the grammaticality judgment task the only statistically significant factor was time, indicating that the students did improve from the pretest to the posttest. However, by breaking down the types of target sentences in groups we find that time was only significant for items 1-4 (grammatical sentences with *si*) and 9-12 (ungrammatical sentences with *si* and an overt subject). Time was not a significant factor when the ungrammatical sentences featured an anticausative use of a transitive verb without the anticausative marker *si*. Also, participants tended to overgeneralize the anticausative *si* marker to verbs used intransitively (marked by the auxiliary

verb *essere*) even when there was an overt subject, such as a proper name or a pronoun, which indicates that the verb is causative. Three examples of sentences used in the GJ task are provided in (6).

6. Grammatical and ungrammatical uses of *si* in the present study.

a. Grammatical use of anticausative *si* construction

La finestra si è chiusa improvvisamente.
the window ANTI AUX closed suddenly
PATIENT
“The window closed all of a sudden.”

b. Ungrammatical use of the anticausative without *si*

La porta è chiusa improvvisamente.
the door AUX closed suddenly
PATIENT
“The door closed all of a sudden.”

c. Ungrammatical use of the anticausative with an overt subject and *si*

Lui si è aperto la finestra.
he ANTI AUX opened the window
AGENT PATIENT
“He closed the window.”

In (6a) there is a grammatical use of the anticausative *si*, where “window”, the PATIENT, is in the subject position. In (6b) there is a similar sentence, where “door”, the PATIENT, is in the subject position. However, in (6b) there is no *si* to indicate an anticausative use of the verb. I believe students may interpret (6b) as a sentence featuring a copulative use of *essere*, “to be”, combined with the adjective *chiusa*, “closed”, as seen in (7). This may especially be the case if the student does not recall the meaning of the adverb *improvvisamente*, “all of a sudden” or “suddenly”, which often occurs with anticausative constructions. The

copulative form of *essere* is a very common sentence structure that students would have seen since the first week of class.

7. Copulative *essere* in Italian.

La porta è chiusa.
the door be-PRES closed
“The door is closed.”

More confounding are the errors found with (6c), where there is a pronoun in the subject position followed by an anticausative verb construction, since the two are never found in the same environment in grammatical sentences. One reason why this might confuse students is because these students had previously studied reflexive verbs in Italian, which employ *si* as the reflexive marker, as illustrated in (8). In reflexive constructions an overt subject marker is permissible, but optional.

8. Reflexive verbs in Italian.

Lui si è chiuso gli occhi.
He Refl-AUX-closed his eyes
“He closed his eyes.”

Since *si* is a fairly common marker used with reflexive, reciprocal, passive and anticausative verbs, students may confuse the anticausative construction with the more common reflexive form, where the AGENT is in the subject position of the sentence.

Another question that arises from this study is why there were no statistically significant differences between the groups. This may be because both inductive and deductive form-focused instruction calls for lots of input. Even deductive FFI (which employs metalinguistic linguistic information in the L1) provides sample sentences in the L2, allowing students ample opportunities to map the form to the meaning of the target structure. Toth (2008) states that the

grammar presentation in his study was largely metalinguistic information in the L1 with a few sample sentences illustrating the transitive and intransitive uses of Spanish verbs; the grammar instruction lasted 5-10 minutes. In the grammar presentation used in this study, the instructor presented the new grammatical structure in approximately 15 minutes, providing several sample sentences that were discussed in depth during the lesson. It could be that students map form and meaning in a more visual way (in the inductive lesson) or via explicit, metalinguistic rule formation (in the deductive lesson), but it seems that both methods help students learn the target structure, especially if ample input in the L2 is provided.

That the students learned is confirmed by the narrative task. Even though participants did not produce many accurate examples of anticausative verbs (on average only 1-2 per narrative), they did show that they seem to understand that the AGENT and PATIENT roles are switched in anticausative constructions, suggesting that they implicit knowledge of syntax was acquired. Since participants did not have much time to complete the narrative task, future research with narrative tasks is necessary to determine if there are other effects of instruction and classroom activities.

5.0 CONCLUSION

In this paper I've examined whether Toth's (2008) study may be modified to include two different types of instruction, inductive and deductive form-focused instruction and if this may be correlated with more or less accurate results in a grammaticality judgment task and a production task. Statistical analysis shows that there was no significant difference between groups in either task, which differs greatly from Toth's results where participants in the teacher-led group outperformed participants in the learner-led group in the GJ and production tasks. This may be due to pedagogical factors, for example the quantity of input given in form-focused instruction may have helped learners map form-meaning relationships. On the other hand, a lack of quality in the input may explain why students produced on average only 1-2 instances of the anticausative *si*; further research involving the analysis of the recorded classroom instruction and activities may shed light on this problem. This could also be due to the complex relationship between syntax, morphology and semantics in Italian anticausative and middle voice constructions. Future research, and an in-depth analysis of the qualitative research that I've conducted for this project, may shed some light on why there were no method of instruction or activity-type effects on learners' accuracy rates, but this study is consistent with Ellis (2008) and Norris & Ortega (2000) who found that there was little agreement on whether the method of classroom instruction has a significant effect on L2 learners. With more replicated studies and continued research this mystery may be resolved.

APPENDIX A

A.1 GRAMMATICALITY JUDGMENT TASK EXAMPLE

INSTRUCTIONS

Speakers of a language seem to develop a “feel” for what is a possible sentence, even when they have never been taught any particular rules. For example, in English, you might feel that sentences (a) and (c) sound like possible sentences, whereas (b) and (d) do not.

- a. Mary is likely to win the race.
- b. Mary is probable to win the race.
- c. It seems that John is late.
- d. John seems that he is late.

On the following pages is a list of sentences. I want you to concentrate on how you feel about these sentences. Native speakers of Italian often have difference intuitions about such sentences, and there are no right or wrong answers. I want you to tell me for each sentence whether you think it sounds more possible or more impossible in Italian. Read each carefully before you answer. Think of the sentences as spoken Italian and judge them accordingly. After each sentence you will see 7 numbers and one “don’t know” category. For each sentence circle only ONE of the numbers. Do not go back and change your answers. A score of 1 means that the sentence is “completely impossible” and a score of 7 means that the sentence is “completely possible.” Please circle “don’t know” if you do not know whether the sentence is possible or not. If you think the sentence is impossible, please circle the word(s) that make it impossible and write on the right-hand side of the page why the sentence is impossible.

For example,

- | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------|-------------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|------------|
| (i) | Mary sent a parcel to John. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | don't know |
| (ii) | Mary drove to Chicago Anne. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | don't know |
| (iii) | Mary sent John a parcel. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | don't know |
| (iv) | What did John file without reading? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | don't know |
| (v) | John drove Anne to Chicago. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | don't know |
| 1. | Marco ha corso due chilometri. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | don't know |
| 2. | Si è lasciato il suo paese. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | don't know |
| 3. | Abbiamo visto un film ieri. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | don't know |
| 4. | Ho preso il treno da Milano. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | don't know |
| 5. | Siamo fatto un picnic nel parco. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | don't know |

6. Voi vi siete mangiati al ristorante.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
7. Luisa ha camminato per quindici minuti.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
8. Ci siamo comprati un gelato in centro.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
9. Roberto è arrivato puntualmente all'appuntamento.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
10. La macchina si è rotta sabato scorso.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
11. Maria è nata a Roma.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
12. Antonella è uscita con il suo ragazzo nuovo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
13. Francesco si è ballato alla festa.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
14. Antonio non si è nato in ospedale.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
15. Luisa si è corso alla scuola.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
16. Questi fiori sei stati molto costosi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
17. Vi siete andati al museo con la classe.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
18. Ci siamo nati in America.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
19. La lampada è spenta improvvisamente.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
20. Mi sono arrivata alla lezione alle nove.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
21. La finestra si è chiusa rapidamente.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
22. Lui si è aperto la finestra.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
23. Noi ci siamo caduti il libro.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
24. Siamo andati al concerto domenica sera	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
25. Il bicchiere si è rotto improvvisamente.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
26. Lui si è telefonato sua madre.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
27. La bottiglia d'acqua si è caduta dalla tavola.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
28. Lui è diventato un insegnante dopo l'università.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
29. Il vaso si è spezzato in milione pezzi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
30. Voi avete mangiato troppo alla cena.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
31. La porta è chiusa improvvisamente.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
32. Questi pantaloni sono stati troppo costosi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
33. I Signori Rossi ha comprato la casa.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
34. Il libro è caduto dallo scaffale.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
35. Il caffè è rovesciato dappertutto.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
36. Marco si è rotto la tazza di caffè.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
37. Mi sono rotta la mia bicicletta.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
38. L'albero è stato alto.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
39. La casa ha avuto tre piani.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
40. La finestra è fratturata improvvisamente.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
41. Questa scatola è stato molto pesante.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
42. Io non ho voluto fare l'esame.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
43. Ho visto un nuovo programma televisivo ieri.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
44. Non ti ho visto al concerto.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
45. Tu e Natalia abbiamo mangiato una bistecca.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
46. Il gatto hanno saltato dalla sedia.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
47. Tu ti sei rovesciato il bicchiere.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
49. I cani hanno andato al canile.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
49. Marco hai preso il treno alle tre.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know
50. Mio padre è stato un medico.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	don't know

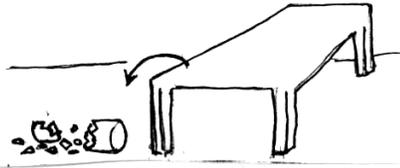
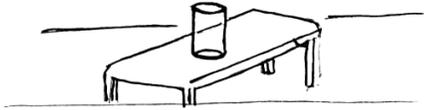
APPENDIX B

B.1 PRODUCTION TASK EXAMPLE

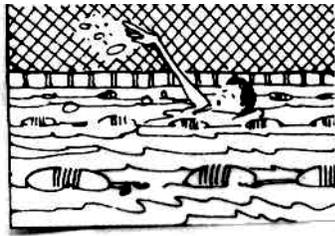
DIRECTIONS: USE THE PICTURES AND THE SUGGESTED WORDS BELOW TO CREATE WELL-FORMED SENTENCES IN ITALIAN USING THE PASSATO PROSSIMO. WRITE THE SENTENCES ON THIS SHEET. ASK YOUR TEACHER FOR ANY HELP YOU NEED WITH VOCABULARY. WORK QUICKLY AND COMPLETE ALL ITEMS EVEN IF YOU ARE NOT SURE OF THE ANSWER.



1. portare



2. rompere



3. nuotare



4.

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