

言語比較による文法形式の理解： 意味中心のタスクベース教授法における比較言語学的指導

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Understanding Grammatical Form through Language Comparison:

Cross-linguistic instruction in meaning centered Task-based teaching

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第二言語または外国語 (L2) 研究における学習者の母国語 (L1) の使用は、両方の言語の能力を向上させることが示されている。クロスリンガル教授法は、L1 と L2 の間の顕著な違いに学習者の注意を引き、L2 を改善するために L1 を効果的に用いる指導方法である。また、意味中心のタスクベース教授法は学習事項の内容 (意味) 把握を中心に展開される指導方法である。これら 2 つの教授法を併用して、日本人中学生 77 名を対象に、内容把握に基づく文法指導の効果を調査する探索的かつ実験的研究を行った。その結果、生徒は英語で語られた話を聞いて、その話の要約を英語で書くことができた。また、生徒の書いた英語の要約文を採点した結果、L1 のクロスリンガル教授法が L2 のターゲット文法の機能的な使用の上達に効果的であることが示された。

The use of learners' native language (L1) in second or foreign language (L2) studies has been shown to improve the proficiency of both languages. Cross-linguistic instruction, the practice of drawing learners' attention to salient differences between their L1 and L2, is a constructive means of applying the L1 to improve the L2. This exploratory-experimental study investigated the application of cross-linguistic instruction via a semantic-based pedagogical grammar within a meaning centered task-based pedagogy. In conjunction with cross-linguistic instruction in the L1, 77 Japanese junior high school English learners were tasked with writing sentences describing a heard story. The sentences were then scored and examined for evidence of cross-linguistic awareness. The qualitative results showed that cross-linguistic instruction in the L1 was effective at improving functional use of L2 targeted grammar forms.

Key Words: Code-switching, cross-linguistic instruction, task-based language teaching, Form-focused instruction, MAP Grammar.

1. Literature Review: Cross-linguistic instruction

Second language acquisition (SLA) research has shown that code switching, the practice of alternating between two or more languages, in the language classroom benefits second or foreign language (L2) learners in many profound ways. Not only do learners use their native language to increase understanding of

L2 classroom content, assigned tasks, and grammar (Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2010; Mori, 2004; Swain & Lapkin, 2000) but they also benefit from cross language skill transfer into their native language (L1). Cummins (1981) interdependence hypothesis states that L2 instruction helps develop language skills in the learners' first language, as well as the second.

Despite distinct differences in surface features, many core cognitive and linguistic related proficiencies are common across languages and this commonality facilitates transfer of language skills between the language the learner is studying and their native tongue. Cummins hypothesis is supported by research showing L2 studies can improve L1 reading and writing ability in school age learners (Yelland et al, 1993; Kecskes & Papp, 2000) and by studies showing first language transfer can improve L2 understanding and use, even in cases where it is initially a negative influence (Lucasa & Yiakoumetti, 2017; Dailey-O' Cain & Liebscher, 2009; Cook, 2001). It seems apparent that learners' L2 studies benefit when they are encouraged to apply all their language resources to their language studies.

The potential pedagogic benefits of using a native language to support L2 studies are vast, and accordingly some researchers have begun to investigate how best to incorporate the L1 into L2 pedagogy (Copland & Neokleous, 2011). One example is García, Flores, & Woodley's (2012) use of a translinguaging pedagogy. They found bilingual learners improved metalinguistic awareness through flexible and unrestrained use of both the learners' languages.

Cross-linguistic instruction is another promising pedagogical practice for incorporating the L1 into L2 pedagogy and goes far beyond simply allowing L1 use. Cross-linguistic instruction involves drawing learners' attention to salient differences between their two languages. This creates an awareness of L1-L2 differences, which benefits learners by providing practical insight into how vocabulary, semantics, and grammatical features function differently in the L2 (James, 1996). Kupferborg and Olshtain (1996) demonstrated that learners who received cross-linguistic instruction scored higher in L2 recognition and production tasks than learners who did not. More recently, Lucasa and Yiakoumetti (2017) showed how

cross-linguistic instruction improves the use of articles and plural suffixes of countable nouns in Japanese university students. Their study used written error identification exercises to focus learners' attention on the similarities and differences between Japanese and English. The benefits of cross-linguistic instruction as a supplemental activity have been well demonstrated but to date little research has focused on its use within task-based language teaching.

The present study intends to fill this gap by measuring the effects of including L1 cross-linguistic instruction as a component of task-based language teaching. The aim of this exploratory study is to incorporate L1 cross-linguistic instruction as a component of Form-focused instruction via a pedagogic grammar, MAP Grammar. It is hoped such inclusion better draws learners' attention to grammatical forms.

To gain a better understanding of how cross-linguistic instruction can be infused into the teaching of grammatical form some background understanding of form focused instruction is useful. The discussion below of form-focused instruction is followed by a description of MAP Grammar.

2. Cross-linguistic Form-Focused Instruction

Form-focused instruction (FFI), in L2 teaching originated in communicative language teaching, which viewed comprehensible language input and meaning-oriented tasks as necessary and sufficient for L2 acquisition. Evidence from L2 learners, however, soon demonstrated mastery of the L2 could not be obtained from solely engaging in L2 meaning-centered activities (Lightbown & Spada 1999) and attention shifted to how best to introduce grammatical form into the L2 classroom (Ellis 2001; Norris & Ortega, 2000).

Two hypotheses provide a theoretical foundation for FFI. The first is Schmidt's (1990, 2001) noticing hypothesis, which provides learners must consciously

notice a grammatical form, and its associated meaning and function within a sentence to successfully learn and use it. Since many forms are infrequent, insignificant, or redundant to communicative purposes, they need to be pointed out to learners in order to be successfully noticed. A second foundation is the ‘pushed output’ hypothesis (Swain, 1985; Swain & Lapkin, 1995), which views demand for L2 output as stretching a learners’ L2 resources thereby improving production skills and reinforcing correct form use.

FFI is present in L2 instruction in two types; the first is focus on forms (FonFs). FonFs entails teaching and practicing discrete lexical items, usually in a linear sequence determined by textbook writers, and views the L2 as an object of study and not necessarily as language in use. This approach has received much scrutiny within SLA, since it has been shown that L2 learning in neither linear nor additive (Kellerman, 1985; Selinker, 1972). The L2 skills FonFs develops are difficult to transfer outside the classroom, since they are based on explicit grammatical knowledge and the divide between implicit and explicit language knowledge, and use is not fluid across the language interface (Gray, 2017). However, despite such findings, FonFs remains standard practice in most L2 classrooms, often acting as supplemental instruction, for the simple reason it improves learners’ recognition and recall of collocations, vocabulary, and grammatical forms at both the productive and receptive levels of L2 use (Szudarski, 2012).

FonFs pedagogy can achieve noticing through supplementary activities, such as the explicit instruction of grammatical form as in, for example, translation exercises. Fotos (1993) showed L2 translation was as equally effective at achieving noticing of grammatical features as meaning centered performance. Translation, also involves the evaluation of alternative L2 expressions in learners’ choice of output and this stretches learners’ L2 resources leading

to improvements in production skills (Uzawa, 1996), thereby meeting the criteria of the pushed output hypothesis.

Including cross-linguistic instruction into a FonFs class presents little challenge because of its discrete decontextualized nature. For example, drawing learners’ attention to the cross-linguistic aspects of vocabulary via matching L1 to L2 words, translation exercises or as in the Lucasa and Yiakoumetti’s (2017) study, where error identification in the form of an in-class quiz acted as a starting point for discussions into linguistic differences in the languages.

The second type of FFI, focus on form (FonF) (Long 1991, 2015; Ellis, 2003; Long & Robinson 1998), provides learners with an authentic meaning-based L2 task into which grammatical form can be injected. The central aspect of FonF consists of occasionally and briefly drawing learner’s attention to grammatical form in an otherwise meaning-centered task-based language classroom. Spada (1997) viewed these form-focused interactions originating in a perceived L2 problem, with the advantage resting in the grammatical features arriving just in time to meet the demands of the learners’ communicative need. FonF increases the chances of noticing and generating output as learners come to view themselves as users of the language (Ellis, 2001).

For FonF, Tajino’s (2018) MAP Grammar, or MAP, provides the ideal platform for including both cross-linguistic and grammatical form instruction into FonF. MAP Grammar was developed from Halliday’s systemic functional linguistics (Halliday, 1985; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Halliday, Matthiessen, & Matthiessen, 2014) and uses the fixed word order and the syntagmatic sequencing of English via six semantic tags, α (alpha), *Who*, *Does*, *What*, *Where*, and *When*, to highlight meaningful content and connect it to social / functional use and grammatical form. Each semantic tag within the MAP framework represents individual semantic units and their sequenced order

shows the preferred flow of information for English sentences. The tags simplify metalanguage and facilitate practical L2 use, but more importantly learners must rely on classroom content to support their grammatical form decisions. In this way, MAP Grammar also increases learners' motivation and peer discussions (Smithers, 2018; Gray, 2018) thereby facilitating more active participation (Doman, 2005), which aids in developing an understanding of how learners' form choices relate to intended meaning in context (Duff, Ferreira, and Zappa, 2015). For a more in depth discussion of Map Grammar see Tajino (2018).

MAP Grammar satisfies the noticing hypothesis by creating opportunities to spotlight form. Its semantic, meaning-ordered approach merges content and form instruction, allowing for form discussions to seamlessly and simultaneously bridge into classroom content. MAP tags draw attention to the form-to-meaning relationship by assigning a semantic MAP tag to meaningful content. As classroom contents shifts meaning, so does the assigned tag, further drawing in a learners' attention to form in use. This demonstrates how a form's function changes with the content and noticing is achieved via a brief tagging discussion.

MAP Grammar satisfies the pushed output hypothesis by helping automate L2 output through a single fixed syntagmatic framework. The framework reduces metalinguistic decisions and grammatical errors, since learners always know where to begin, the correct order to place components of the sentence, and the importance of meeting a set criteria related to inter-tag relationships. The net result is increased output and greater learners' confidence in their output's correctness (Gray, 2018).

Including cross-linguistic instruction in a FonF class is more cumbersome because of the characteristic of FonF error correction, which is designed to be brief and directly connected to content in order to

maintain conversational cohesion. MAP, by using English's syntagmatic sequence and semantic tags to identify form and its function in content, provides the ideal point of comparison between the L1 and L2. For MAP, most error corrections centers on the tagging of semantic units, which is brief and content centered thus providing opportunities to reflect on the differences between the learners' first and second languages. With MAP, cross-linguistic instruction can take place in the L1 or L2 depending on the situation, as more complicated explanations are more effectively delivered in the L1. Such characteristics allow MAP Grammar to function very well within FonF pedagogy.

3. Grammatical differences between English and Japanese

The present study targeted three problematic grammar differences between Japanese and English; syntax, preposition use, and third person singular simple present verb tense. Past research has shown these features to be problematic because of differences in use between Japanese and English.

Firstly, Japanese syntax is based on subject-object-verb (SOV), compared to (SVO) in English. However, in practice, Japanese subject use is flexible, and there is frequent omission due to a shared understanding of context (Tanaka, 2016; Craft, 2016). This reliance on context within Japanese often leads to errors as learners omit the L2 subject entirely.

Secondly, preposition use to communicate place and time is absent in Japanese; location is conveyed using a specific place reference coupled with a particle, while a combination of a specific time reference and the appropriate verb tense indicates time. The lack of prepositions in Japanese makes conveying time and place accurately in the L2 problematic for many Japanese L2 learners (Kawaryu, Inoue, & Lee, 2017; Shimada & Nagano, 2017).

Finally, unlike English verb conjugation, Japanese verbs do not change for person or number.

Consequently, for the simple 3rd person, learners often make two errors. The first is to omit the –s, and since in Japanese, it is perfectly acceptable to use the copula with the verb, the second is to double the verb (Narahara, 2002). This situation is further complicated by third person pronouns in Japanese, which more commonly refer to the speaker or capture a social context than simply reference a third person's actions, as is common in English (Yashima, 2015).

4. The Present Study

The primary aim of this exploratory-experimental study is to apply all learners' linguistic resources to generate cross-linguistic awareness in learners' written output within a task-based L2 classroom. To this end, the study asks the following research question.

Research Questions

- A. Can cross-linguistic instruction be effectively incorporated into FonF via MAP Grammar to achieve functional use of targeted forms within a task-based L2 classroom?
- B. Does code switching improve cross-linguistic instruction within a task-based L2 classroom?

Participants

A total of 77 Japanese junior high school learners of English took part in the study. The study was conducted at a junior high school in Japan with one class from each grade participating. Of the learners, 26, 27, and 24 were in the 7th, 8th and 9th grade, respectively. Although many learners took English as a subject in elementary school, for all, English as a regular subject starts at the beginning of grade seven, when they begin studying it three times a week.

Data Sources

Data from the study was drawn from an analysis of learners' written output from a task-based class and a grammar translation exercise. All written

work was graded on a rubric with a score of 10 for grammatically correct sentences and 0 for incomprehensible or incomplete sentences. In both cases, cross-linguistic instruction was part of the class, and learners were allowed to speak in either their L1 or L2. However, these scores were never intended for quantitative statistical comparisons, since the school setting created inconsistencies in administering the tests. The scoring was only intended to provide a rough comparison into how well the learners incorporated cross-linguistic instruction and L1 use into grammatically correctly conveying the presented information.

Due to time constraints the translation exercise was conducted one week prior to the task-based class by the learners' English teacher and consisted of translating 10 written Japanese sentences. Written output from the task-based class was completely open ended with a suggested target of 5 sentences. The study used a qualitative analysis of the sentences based on the use of the three targeted forms to gauge the effectiveness of cross linguistic instruction in the L1 and L2 for both FonFs and FonF pedagogy.

Treatment

At the beginning of the task-based class, the instructor verbally presented a story in English and then taught the basics of MAP grammar using the story's content as an example of MAP tenants. Learners were then given the opportunity to ask questions about the content of the story after which it was presented again. Upon completion of the second rendition, the learners were tasked with relating the story back to the instructor via written sentences. L1 and L2 cross-linguistic instruction took place via a FonF approach before and during sentence construction.

Results

Two teachers of English marked all written output

based the same rubric and achieved an average Pearson's inter-rater reliability of $r = 0.985$. The results show higher sentence scores were directly related to school grade. For the translated sentences, this increase is consistent across all three grades, rising linearly by about 25% a year. The task-based class scores are higher than the translations scores for both grade 7 and 8 by 16% and 22% respectively, but grade 9 scores reversed this trend. In grade 9, learners' translation scores exceeded student's task-based scores by 10% (Graph 1). Average sentence scores are presented in Table 1 and 2 and representative examples of learners' sentences are presented in Table 3 and 4.

5. Discussion

A. Can cross-linguistic instruction be effectively incorporated into FonF via MAP Grammar to achieve functional use of targeted forms within a task-based L2 classroom?

In the study, cross-linguistic instruction was easily incorporated into task-based class since the pedagogy makes apparent grammatical forms essential for functional L2 use and this provides scaffolding for cross-linguistic comparisons between the L1 and L2. A good example of this is the syntagmatic sequencing of MAP tags, which emphasizes the syntactic importance of the *Who* and *Does* tags to the English SVO order compared to Japanese SOV. In Schmidt's (1990, 2001) noticing hypothesis terms, MAP grammar is creating functional noticing of English syntax by semantically bridging it to classroom content. Once noticed, learners understood the benefits of following English's preferred syntagmatic order and consistently began sentences with a subject. In the study, task-based classroom instruction involved briefly enquiring into the identity of a missing *Who* tag in a learners' sentence to achieve noticing of proper syntax. This process was assisted by the meaning centered approach of the task-based class, which made the *Who*

Graph 1: Average sentence scores by grade

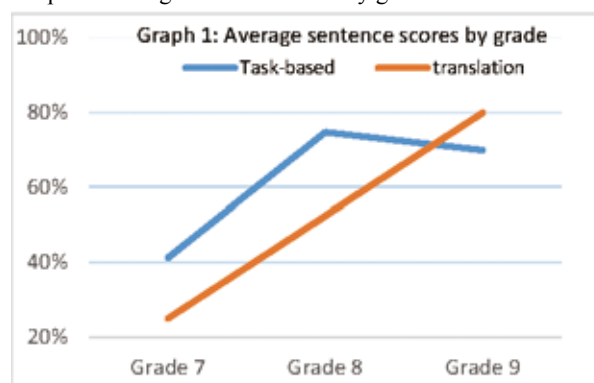


Table 1: Translated sentence scores (average)

Grade	7	8	9
n	26	27	24
1	7.54	9.89	10.00
2	7.27	8.96	10.00
3	3.04	6.41	8.83
4	0.19	2.89	8.50
5	1.31	6.15	8.50
6	1.77	4.78	7.83
7	3.38	7.85	9.00
8	0.27	2.48	5.42
9	0.04	1.70	6.50
10	0.15	1.33	5.29

Table 2: Constructed Sentences scores (average)

Grade	7	8	9
n	26	27	24
Word #	16.08	24.92	31.60
Sent #	4.2	4.6	5.7
1	7.54	8.92	8.40
2	6.23	8.69	9.00
3	4.00	7.92	7.90
4	2.00	5.77	7.80
5	0.85	4.31	4.00

easily identifiable since it is placed within a context.

This analysis explains how cross-linguistic instruction improved the application of English syntax in the task-based sentences, where every sentence in the entire sample includes a subject (Table 4). Conversely, in grade 7 translation sentences, there is a complete lack of subjects (Table 3:1-3), and although this omission decreases in frequency for

Table 3: Example sentences from translation exercises by grade. Key highlighted, Absent ()

<u>Form</u>	<u>Syntax SVO</u>
Grade 7:	
1. () Every Saturday, English study.	
2. () English teach every week Saturday.	
3. () Play soccer now.	
4. This () play soccer.	
5. () Study English every day.	
Grade 8:	
6. () Teach me English every Saturday.	
7. () Playing soccer now.	
8. () Gave me a lot of letter last month	
9. <u>That human</u> gave me a lot of letter last Monday	
10. <u>The park</u> can see the train.	
Grade 9:	
11. Last Monday, () give me picture postcard.	
12. <u>The park</u> which see the train.	
13. <u>The human</u> taught me English every Saturday	
14. <u>It</u> is a park which can see express train.	
	<u>Preposition</u>
Grade 7: No examples	
Grade 8:	
15. I can go back (to) school to take thing.	
16. You can see train (from) this park.	
17. It is (from) a park that can see train.	
Grade 9:	
18. The park is looking (at) a train	
19. It is the park that we can see (from) the train	
20. It is looking (at) a train	
	<u>Simple 3rd person present</u>
Grade 7:	
21. He <u>is like</u> umbrella.	
22. I <u>am know</u> .	
23. He's <u>like</u> music.	
Grade 8:	
24. He's <u>like</u> music.	
25. I <u>know is</u> it.	
26. He <u>is like</u> music.	
Grade 9:	
27. I <u>was got</u> many postcard last Monday.	
28. She <u>is taught</u> me English every Saturday.	
29. This park <u>is looks</u> train.	

Table 4: Example sentences from meaning centered task-based class by grade. Key: highlighted, Absent ()

<u>Form</u>	<u>Syntax SVO</u>
Grade 7:	
1. Tom's mother's house is very loud.	
2. Tom and Mother eat and talk.	
3. They have a big kitchen and bathroom.	
Grade 8:	
4. The country is very quiet and big.	
5. Everyone spends time in the kitchen.	
6. Tom has two families.	
Grade 9:	
7. A lot of people sit at the small table	
8. Both families are always in the kitchen.	
9. He likes kitchen in the apartment.	
	<u>Preposition</u>
Grade 7:	
10. Tom sits <u>in</u> the kitchen.	
11. Tom is always <u>in</u> the kitchen.	
12. Tom's mother lives <u>in</u> a the small city.	
Grade 8:	
13. Tom hears moo <u>outside</u> farm.	
14. Tom always spends time <u>in</u> the kitchen.	
Grade 9:	
15. Tom goes to visit friends house (in) summer.	
16. He can hear the cows crying <u>at</u> the grandfather's house.	
17. Tom open the window <u>in</u> his mother's house <u>in</u> summer.	
	<u>Simple 3rd person present</u>
Grade 7:	
18. Tom like() kitchen.	
19. Window open is loud.	
20. Father's house () big.	
21. Tom's mother outside is loud.	
Grade 8:	
22. Tom's father's family <u>is live</u> in the country.	
23. Kitchen have() three big windows.	
24. Tom see() his family in the country in summer.	
Grade 9:	
25. His mother's family live() in the city, so their house is small.	
26. Tom <u>goes</u> to visit in the city in summer.	

grade 8 and further decreases in grade 9, it is still present in some of the learners' writing (Table 3:11).

Cross-linguistic instruction was not effective at improving the use of prepositions in the translation sentences. Grade 8 and 9 learners omitted practically all prepositions (Table 3:15-20), probably due to their

absence in the Japanese versions of the sentences. Grade 7 learners made no attempt to depict location or time in their sentences thus avoiding the need for prepositions entirely. These results are in sharp contrast to preposition use in the task-based class sentences where every group used "in" to describe

the location of the actions within the story and higher grades used other prepositions to show the time and location of events they were trying to depict (Table 4:14).

The pushed output hypothesis (Swain 1985) can explain the improved use of prepositions via cross-linguistic instruction in the task-based class. Tasking students with writing sentences based on their understanding of the story forced learners to create output to relate content to a specific location and time. Tagged locations and times must meet the criteria of a given MAP tag to be grammatically and semantically correct to function properly within the overall syntagmatic sequence and content.

In the study, MAP Grammar achieves correct tagging by asking learners to justify their choice based on a mutually shared understanding of content. For example, the distinction between a *What* tag, as in ‘the kitchen’ or “the summer”, and a *Where* tag, as in “outside the kitchen”, or a *When* tag “in the summer”, revolves around the inclusion or omission of a preposition. This process facilitated a means for learners in task-based sentences to increase preposition use as they attempted to capture the location and time of events in the content. Cross-linguistic instruction in the task-based class was able to juxtapose L1 and L2 location and time form constructions to make a clear systematic comparison between the two that created a stronger connection among the L2 form construction than in the translation sentences.

The task-based class use of cross-linguistic instruction highlighted to learners how the L1 functions differently in terms of syntax and preparation use. It provided the necessary contextual references to the learners and operationalized the cross-linguistic distinctions between the L1 and L2 enabling learners to more correctly apply English prepositions and syntax.

Task-based language teaching is closer to real L2 use

Cross-linguistic instruction is more beneficial to learners when undertaken with task-based teaching, since it is more readily transferable to functional use. Research has shown FonFs instruction is effective at increasing grammatically based test scores and performance on supplemental activities. The consistent and predictable connection between classroom instructions resulting in learners gaining the ability to demonstrate an understanding of target forms on specific performance measures is the main reason FonFs is still present in many L2 classrooms. This can be seen in the consistent linear increases in sentence scores associated with FonFs, of about 25% per grade (Graph 1). Theoretically, explicit instruction of targeted forms creates noticing in learners’ attention, which is followed by pushed output exercises focusing on the production of non-contextualized sentences. However, application of these skills to other areas of L2 use is difficult since the type of language knowledge developed via FonFs is not readily transferable. This makes the extension of cross-linguistic instruction to other areas less effective.

The task-based sentence scores provide a more accurate picture of the learners’ actual L2 engagement. Since L2 learning is neither linear nor additive, decreases in performance are a natural result of learners challenging new L2 situations (Graph 1). The study’s task for these learners represented a new learning challenge and demanded they stretch their L2 resources by incorporating cross-linguistic instruction into their output in order to accomplish the task at hand. This resulted in higher sentence scores for the lower grades compared to the translation sentence. However, grade nine’s more advanced L2 language skills led them to attempt more advanced sentence constructions. Their sentences were longer and contained more coordinating or subordinating

conjunctions (Table 2: average word count), and as a result of striving with more difficult yet unfamiliar language, they decreased their sentence scores. This interpretation is supported by the fact that many grade nine learners exceeded the suggested sentence number, writing up to 9 sentences, while others heeded the suggestion but packed more information into each sentence as a strategy to accomplish the task (Table 2: average sentence count). Despite being less predictable at meeting curriculum objectives, task-based teaching makes the results of cross-linguistic instruction more directly transferable to functional use in real world communication.

B. Does code switching improve cross-linguistic instruction within a task-based L2 classroom?

The use of code switching improved cross-linguistic task-based instruction in the study by increasing learners understanding of cross-linguistic form differences and classroom content.

Many of the concepts related to the differences between the L1 and L2 could be succinctly communicated via Japanese. Such discussions, if carried out in the L2, would require a significant break from content and potentially damage conversational cohesion. An example of this is simple 3rd person cross-linguistic verb instruction, which took place exclusively in the L1. In Japanese, verbs do not change for person or number and in the translation sentences many learners doubled the verbs (Table 3:21-29). This error was avoided in the task-based sentences (table 4:18-25) as learners noticed the doubling of the Does tag. However, MAP grammar highlights verb tense by highlighting the linkage between the *Does* and *When* tags, to make an agreement in terms of event timing. In the learners' sentences, there were few time references and thus few occasions to highlight this connection, resulting in the simple 3rd person – s remaining omitted (table 4: 18-25) in many cases.

This shows, despite L1 use, error correction in a task-based approach is less predictable since it must arise naturally from content and sometimes does not emerge.

As with previous research, code switching was also effective at increasing classroom content and task understanding. It is important to note that, even though learners switched to their L1, the topic of discussion remained centered on the content and the task and a better understanding of both enabled more precise and better L2 sentences.

Conclusion

The application of code switching in cross-linguistic instruction within the task-based class was operationalized in this study by the use of MAP grammar. For learners, this combination highlighted how targeted grammatical form operates in the L2 and provided scaffolding for comparisons to the learners L1. The results of this blending of pedagogies, the use of MAP Grammar within task-based instruction, was to improve L2 learners understanding of content and classroom task as well as to increase their understanding of target form which was expressed in their written output and better prepared them for real world L2 use.

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