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**IS STRATEGIC PLANNING ENOUGH? INVESTIGATING THE
IMPACT OF TWO TYPES OF STRATEGY INSTRUCTION ON
STUDENTS' ORAL PLANNED PERFORMANCE**

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Esta Tese foi julgada adequada para obtenção do Título de “Doutor em Estudos da Linguagem” e aprovada em sua forma final pelo Programa de Pós Graduação em Inglês.

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To my dear ones
with all my love

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For me, the path to become a researcher is a road; a bumpy one with many intersections, where you drive yourself slowly with your old car and get lost most of the times. The process does not seem very attractive, but what attracts many is the destination. The problem is that we may never arrive to this craved destination; I doubt it even exists. Nevertheless, I believe that there may be stops; we may call them destination stops - at least for some sense of control. Each destination stop we arrive is a celebration, because we see how long and how much effort it took us to get there. We praise ourselves. We recall the people who pulled us out of the mud when we got jammed during a scary storm. In fact, these people are very important. Without them, we would not have been able to arrive to our destination stop. Those people will always deserve our caring, respect and gratitude. For those people, I have to express my gratitude. I thank...

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... the raters, the mechanics, that fixed my car when it broke down.

... all of those who directly or indirectly were part of this journey.

It was a long but fruitful journey!

Live as if you were to die tomorrow.
Learn as if you were to live forever.
(Gandhi)

ABSTRACT

This doctoral dissertation presents the outcome of a study that aimed at investigating the impact of two types of strategy instruction – integrated and isolated – on learners’ oral planned performance at the level of complexity, accuracy, fluency, and adequacy. The study also aimed at examining the use of adequacy as an additional measure to assess speech performance and establishing learners’ perception about the process they underwent during the data collection. Three groups from Extracurricular/ UFSC participated in the study. The treatment for each group was randomly assigned. The integrated group had 11 students and received strategy instruction on how to plan during their regular English lessons; the isolated group had 12 students and received an entire lesson on how to plan; and the control group had 11 students and received no instruction whatsoever. In total, there were 34 Brazilian participants with intermediate proficiency level in English as a second language controlled by a proficiency test. The groups performed two then-and-there picture-cued narrative tasks after 10 minutes of planning before and after treatment. Their oral performance in both tasks was recorded. Moreover, right after the performance of each task, participants filled in a post-task questionnaire with the intention of collecting their perception on the process. Quantitative and qualitative analyses were conducted. Quantitative results showed that the isolated group improved their oral performance in terms of accuracy and adequacy, the integrated group in terms of adequacy only, and the control group did not present any improvement. In addition, quantitative results also showed that adequacy may be considered a separate speech dimension, since the measure adopted in the study assessed specific aspects of speech performance such as the text structure, clarity, and appeal. Qualitative results showed that participants perceived both the planning time and the instructional session(s) as beneficial. Furthermore, participants from the experimental groups opted by the use of different strategies while planning the second task. All in all, these findings can contribute to both the fields of Second Language Acquisition and Language Pedagogy, building a stronger interface between them.

Keywords: Strategic planning. Strategy instruction. Isolated instruction. Integrated instruction. Speech performance. Adequacy.

RESUMO

Esta tese de doutoramento apresenta o resultado de um estudo que investigou o impacto de dois tipos de ensino de estratégias - integrado e isolado - na produção oral planejada em nível de complexidade, acurácia, fluência e adequação. O estudo também teve como objetivo examinar o uso da adequação como uma medida adicional para avaliar a produção oral e desvendar a percepção dos alunos a respeito do processo que eles foram submetidos. Três grupos do Extracurricular/UFSC participaram do estudo e para cada um, um tratamento foi aleatoriamente atribuído. O grupo integrado, composto por 11 alunos, recebeu instrução em como planejar durante as aulas regulares de língua inglesa; o grupo isolado, composto por 12 alunos, recebeu uma aula inteira sobre como planejar; e o grupo controle não recebeu nenhum tipo de tratamento. No total, havia 34 participantes brasileiros com nível de proficiência intermediário em língua inglesa como segunda língua. Os grupos realizaram duas tarefas narrativas precedidas por 10 minutos de planejamento cada antes e depois do tratamento. A produção oral dos alunos foi gravada e logo após a realização de cada tarefa transcrita e usada para fins de análise quantitativa. Além do mais, os participantes preencheram um questionário com o intuito de coletar as suas percepções sobre o processo. Os resultados quantitativos mostraram que o grupo isolado melhorou sua produção oral em termos de acurácia e adequação, o grupo integrado melhorou sua produção somente em termos de adequação e o grupo controle não apresentou nenhuma melhora significativa. Ademais, os resultados também demonstraram que a adequação pode ser considerada uma dimensão separada, já que a medida usada nesse estudo avaliou aspectos específicos da produção oral, tais como: estrutura textual, clareza e apelo. Os resultados qualitativos mostraram que os participantes perceberam tanto o momento de planejamento quanto as sessões instrucionais como benéficas. Ainda, os participantes dos grupos experimentais optaram pelo uso de estratégias diferentes enquanto planejavam a segunda tarefa. No mais, os resultados aqui apresentados podem contribuir para os campos da Aquisição de Segunda Língua e Ensino de Línguas, construindo uma interface mais consolidada entre os dois.

Paravras-chave: Planejamento estratégico. Ensino de estratégias. Ensino isolado. Ensino integrado. Produção oral. Adequação.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. FIRST WORDS

This doctoral dissertation is the outcome of a study that investigated the impact of two types of strategy instructions – integrated and isolated – on the L2¹ oral planned performance of Brazilian intermediate learners. Along with the main objective, the study also (a) examined the implications of a discourse-oriented measure –adequacy (Pallotti, 2009) - to assess speech production together with the traditional measures already adopted in the field: complexity, accuracy, and fluency (Skehan, 1998)² and (b) established learners’ perceptions³ on the process they underwent during the experiment. The idea of developing this study emerged, mainly, from the limitations brought by my master thesis (Specht, 2014), which aimed at investigating a similar issue, that is, whether teaching learners how to plan affected their oral planned performance in terms of accuracy. However, the master study only focused on one speech dimension and one type of instruction, which just touched the surface of the problem, requiring further investigation.

The problem, which still remains, is regarded to whether or not learners use the planning time available for them as a pre-task condition strategically (D’Ely, 2006; Mehnert, 1998), and whether instruction on how to plan may enhance the planning condition. Specht (2014) brought some quantitative and qualitative evidence that instruction, in fact, led his participants to take more advantage of strategic planning, demonstrating a possible impact on accuracy as well as on the use of strategies. The present study, however, intends to examine whether

¹ In this study, L2 is adopted as a general term, defined as “a cover term for any language other than the first language learned by a given learner or group of learners, irrespective of the type of learning environment” (Sharwood-Smith, 1994, p. 7). L2, second language, and foreign language are used interchangeably in this study.

² For Skehan (1998), speech is a multifaceted skill, which can be divided into three dimensions: fluency (the capacity to produce speech in real time), accuracy (the ability to perform in the target language forms), and complexity (the use of more elaborated and complex language structure).

³ For this research, the definition of perception is “a physical and intellectual ability used in mental processes to recognize, interpret, and understand events, an intuitive cognition or judgment.” (Silva, 2004, p. 9)

instruction can affect oral performance as a whole. For that, other speech dimensions that are normally used in studies on strategic planning (complexity and fluency) are also adopted. In addition, adequacy as an extra dimension, proposed by Pallotti (2009), is employed in this study as a way to assess more discourse-oriented aspects of speaking, related to the task's demands.

Furthermore, this study was also driven by my motivation to understand language learning and teaching. Since I started learning English as a teenager, I have been fascinated by the complexities of learning a foreign language. I used to spend hours figuring out the best ways to improve my learning. And once I became a teacher, all this baggage and fascination was transferred to my teaching practices. The use of a task-based perspective allowed me to build up a bridge between the two areas (learning and teaching) that regardless of how similar they might seem at first sight, actually have different agendas (Ellis, 1997)⁴. Strategic planning – a pre-task condition which consists of providing learners with some time to prepare an oral task prior to its actual performance (Ellis, 2005) -, for instance, is a construct that made me have a glimpse of cognitive processes related to speech production (Levelt, 1989) and, at the same time, reflect upon ways to improve these processes through instruction (Oxford, 2011).

With that in mind, the next sections of this introduction present the context of investigation in which this study is theoretically grounded, the significance of this study, and the organization of the dissertation, respectively.

1.2. CONTEXT OF INVESTIGATION

The impact strategic planning has on learners' cognitive capacities as a pre-task condition is undeniable. In general, research has shown that learners that are provided with the opportunity to plan their oral task prior to its actual performance produce more complex, fluent, and accurate oral tasks (Skehan, 2016). Two decades of research have produced a great range of studies which made an effort to explain such phenomenon in the light of processing information and cognitive

⁴ Ellis (1997) explains that Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and Language Pedagogy (LP) are different areas with different agendas; therefore one must be careful when using results from SLA studies to inform language teaching, and the same applies to studies on strategic planning. Even though strategic planning is a construct that may be used in both areas, the nature of the tasks is different and conditions are more controlled in research than they are in the classroom (Foster, 2009).

theories (Skehan, 1998), speech production models (deBot, 1992; Levelt, 1989), and trade-off hypothesis (Skehan & Foster, 1996). In a few words, the theoretical frameworks suggest that learners have limited attentional capacities, which do not allow them to focus on every aspect of an oral task; however, when they are provided with some time to plan a task, their attentional resources can be manipulated in order to prepare the message in terms of content and language. This manipulation has an impact on conceptualizing and formulating cognitive processes, which diminishes their cognitive load when L2 speakers have to perform the task, producing an impact on their speech performance at the level of fluency, complexity and accuracy, having a trade-off effect between complexity and accuracy.

In spite of the idyllic scenario just presented, there is still much room for inquiry. This necessity of more research on strategic planning can be highlighted by the fact that, even gathering all studies on strategic planning, they would not be sufficient for a meta-analysis to be conducted, as Skehan (2016) points out. In addition, research on strategic planning, even though driven by a common goal, ends up creating separate agendas, which investigate specific variables that may have an influence on the pre-task condition, such as: the amount of time available for planning (Mehnert, 1998, for instance), the role of familiarity (D'Ely, 2011, for instance), different sources of planning (Kawauchi, 2005, for instance), and the relation between planning and working memory capacity (Guará-Tavares, 2016, for instance), to cite but a few. This variety of inquiring topics opens more room for investigation; however, at the same time it requires more research on the topic, not only to understand it fully but also to consolidate evidence raised in the field.

The goal of this study, therefore, is to approach some of these under-researched topics in order to contribute and shed some light on the understanding of strategic planning as a cognitive and pedagogical construct, as well as to research in the field. More specifically, this study attempts to understand the impact of instruction on optimizing the planning condition and its relation to the classroom, and the role of a more qualitative analytical dimension – adequacy - other than complexity, accuracy, and fluency, which have been adopted in most studies to assess speech performance.

Most studies on strategic planning have an experimental design (Ellis, 2005), which makes them more easily conducted within laboratory contexts. In this sense, studies carried out in classroom contexts are fewer. This contestation seems to be reasonable,

considering that the main objective of strategic planning studies is to understand the implications it may have on speech production as well as to reinforce the theoretical backgrounds in which the construct is based on, such as speech production models (Levelt, 1989; de Bot, 1992). However, at the same time, strategic planning is also a pedagogical construct, which informs task-based teaching; therefore it has a great relation to the classroom. It is not quite ecologically valid, according to Foster (1996), to create a bridge between results and the classroom if the studies that provided evidence have been conducted in a laboratory.

In a bibliographic research, Ellis (2009) only identified five studies that were conducted in the classroom (Foster, 1996; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Mochizuki & Ortega, 2008; Skehan & Foster, 1997; 2005). From his analysis, this number did not present a considerable increase. I was able to find a few more studies carried out in pedagogical settings. The low preference for this kind of context is understandable, since it presents many variables that may not be able to be controlled, when it comes to experiments. Nevertheless, since one of the objectives of this study is to create a more solid connection between Second Language Acquisition and Language Pedagogy, the classroom is the context chosen.

The idea of providing learners with some type of assistance to enhance their planning condition is not new in the area and has already been tackled in some studies. However, the way in which this assistance has been manipulated differs from one study to another, besides having different objectives. Foster and Skehan (1996) focused on the general difference between unguided and guided planning. Both conditions consisted in providing learners with some time to prepare their task prior to the actual task performance; however, for guided planning, learners received pieces of metacognitive advice during planning time. Mochizuki and Ortega (2008) also examined the role of unguided and guided planning, but their aim was to manipulate guided planning to lead learners to focus on specific grammatical structures. Sangarun (2005), on the other hand, provided their participants with instructional sessions on how to plan. The goal of the instruction, though, was to lead the participants to focus exclusively on form, on meaning, or on both. Specht and D'Ely (2017) also administered instructional sessions on how to plan; however, unlike Sangarun (2005), their goal was to lead their participants to take the most advantage of the planning time through the use of strategies. And, finally, Foster and Skehan (1999) and D'Ely (2011) dealt with teacher-led planning, which is the participation of the teacher in assisting learners in planning their tasks, that is, the

teacher may plan the task along with learners or bring relevant information related to the task.

All the aforementioned studies presented positive results regarding the benefits planning assistance may have on speech performance. Interestingly, apart from Foster and Skehan (1996) and Sangarun (2005)⁵, the results brought by Foster and Skehan (1999), D'Ely (2011), and Specht (2014) show a tendency for an impact on accuracy, which, according to Foster and Skehan (1999), demonstrated the role of a mediator in leading learners to focus on language itself. Such results may shed some light on the lack of impact strategic planning itself has on accuracy. If there is, indeed, a relation between instruction and accuracy impact, it opens room for pedagogical manipulation of strategic planning in the classroom regarding the type of impact on speech performance teachers may plan for a specific task, for instance.

Considering specifically the use of strategy instruction in order to enhance strategic planning, two types of instruction are possible. Specht and D'Ely (2017) designed lessons in which they presented to their participants strategies they could use during planning time, and, with the use of activities, the participants practiced each strategy individually. Such approach, within the field of strategy instruction, may be called isolated or separate strategy instruction (Ellis, 1998), since it is not being inserted within the regular English lessons. Pedagogically thinking, strategy instruction can be more useful during the L2 lessons, as O'Malley and Chamot (1990) highlight, because it is during the lesson that learners face problems and/or difficulties which may be solved or facilitated through the use of strategies. In this sense, the teacher present (a) strategy(ies) and learners practice it/them and reflect on its/their use by performing an activity in the classroom (Oxford, 1990). In other words, it would be a more organic way of administering strategy instruction. This type of strategy instruction is called integrated strategy instruction (Ellis, 1998).

For research purposes, the isolated strategy instruction is easier to adapt and control when dealing with experimental studies. However, the results of studies that employed isolated strategy instruction should be carefully considered regarding their application to teaching in general. Therefore, in order to assess a more pedagogical stance of instruction on

⁵ As Mochizuki and Ortega (2008)'s focus was on specific grammatical structures, a comparison between other studies that provided general assistance for planning is more difficult. Therefore, even though Mochizuki and Ortega's study deals with instruction, it was not used as empirical evidence in the present study.

strategic planning and to reflect upon how it can be employed in the L2 regular lessons, I opted to investigate the inclusion of an integrated type of strategy instruction to teach learners how to plan in this study as well. Consequently, the adoption of both types of instruction also opens room for comparisons, examining their similarities and differences, especially considering that such comparisons are not usual in the field of strategy instruction (Trendak, 2015).

Regarding the adoption of an extra dimension to assess speech performance, studies on strategic planning have conceptualized speech performance as a multifaceted phenomenon, which has been analyzed in terms of complexity, accuracy, and fluency, as proposed by Skehan (1998). In order to assess each dimension, measures are operationalized. For instance, the index of subordination is a measure adopted to assess complexity; the percentage of error-free clauses is a measure adopted to assess accuracy; and the number of pauses is a measure adopted to assess fluency. Such dimensions and measures reinforce comparisons between studies and have proven to be successful in tackling speech performance, according to Skehan (2014). However, a great deal of discussion on their reliability has been held in the area (Housen & Kuiken, 2009; Larsen-Freeman, 2009; Norris & Ortega, 2009; Skehan, 2009). Pallotti (2009), for instance, questioned whether these measures effectively represent a proficient performance. According to the author, a performance may be accurate, fluent, and complex, but at same time, may not be adequate communicatively. Pallotti proposed, then, the use of adequacy as an extra dimension/measure, which would examine whether the performance is adequate regarding the communicative goals of a task. Taking that in mind, this study also intends to analyze the adoption of adequacy, especially considering that, to the best of my knowledge, no study on strategic planning has ever done that.

Finally, studies on strategic planning are mostly experiments (Ellis, 2005). They take, therefore, a more quantitative stance towards the phenomenon, focusing on the product of planning - the speech performance. Few studies in the area attempted to scrutinize a more qualitative perspective of the pre-task condition. The issues investigated are related to the process of planning. Guara-Tavares (2016), Ortega (1999; 2005), and Pang and Skehan (2014), for instance, investigated what learners did while they planned, and D'Ely (2006; 2011) and Specht and D'Ely (2017), for instance, established learners' perception on the use of the planning time. Both types of inquiry are important if one wants to fully understand the impact of strategic planning and build an interface with the classroom. Furthermore, investigating the process

of planning might be an effective means for making out whether learners take advantage of the pre-task condition.

1.3. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Studies on strategic planning have provided positive evidence on the impact the pre-task condition has on speech performance in terms of complexity, accuracy, and fluency (Skehan, 2016). In addition, they also contributed to the scrutinization of cognitive processes related to attention and speaking. However, the field is still in its infancy and more research is necessary in order to further understand the phenomenon. Having said that, this study, besides adding to research on the field, also sheds some light on issues that were under-researched and that were not even grasped yet.

As it was already mentioned, few studies on strategic planning focus on the process of planning; more specifically on the role instruction may have in enhancing strategic planning. Studies investigated the difference between guided and unguided planning (Foster & Skehan, 1996), the role of instruction to direct learners' attention to form, meaning, or both (Sangarun, 2005), teacher assistance for strategic planning (D'Ely, 2011, Foster & Skehan, 1999), the use of specific activities for strategic planning (Kawauchi, 2005), and strategy instruction for assisting learners in becoming more strategic during planning time (Specht & D'Ely, 2017).

This study follows Specht and D'Ely (2017), who, to the best of my knowledge, were the only ones to investigate the role of strategy instruction in enhancing strategic planning. However, unlike them, which just investigated the impact of isolated strategy instruction on accurate planned performance, this study investigates the impact of two types of strategy instruction on complex, accurate, fluent, and adequate planned performance. The inclusion of another type of instruction – the integrated one – provides the opportunity to build a stronger interface with the classroom as well as to compare both types of instruction, which also contributes to this neglected area of the strategy instruction field (Rossi, 2016). In addition, the assessment of speech performance in terms of complexity and fluency may provide more evidence to understand trade-off effects, for instance. Moreover, this study also examines a fourth dimension of speech performance, adequacy, which brings a more qualitative and discourse-oriented perspective to speech production.

1.4. ORGANIZATION OF THE DISSERTATION

For the purpose of reporting an empirical study that aimed at (a) investigating the impact of two types of strategy instruction on learners' oral planned performance; (b) examining the adoption of a discourse-oriented measure for speech analysis; and (c) establishing learners' perception on the processes they underwent, this doctoral dissertation is organized into 5 chapters, being Chapter 1 the introductory chapter.

Chapter 2 presents the theoretical background that informs this study, reviewing relevant literature on the three major constructs dealt with in this study: strategic planning, speech performance, and strategy instruction. This chapter is further divided into 3 main sections. The first section defines and introduces strategic planning, presenting the theoretical background that sustains the construct as well as empirical studies on the impact of strategic planning on speech performance. It also focuses on studies that researched the role of planning assistance. The second section discusses the use of complexity, accuracy, and fluency to assess speech performance and introduces adequacy as an additional measure to complement the assessment. And the last section defines language learning strategies and strategy instruction; in addition, it presents the theoretical and pedagogical rationale in which the constructs are grounded on as well as empirical studies which investigated the impact of strategy instruction on oral production.

Chapter 3 introduces the methodological choices adopted in this study in order to reach its objectives and answer its research questions. This chapter is subdivided into 9 main sections, which were concerned with introducing the chapter and presenting the research questions, the pilot study, the research design, the context of data collection and participant selection, the participants, the research instruments, and the procedures for data collection and analysis, respectively.

Chapter 4 presents and discusses the results of the study. It is divided into 5 main sections: the first introduces the chapter, the second and third present the results of the statistical treatments adopted to examine and analyze (i) the outcome of learners' performances and (ii) the adequacy measure, the fourth reports and analyzes qualitatively the participants' answers from the post-task questionnaires, and, finally, the fifth summarizes the results, by answering the four research questions that guided this study.

Chapter 5, finally, closes the dissertation by presenting the main findings of the study, the limitations and suggestions for future research, and the pedagogical implications. All of these topics are organized into five separate sections for organizational sake.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this review of literature is to describe and to discuss the theoretical foundations and research that ground and inform the present study. The objectives of this study were (i) to investigate the impact of two types of strategy instruction - integrated and isolated - on how to plan on overall speech performance as well as the differences between both types of instruction, (ii) to understand the implications of using a more qualitative measure to assess speech performance, and (iii) to establish students' perception on the instructional sessions and the process of planning. Thus, for the sake of organization, this review of literature is organized in two main sections, which are subsequently divided into subsections.

The first section is devoted to the construct of strategic planning and is divided into five subsections. The first subsection is dedicated to defining strategic planning as well as in explaining its complexities as a pre-task condition. In the following subsection, the theories, methods, and approaches in which the construct of strategic planning is grounded on are presented and discussed. The discussion relies on the connection of the theoretical frameworks with the concept of strategic planning and how it may affect performance. The third subsection revolves around the contribution of research in strategic planning, followed by a review of experiments, in the fourth subsection, that investigated the process of planning as well as the manipulation of the pre-task condition through instruction. Finally, in the last subsection, a brief discussion on the use of complexity, accuracy and fluency to assess speech performance is conducted along with the idea of using an additional measure to assess speech performance more qualitatively.

Finally, the second section, which is divided into three subsections, concerns the definition of language learning strategy and strategy instruction in the first two subsections, along with a review of studies that investigated the instruction of metacognitive strategies and its impact on oral production in the last subsection. The main focus of this section is to present and discuss how research and pedagogical practice through the teaching of strategies should be conducted.

2.2. STRATEGIC PLANNING: THE OPPORTUNITY TO PLAN AN ORAL TASK⁶ AS A PRE-TASK CONDITION

2.2.1 Strategic Planning: The construct, the definition, and the complexities

Within a task-based approach, providing learners with the opportunity to plan their tasks prior to the actual performance is conceived as a pre-task condition called strategic planning (Ellis, 2005). Nevertheless, defining strategic planning only as an opportunity-to-plan condition may be simplistic and structural and would omit the complexity of the cognitive and metacognitive processes learners may engage in during the pre-task phase. That being said, it is possible to state that strategic planning provides learners with more than an amount of time to plan, it provides learners with the opportunity to reflect upon the message they may deliver, the way they may deliver this message, the words they may use for this message. In fact, it “is essentially a problem solving activity; it involves deciding what linguistic devices need to be selected in order to affect the audience in the desired way” (Ellis, 2005, p. 3).

When planning an oral task, learners need to activate task-relevant information, maintain it activated and accessible until this information can be integrated to subsequent information in a coherent way; learners also need to sustain, maintain, and switch attention from the various components of the task (e.g., from meaning to form and vice-versa), suppress irrelevant L2 and L1 information, and monitor (Guará-Tavares, 2008, p. 180).

Furthermore, with the opportunity to plan, learners may also make use of strategies that may assist them in planning their speech performance such as organizing the sequence of the speech, rehearsing the speech, to cite but a few (Guará-Tavares, 2016; Ortega, 1999; 2005; Pang & Skehan, 2014; Specht & D'Ely, 2017).

⁶ Strategic planning can be administered both for written and oral tasks with the same intention of task preparation; however, as writing and speaking are different skills, the processes that guide each of them differ. Therefore, particular theoretical foundations ground the construct of strategic planning for writing and speaking. As this study deals with oral production solely, its focus shall lie on strategic planning for oral tasks exclusively.

Moreover, D'Ely (2006) draws our attention to the fact that the definition of strategic planning is not quite clear in the SLA field. She explains that "(...) research on planning has stemmed from two separate but related fields: learning strategies and task-based instruction" (p. 27). In the former, planning is conceptualized as a metacognitive strategy, which may be consciously used by learners in order to regulate their learning and language use (Cohen, 1998)⁷, while in a task-based perspective, planning is identified as a pedagogical tool, which can be made available to learners as a pre-task condition. In other words, strategies are actions taken by learners, while conditions are prerequisites of a task. During strategic planning, for instance, learners may even use planning as a metacognitive strategy along with other strategies (Guará-Tavares, 2016; Ortega, 1999; 2005; Pang & Skehan, 2014).

Structurally, the way strategic planning is manipulated, as a pre-task condition, can have variations, meaning that the opportunity for planning can be manipulated and divided into two other categories. Learners may simply be given some time to plan their tasks or they can receive some advice on how they can plan, resulting in two different types of strategic planning: unguided and guided planning, respectively⁸. Regardless of the categories, learners can plan their tasks individually, collaboratively in small groups and/or with the teacher's assistance (Ellis, 2005, p. 5), which opens more room for pedagogical intervention and research inquiry.

This possibility for pedagogical intervention and research inquiry makes the concept of strategic planning quite promising. It can be used for pedagogical and research purposes, informing both Language Pedagogy and Second Language Acquisition areas, which consequently may build an interface between them (Ellis, 2005)⁹. From a teaching perspective, strategic planning may lead learners to focus their attention on formal aspects of language within a meaning-driven context. This movement is known as focus on form (Long, 1991) and is seen as a key ingredient for acquisition to take place (Long, 1991; Schmidt, 2001). Interested in this movement, Ortega (1999) investigated whether,

⁷ At this point, my intention is to distinguish both constructs. More information concerning strategies is found in the second section of this chapter.

⁸ Undetailed and detailed planning are also terms used to refer to unguided and guided planning.

⁹ Even though there is an effort made by SLA researchers to inform LP, Ellis (1997) explains that SLA and LP are different areas with particular research agendas. That means that claims brought by SLA studies should be carefully concerned.

indeed, time for planning might lead learners to focus on form, and she was able to provide positive results regarding that. Therefore, it may be suggested that when planning, learners may also be learning.

From a theoretical perspective, strategic planning has been adopted as a construct to investigate L2 oral performance. Mostly, researchers have conducted studies in order to scrutinize the benefits of strategic planning to L2 oral performance, and the results seem to be positive. In other words, providing time for learners to plan their task causes a positive impact in their oral performance. However, there is still need for further investigation in order to understand the phenomenon as a whole and to reinforce the connections with the theories and models that strategic planning is theoretically grounded on (Skehan, 2014).

In short, it is possible to conclude from the discussion that strategic planning is not simply a time opportunity for task preparation; it is a pedagogical tool, manipulated in the form of a pre-task condition, in which learners are exposed to and may take advantage of it in order to prepare their tasks. This preparation may lead to an improvement in the task performance as well as open the opportunity for learners to focus on form. Furthermore, the task planning may lead learners to engage in cognitive and metacognitive processes. In the next subsection, I present the theoretical background in which the construct of strategic planning is based on.

2.2.2. Strategic planning and its theoretical background

The purpose of this subsection is to present and discuss the theoretical frameworks that ground the concept of strategic planning. Three of the main frameworks are presented as follows: (1) Information-Processing theories (McLaughlin & Heredia, 1996), (2) Speech models (Levelt, 1989; de Bot, 1992), and (3) Cognitive Approach to Language Learning and Performance (Skehan, 1998). Moreover, I intend to discuss how these frameworks can relate to the concept of strategic planning, in spite of their initial aims, which are to explain language learning and processing.

There are different versions of information-processing theories; nevertheless, they share similar premises. First, they claim that human beings are limited in their attentional capacities. This means that they are not able to pay attention to everything that surrounds them; therefore, the amount of information they can process is limited (Schmidt, 2001). Second, learning departs from a more controlled mode,

in which a great amount of attention is required, to a more automatic mode, in which much less attention is needed. This transitional process between controlled to automatic modes occurs as a result of practice, which is the repetitive use of the knowledge within different contexts. And third, human beings deal with information through two different processes: top-down (from their knowledge of the world and their context) and bottom-up (from linguistic signals in the input) (McLaughlin & Heredia, 1996).

These premises do not have a direct connection with strategic planning. They permeate the understanding of learning and processing that many theories and models in SLA are grounded on. Nevertheless, attention - which is the main issue within an information-processing perspective - has a central role during strategic planning and also during the performance of the planned task. If learners have limited attentional capacity, it means that having time to plan their performance may affect the way the attentional resources are put to use. In other words, strategic planning may diminish the load of attention necessary to perform the task on-line, so learners may be able to focus on other aspects of the task, to monitor and to improve their performance, consequently.

This attentional benefit that strategic planning may promote can be further understood within Levelt's Speech Model (1989). In fact, the model is the most influential theoretical framework in which studies on strategic planning are based on (Ellis, 2005, p. 11), especially if one wishes to pursue "a credible analysis of the psycholinguistic processes involved in second language speaking" (Skehan, 2014, p. 4). Even though the model deals with the speech production in L1, it has been adapted to account for second language production (de Bot, 1992), considering structures and processes that are present in L2 speech production such as the speaker's choice between which language to use, for instance. De Bot (1992) explained that his aim was to adapt Levelt's unilingual model changing it as little as possible, considering that his model was successful in explaining the whole process of speech production in L1.

Considering the model, Levelt (1989) claimed that speech production basically happens in three stages. The first stage occurs in the conceptualizer where a pre-verbal message will be produced. The speaker selects the communicative goal, selects and molds the information in order to realize the communicative purpose (macroplanning), and brings the information into perspective, making reference to what is new or already given for the interlocutor, for instance (microplanning). In the formulator - the second stage, the

speaker selects and organizes the appropriate words syntactically, in order to express the pre-verbal message that came from the conceptualizer, and, at the same time, a phonological plan is made so that speech can be overtly produced. Finally, in the articulator, the speech is produced by our articulatory system. These stages are thought to operate both through controlled (the conceptualizer) and automatic (formulator and articulator) processes, when the speaker is proficient in the language.

Considering the planning processes that occur during conceptualizing and the nature of these processes, which are controlled (i.e. they require more attention from the speaker), researchers (Bock, 1995, for instance) found out that if speakers prepare their L1 speech in advance, they may present less pauses during speech production; in other words, there is an impact on the conceptualizer. Thus, if preparation of speech can impact L1 speech production, it may play an even greater role when the L2 is being used, since knowledge of the L2 linguistic system tend to be incomplete (Poulisse, 1999).

In this sense, the planning time that learners are provided with as a pre-task condition may affect the processes that occur within the conceptualizer. It may “contribute[s] to greater message complexity and also to enhanced fluency” (Ellis, 2005, p. 14). Moreover, Levelt’s model offers a very detailed description of the processes involved in speech production, which affords the proposition of precise hypotheses on the effect of planning and speech performance (Ellis, 2005, p. 15). As the model accounts for language production only, and not for acquisition, hypotheses regarding acquisition may not be posed.

And finally, turning to the Cognitive Approach, Skehan (1998) proposes that language learning and processing occurs in two systems: an exemplar-based system (lexical items and ready-made chunks), and a rule-based system (abstract representations of language). The former relies heavily on the memory system and does not need much internal computation, consequently it does not require much control, freeing up attentional resources to other tasks, while the latter is a form-oriented system which increases the processing burdens during performance; thus, requiring more control (Morita, 2000, p. 160).

Moreover, for Skehan (1998), speech is a multifaceted skill which can be divided into three dimensions: fluency (the capacity to produce speech in real time), accuracy (the ability to perform in the target language forms), and complexity (the use of more elaborated and complex language structure). In order to produce fluent speech, the speaker shall rely more on his/her exemplar-based system, while if

he/she wants to produce more accurate and complex language, he/she shall rely more on his/her rule-based system. Regarding complexity, the learner will take more risks, whereas, in accuracy, the learner will control existing resources in order to avoid errors (Ellis, 2005, p. 15).

As learners are limited in their attention capacity and have to cope with the demands of the task they face, it is challenging to produce fluent, accurate and complex speech at the same time. Therefore, some dimensions will be prioritized at the expense of others, a hypothesis called trade-off effect. Skehan and Foster (2001) explained that when performing a task, learners attempt to focus on meaning and form, being meaning prioritized over form (VanPatten, 1990). For the authors, fluency is related to meaning, while form is related to complexity and accuracy. Thus, the attentional competition will devolve to complexity and accuracy. In this sense, if learners focus on developing the complexity of their speech performance, they will consequently take more risks, which will affect accuracy. If learners focus on not making mistakes, they will not take many risks, thus compromising complexity.

In a nutshell, as it could be seen in the discussion above, the concept of strategic planning is supported by premises from models of speech production, and the Cognitive approach to language learning which highlight the needs and benefits of giving learners the opportunity to plan their L2 speech in advance. Therefore, it is possible to state that strategic planning may assist the processes in the conceptualizer, which may lessen the burden of attention used during performance. Furthermore, strategic planning may also provide learners with the opportunity to focus on form, assisting language learning.

2.2.3. Research in Strategic Planning

Research in strategic planning has been conducted for the last two decades, which means that it is still in its infancy, and there is still much room for inquiry; nevertheless, the studies that have been conducted, so far, have brought a great amount of results and insights (Ellis, 2005). Mostly, studies on strategic planning are experimental, and their basic design consists of comparing unplanned and planned L2 speech performance, so that it is possible to examine whether strategic planning offers benefits for performance. Within this comparison paradigm, besides understanding the effect of strategic planning on speech performance, researchers also focused on different variables that also play a role on both the planning condition and the speech performance.

Foster (1996) and Foster and Skehan (1996), for instance, were interested in understanding the benefit of strategic planning in different types of tasks and task complexity. The authors used three tasks: personal information, narrative, and decision-making, which vary in complexity: from simpler to more complex, respectively. The task complexity depends on the structure of the task, the content familiarity, and also how cognitively demanding the task is. Foster and Skehan (1996, p. 317) claimed that the more simple, familiar, and non-cognitive demanding a task is, the less necessary strategic planning is. In other words, students may not take advantage of the pre-task condition if the task is too simple. Gavin (2014), on the other hand, investigated the role of topic familiarity, and how it influences the strategic planning condition and the speech performance. His results showed that topic familiarity has an important role on the effect strategic planning may have in speech performance. Table 1 summarizes the aforementioned studies.

Table 1

Studies with the focus on types of tasks, task complexity, and topic familiarity

Study	Method	Main results
Foster (1996)	Three types of tasks that varied in their level of complexity, respectively: 1) Personal information 2) Narrative 3) Decision Making	a) Planners in general produced more fluent and complex speech; b) Unguided planners produced more accurate speech in the personal information and decision making tasks.
Foster & Skehan (1996)	As in Foster (1996)	As in Foster (1996); a) The existence of trade-offs; b) Planning may not be necessary for less complex tasks.
Gavin (2014)	Two groups of planners 1) Familiar topic 2) Unfamiliar Topic	a) Planners from the familiar group produced more fluent speech; b) Planner and Non-planners from familiar groups produced more accurate speech; c) Planners in general produced more complex speech.

The length of planning time is another variable tackled and was firstly investigated by Wigglesworth (1997) and Mehnert (1998). In general, studies provide students with 10 or more minutes for planning their tasks in classroom and laboratory situations; however, Wigglesworth claimed that a testing situation requires a different amount of time and that no more than 2 minutes of planning time should normally be provided. Thus, she investigated the effect of 1 minute planning on a speech test, and positive impact on overall speech performance was found. Mehnert, on the other hand, went further and attempted to understand the effect of three different amounts of time available for planning: 1, 5, and 10 minutes. Overall, the results showed that any amount of planning time produces an impact on the speech performance. Table 2 summarizes the aforementioned studies.

Table 2
Studies with the focus on length of planning time

Study	Method	Main results
Wigglesworth (1997)	Participants were divided into 5 groups. Each group performed a task, which varied in levels of complexity. They had 1 minute to plan the tasks.	a) Participants in general produced more fluent, complex and accurate speech. b) The results were stronger in groups that performed the high complex tasks.
Mehnert (1998)	Participants were distributed into 4 groups: 1) 1 min planning 2) 5 min planning 3) 10 min planning 4) No planning	a) All planners produced more fluent speech; b) No group produced more complex speech; c) Planners from the 1 min group produced more accurate speech.

Even though the great part of the studies on strategic planning had subjects with intermediate proficiency levels, researchers were also interested in manipulating level of proficiency as a variable and investigating its role. Wigglesworth's (1997) participants were students with high and low proficiency levels, Ortega (1999) had participants with an advanced level of proficiency, and Kawauchi's (2005)

participants had low- and high-intermediate and advanced level of proficiency. The effect of the level of proficiency has mixed results. Kawauchi's results showed that the participants with the highest level of proficiency seem to produce more fluent and complex performance, while the ones with the lowest level of proficiency seems to benefit from strategic planning in terms of accuracy. These results do not corroborate Wigglesworth's and Ortega's results, which showed that advanced learners may present more accurate speech performance if they are provided time to plan their performance. Table 3 summarizes the aforementioned studies.

Table 3
Studies with the focus on levels of proficiency

Study	Method	Main results
Wigglesworth (1997)	Participants were divided into high and low proficiency groups and had 1 minute to plan their tasks.	a) Participants in general produced more fluent, complex, and accurate speech. b) Groups with higher proficiency performed better.
Ortega (1999)	Participants with advanced level of proficiency had ten minutes to plan their tasks.	a) Planners produced more fluent, complex and accurate speech.
Kawauchi (2005)	Two groups of participants: high intermediate and advanced had ten minutes to perform a task. For each task, participants had one different type of planning guidance.	a) Advanced planners produced more fluent and complex speech; b) High intermediate planners produced more accurate speech.

The effect of strategic planning may also be influenced by the way strategic planning is manipulated in terms of planning guidance: types of guided planning. In general, the guided planning groups are those who are given some metacognitive advice on what to plan (Foster 1996; Foster & Skehan, 1996). However, this metacognitive advice may be manipulated in order to understand the impact of guiding learners'

attention to plan specific points. For instance, participants are given directions on some specific aspects of planning such as form and meaning (Sangarun, 2005), or on specific activities such as writing, rehearsal, and reading (Kawauchi, 2005). Sangarun, for instance, reported that asking students to focus on both focus and meaning promotes “(1) an optimal balance of attention between the planning of meaning and the planning of form; (2) the implementation of strategic plans; and (3) a balanced quality of speech” (p. 131, 132). However, in general, studies did not show major differences between guided and unguided planning and different types of guidance. Table 4 summarizes the aforementioned studies.

Table 4
Studies with the focus on types of planning guidance

Study	Method	Main results
Foster (1996)	Participants were distributed into two groups: 1) Guided planners 2) Unguided planners The guided group received metacognitive advice on how to use the planning time.	a) No major differences were found between the two types of planning; b) Unguided planners produced more accurate speech in two tasks.
Foster & Skehan (1996)	As in Foster (1996)	As in Foster (1996)
Sangarun (2005)	Participants were divided into three different groups: 1) Focus on form 2) Focus on meaning 3) Focus on form/meaning	a) Planners in general produced more fluent, complex and accurate speech; b) No major different among the groups. c) Planners tended to focus on meaning regardless the type of planning.
Kawauchi (2005)	Participants were divided into three different groups: 1) Writing 2) Reading 3) Rehearsal Each group was instructed to focus on one strategy.	a) No difference found in the effect of the three planning activities.

In sum, all of these studies have brought evidence of the effect of strategic planning on speech performance, and how variables such as type of task, task complexity, length of planning time, level of proficiency, and planning guidance also play a role in it. Nevertheless, Ellis (2009) points out that “[t]he issue in such studies is what students actually do when they are asked to plan, but this has been rarely investigated” (p. 492). Researchers have made an effort to guarantee that learners would plan their tasks by giving them paper sheets to be used as draft during planning time and also by instructing them on what to plan, but they did not examine (or at least they did not report) whether students really plan their tasks, or whether they knew how to plan.

In fact, this non-planning and planning comparison paradigm has its limitations, since its primary focus is on the product of strategic planning. Thus, the process of planning or what students actually do while they are planning and its implications for the final performance is not carefully investigated. Taking into account the methodological limitation, researchers have turned their eyes to the process of planning and have incorporated instruments in their experiments in order to scrutinize the process itself. This movement has brought insightful results on the understanding of strategic planning, and it also assisted in the interpretation of the product-oriented results.

The first researcher to take a more process-oriented stance toward research in strategic planning was Ortega (1999). In her study, besides examining the impact of strategic planning on overall speech performance, the author investigated what learners actually did during the planning time. In order to access that, Ortega used retrospective interviews, which were conducted right after the students performed the task. Doing that, the researcher was able to identify the strategies students used during the planning time. Guara-Tavares (2008) also investigated the strategies students engaged in during planning time within a Brazilian context. The strategies presented by the researcher corroborated the strategies presented by Ortega (1999; 2005), except for the use of translation, which was a strategy reported only by Ortega’s participants. However, such fact is justified by the fact that Ortega’s participants listened to the story in their first language before planning it. Moreover, Guara-Tavares is the only researchers that investigated the role of working memory capacity, which is an individual difference that interferes in the planning time. More recently, Pang and Skehan (2014) conducted a similar study. Besides investigating what learners did during planning time through retrospective interviews, they also

compared students' speech performance with the strategies¹⁰ students reported, so that they could identify which strategies are related to higher and lower performance.

An alternative for assessing what learners do during planning time could also be the use of online protocols, which is an instrument very common in the language learning strategy studies. It consists of students reporting out loud what they are doing while planning; however, Ortega (1999) pointed out that it is an intrusive instrument, which could interfere during the planning time. Students would not have their complete attentional resources focused on the planning time, because part of it would be being used for reporting purposes.

Post-task questionnaires as used in D'Ely (2006; 2011) and Specht (2014) are also a possible instrument. Students are given a questionnaire, right after they perform a task, with questions intended to assess what they did during the planning time. This instrument, though, is not as effective as the online protocol and retrospective interviews, because students do not have a direct contact with the interviewer, who could ask questions if some answer was unclear. Nevertheless, it is a valid instrument, especially if the main study's goal is not to assess what learners do during performance, but to be sure they used the planning time and also to assist in explaining the results. D'Ely (2006), for instance, used post-task questionnaires and she was able to identify that some learners did not know how to plan properly and effectively, be it because of the lack of familiarity with the planning time, or because they did not use effective strategies during the planning time.

Unlike planning - metacognitive strategy that students may consciously use to improve their learning and performance (Cohen, 1998; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990), strategic planning is a condition made available for the students. It encompasses the idea that learners can take advantage of that moment to make their speech performance better (D'Ely, 2006, p. 32); but it does not mean they will, if they do not know how to do it. Considering that strategic planning is a construct from task-based approach, which is used in teaching and also in research, pedagogical intervention on assisting learners in how to plan could be a solution (Mehnert, 1998; Pang & Skehan, 2014).

Considering that limitation, Specht (2014) investigated whether instructing students on how to plan could cause an impact on what

¹⁰ Pang and Skehan (2014) did not follow a strategy framework to code the actions learners took during planning time; therefore they did not use the term 'strategy'. Nevertheless, I opted to maintain the term, since I believe that 'strategy' can be also used in a more general sense.

happens during the planning time and also oral accurate performance. Based on the strategies most reported by Ortega (1999; 2005) and Guar-Tavares (2008) and a framework developed within the strategy instruction field (Oxford, 1990), Specht designed a four-week course in order to teach students the strategies they could use during planning. The study could not bring statistical significant evidence on the impact of strategy instruction on speech performance at the level of accuracy. Nevertheless, from the post-task questionnaires, it was possible to see that the instructional sessions were able to make students aware of the strategies they could use and also evaluate the strategies they were using.

In conclusion, studies on strategic planning have brought positive evidence regarding the benefit of the pre-task condition on the improvement of speech production in terms of complexity, accuracy, and fluency. These benefits may be seen regardless the type of task, amount of time available for planning, and level of proficiency, among others. Nevertheless, results are not always consistent regarding the speech dimensions affected, which means that more studies should be conducted in order to have a further understanding of the phenomenon. Moreover, by looking at studies which also attended to the process of planning; it was possible to identify the processes students engaged in while planning as well as the strategies they used. Also, by comparing the strategies students used with their speech performance, it was possible to scrutinize the strategies students who had a more enhanced performance used. These results lead to believe that the instruction may play a role in optimizing the strategic planning condition. In the next subsection, studies that dealt with planning assistance are reviewed.

2.2.4. Studies on strategic planning: a focus on providing assistance for planning a task

Regardless the focus of the study be the product or the process of strategic planning, the idea of optimizing the planning time by providing some type of assistance is not unusual in the area. As a matter of fact, the core idea of guided planning, for instance, revolves around the concept of instruction. The difference resides on the intensity of instructional treatment and its objective. In Foster & Skehan (1996), the objective was to understand the difference between guided and unguided planning. Foster and Skehan (1999) introduced the idea of teacher-led planning, in which the teacher has a role in the process of planning. Sangarun (2005), on the other hand, aimed at understanding whether

offering instruction which focused on form, meaning or both would cause a different impact on learners' performance. Kauwachi (2005) investigated the use of different activities while planning: reading, writing and listening. D'Ely (2011) emphasized the role of the teacher in leading learners for planning purposes. And, finally, in Specht and D'Ely (2017), the objective was to teach learners how to use planning time more efficiently. In order to have a clearer panorama of the aforementioned studies, the objective of this subsection is to review the six of them.

Foster and Skehan (1996) investigated the effect of three different tasks (personal information exchange, narrative, and decision making) and three different planning conditions (no planning, unguided planning, and guided planning) in learners' oral performance. In order to do so, 32 pre-intermediate students with varied L1 backgrounds were equally assigned to one of the three groups and performed the three tasks in a period of 3 weeks. Both the guided and the unguided groups received 10 minutes to prepare their tasks; however, the former, in addition, received some guidance on how to plan concerning "(...) the syntax, lexis, content, and organization of what they would say (p. 307)". The non-planning group had to perform the task right away, without any planning time. The groups' performances were assessed in terms of fluency (reformulation, replacement, false starts, repetitions, hesitations, pauses, and total silence), complexity (clauses/c-units, syntactic variety), and accuracy (error-free clauses).

Results show that planners in general produced more fluent, complex and accurate speech compared to non-planners. Differences between the guided and unguided groups were also found. The guided group was more fluent in the narrative task compared to the unguided group. The guided group produced more complex language in all tasks compared to the unguided group. The unguided group produced more accurate language in the personal task compared to both the guided and non-planning group. Interestingly, no difference regarding accuracy was found between planners and non-planners and the two types of planners in the narrative task. These differences indicated that planning itself improved general speech performance compared to non-planning, and that providing learners with some guidance increased even more this improvement at the level of fluency and complexity. The null impact on accuracy suggests a trade-off effect between complexity and accuracy, as Foster and Skehan explained.

Foster and Skehan (1999) investigated the influence of different types of planning (teacher-led, group, and solitary) and the source of

planning (meaning, and form) in order to understand which one produced more impact on speech performance. Sixty-six intermediate participants from different L1 backgrounds made part of the study and were divided into 6 groups: non-planning, solitary planning, group planning (one meaning-oriented and one form-oriented) and teacher-led (one meaning-oriented and one form-oriented). All the groups performed a decision making task. The non-planning group had to perform the task without any planning time; the solitary planning was given 10 minutes to plan; the group planning's were also given 10 minutes to plan but they were instructed to focus on meaning or on form, depending on the group they were placed. The teacher-led planning received explicit teaching on modal verbs (the form group) and was asked to write down the content of the story (the meaning group). The groups' performance was assessed in terms of complexity (index of subordination), accuracy (error-free clauses), and fluency (reformulations, false starts, repetitions, replacements, pauses, and total silence).

Results show that the teacher-led group produced a more balanced performance with a great impact on accuracy. The solitary group produced more fluent and complex language. And the collaborative group produced less fluent speech. No differences were found concerning the difference between the sources of planning, meaning that directing learners' attention to focus on form or meaning does not cause any significant difference in performance. In general, considering the strongest effects of teacher-led planning, the results may indicate that the role of the teacher may optimize planning time, leading learners to produce more accurate language. Foster and Skehan explained that the teacher can "channel attention and (...) ensure that the language used in the task makes a pedagogic contribution" (p. 238).

Sangarun (2005) conducted a study whose main aim was to investigate whether manipulating learners' attention to focus on form, meaning, or form/meaning would produce different impacts on speech performance. He had 40 Thai intermediate participants who were equally divided into four groups: non-planning, form planning, meaning planning, and form/meaning planning. All groups performed 2 tasks: instruction and argumentative. The non-planning group did not have any planning time; while the other groups received 15 minutes to plan their tasks. Prior to the task performance, the experimental groups received individual 15-minute training sessions with the researcher, focusing on what they should plan. Table 5 presents the content of the training sessions for each group. The performances of the tasks were assessed in

terms of accuracy (error-free clauses, errors per 100 words), complexity (sentences nodes, numbers of clauses), and fluency (pruned and unpruned speech rate, and pauses). In addition, Sangarun also recorded participants planning time, using thinking aloud protocol in order to examine whether they plan according to the instructions they received.

Table 5

Instructions used to guide participants' focus while planning

Focus on meaning	The participants were reminded to consider the kind of the information they need for the speech, and to shape the information according to the appropriate discourse structure.
Focus on form	The participants were reminded to plan vocabulary and grammar, to select sufficient vocabulary, to focus on the grammatical structures, to provide the participants with grammatical information about structures that are important for the speech, and to write down the main part of the grammatical structure.
Focus on meaning/form	The participants received the instructions from the meaning and form groups; however, they were guided to plan the meaning before they plan form.

Source: Specht (2014, p. 15) adapted from Sangarun (2005, pp. 119-121)

Results showed that regardless the type of planning, all the experimental groups focused on meaning. In relation to impact on performance, there was an overall improvement in terms of fluency, complexity and accuracy for the experimental groups; however no difference was found between the group pairs. Sangarun, though, explained that even though there was no difference among the groups, it was possible to see that the meaning/form group was a more balanced condition, because they were able to convey clear information and organization. "Strategic planning directed at combined meaning/form

appears to be relatively more effective than planning that is focused separately on meaning or form” (p. 129).

Kawauchi (2005) investigated the effect of three different types of pre-task activities (rehearsal, writing, and reading) on low and high intermediate learners’ speech performance. These pre-task activities were chosen because they were the strategies most learners reported using during planning time. Participants were Japanese learners with three different levels of proficiency: 16 low-intermediate, 12 high-intermediate, and 11 advanced. All the participants performed three cycles of narrative tasks. Each cycle consisted in performing the same task under both non-planning and then planning conditions. In addition, each cycle accounted for a type of pre-activity planning. Participants also replied to a questionnaire right after planning each task in order to report information related to the planning time. The outcomes of the tasks were assessed in terms of fluency (rate of speech and repetitions), complexity (clauses per T-unit, T-unit length, subordinate clauses, and word type), and accuracy (past tense marker).

Results showed that, in general, strategic planning had an impact on fluency, complexity, and accuracy in the three levels of proficiency. According to Kawauchi (2005), the group that benefited the most was the high intermediate one, since they were able to produce more complex language and to perform the tasks as fluently as the advanced group under the planning condition. The low intermediate group, on the other hand, produced more accurate outcomes, while the advanced group seemed to have benefited much less than the other two groups. Regarding the type of pre-task activity used for planning purposes, no difference was found among the three activities related to speech performance. Nevertheless, it seemed that participants that engaged in the reading planning used more embellished words that were presented in the reading they were exposed to, while the same was not seen in the writing and rehearsing groups.

D’Ely (2011) investigated the role of teacher-led planning and task familiarity with the planning condition and the impact it may have in the performance of focused and unfocused tasks. The study was conducted within a classroom environment with 10 Brazilian participants with high intermediate proficiency. Each participant performed two narrative tasks: a picture-cued focused task and a video-based unfocused task. Prior to each task performance, during the lessons, participants received instruction on conditional in the past for the focused task and on overall structure of narrative and specific type of vocabulary for the unfocused task. Moreover, participants had 10

minutes to plan their tasks prior to the task performance. Participants also replied to a post-task questionnaire after the performance of each task. The tasks' outcomes were assessed in terms of fluency (speech rate unpruned), complexity (subordination), and accuracy (errors per c-units).

The results of the comparisons of both tasks' performances did not show any significant differences in terms of fluency and complexity; however significance was approached for accuracy, which suggested that teacher-led planning and task familiarity may have led participants to produce more accurate language. Nevertheless, the author explained that this improvement may be due to the task nature and not necessarily to the teacher-led planning and/or task familiarity. Moreover, results regarding participants' perception on the processes they engaged in showed that planning assisted in conceptualizing the message and task familiarity assisted in diminishing the burden of performance online and also in planning the tasks. Mixed results were found regarding the positive effect of teacher-led planning. Some participants claimed that they had problems in recalling the vocabulary they learned in class, some participants did not mention the sessions at all, and others considered the sessions important.

Finally, Specht (2014) investigated the impact strategy instruction on how to plan has on Brazilian *Letras* students' accurate planned performance. For that, six intermediate participants produced three different narrative tasks under three different conditions: non-planning, planning, and planning after instruction. For both planning conditions participants had 10 minutes to plan their tasks. Participants also received, after the performance of the second task, 4 weeks of instructional sessions, in which they were presented to and practiced the strategies (see strategies and their conceptualizations in Table 6) they could use during planning time. Moreover, right after the performance of each task, participants answered a post-task questionnaire to leave their impression on the process as a whole. The outcome of the three tasks was assessed in terms of accuracy: error-free clauses.

Table 6
Strategies and their conceptualizations

Lexical Search	It “consists in searching words related to the theme or semantic net that can be likely used in the oral performance (Specht, 2014, p. 31)”.
Elaboration	It “consists in improving one’s performance by relating new information to prior knowledge, by making meaningful personal associations with the new information, and by attempting to improve and/or embellish performance.” (Guará-Tavares, 2008, p. 66)
Organizational planning	It “concerns the planning of parts, sequence, and main ideas to be expressed” (Guará-Tavares, 2008, p. 64).
Monitoring	“checking one’s comprehension during listening or reading or checking accuracy and/or appropriateness of one’s oral or written production while it is taking place (Specht, 2014, p. 32)”.
Rehearsal	It “concerned with practicing the language to be used. You can do it by reading what you planned or by practicing the narrative mentally (Specht, 2014, p. 32)”.
Writing/outlining/summarizing	“The three strategies are related to any kind of written production you can use during the planning time (Specht, 2014, p. 32)”.
Paraphrasing	“the use of alternative expressions with similar meanings to replace those that the speaker does not know or cannot think of” (Lam, 2006, p. 145)

Source: Table adapted from Specht (2014)

Results did not show any significant comparison between the pairwise tasks; however, significance was approached in comparing Tasks 2 and 3, which may indicate a reduction of errors produced by participants and, as a consequence, it suggests an impact of the strategy instruction. A greater impact was noticed through participants' answers in the post-task questionnaires. All participants recognized the benefits of planning and the instructional sessions. In general, participants reported relying on writing the entire story when they had the opportunity to plan prior to the instructional sessions, and they noticed this was not a positive strategy and tried new strategies when planning Task 3.

Shortly, through the review of these studies, it is possible to observe that instruction on how to plan has been operationalized in different manners, such as guided planning, teacher-led planning, and strategy teaching. Nonetheless, the results of the studies show that providing learners with some type of instruction in order to enhance the strategic planning condition seems to have a positive impact on learners' speech performance when compared to a non-planning condition and/or to a planning condition without any assistance. Instruction, in general, seems to lead learners to use the planning time more strategically. Next, a brief discussion on the use of complexity, accuracy, and fluency (also referred to as CAF measures) is held, followed by the suggestion of a more discourse-oriented measure to complement the assessment of speech performance.

2.3. MEASURING SPEECH PERFORMANCE: IS CAF ENOUGH?

The exclusive use of complexity, accuracy and fluency measures to assess speech performance has been discussed and criticized by researchers (Housen & Kuiken, 2009; Larsen-Freeman, 2009; Norris & Ortega, 2009; Pallotti, 2009; Skehan, 2009), who have questioned whether these three dimensions may indeed measure speaking properly. Bearing that in mind, this subsection aims at presenting a brief problematization of the sole employment of complexity, accuracy and fluency measures to assess speech performance in studies within a task-based perspective. Moreover, this subsection also intends to suggest the inclusion of an additional measure: adequacy, proposed by Pallotti (2009), in order to grasp more qualitative aspects of speech performance. Subsequently, two studies that explored the implications of adequacy as an extra dimension and its relation to CAF are reviewed.

Even though measures that assess complexity, accuracy and fluency in task-based studies have proven to be useful measures of second language performance, according to Skehan (2009), it is undeniable that

(...) the sole use of CAF indices to assess task-based performance is in contrast to the practices of the teaching and testing fields, where the extent to which classroom learners or test-takers have the abilities to function successfully in real-life settings has been given considerable weight (Révész, Ekiert & Torgersen, p. 830).

Nevertheless, this incongruity does not seem to be the most important issue, which may be partly explained by the fact that tasks used in research and in classrooms are different due to a more controlled nature required by research (Foster, 2009). The most problematic issue relies on the fact that the exclusive use of CAF measures may not be sufficient to estimate a successful performance (De Jong et al., 2012). Pallotti (2009) explains that a performance may be fluent, complex and accurate, but it may not be communicatively adequate. He demonstrates this incoherence through the following example:

If in an information gap task a learner were to utter unhesitatingly *colorless green ideas sleep furiously on the justification where phonemes like to plead vessels for diminishing our temperature*, her production would score extremely high on CAF, in spite of being completely irrelevant, and probably counterproductive, for task success. In contrast, an utterance such as *No put green thing near bottle. Put under table* is neither complex nor accurate, and may not be fluent either, but can turn out to be perfectly functional for achieving the speaker's (and the task's) intended communicative goal (p. 596).

Based on that, Pallotti (2009) proposed the inclusion of a new dimension: adequacy, which may be employed along CAF measures as an extra speech dimension or as a way to interpret CAF measures themselves. Regarding the former, Pallotti suggests the use of qualitative rating forms, in which raters would evaluate the performance through predefined descriptor scales. As an interpreter of CAF

measures, adequacy could be used to examine whether the measures adopted in fact reflect their real purposes within a communicative plan.

Even timidly, some studies on adequacy have been conducted, in the attempt to investigate its relation to other speech dimensions; that is, to what extent adequacy may interact with CAF measures. Iwashita et al. (2008), for instance, found that speech rate had a strong impact on speaking proficiency – the measure they used for adequacy –, while grammatical accuracy and unfilled pauses had a moderate effect. Kuiken et al (2010), unlike Iwashita et al. (2008), assessed adequacy through a six-point scale, which measured the writer's ability to fulfill the communicative goal of the task and the impact of the resultant text on the reader. The authors found a correlation between adequacy and syntactical complexity, but no correlation was found with accuracy.

In an attempt to extend Kuiken et al.'s study to oral production, Révész, Ekiert and Torgersen (2016) examined the relationship between adequacy and CAF measures. In addition, they also investigated this relationship considering the level of proficiency and task types. For that, they had 100 participants (80 ESL learners divided equally in four proficiency groups: low intermediate, intermediate, low advanced and advanced, and 20 native speakers). Each participant performed 5 tasks, resulting in a total of 500 performances. The 5 tasks involved: (1) a complaint, (2) a refusal, (3) a narrative, (4) advice, and (5) a summary. Adequacy was assessed by 20 raters (10 PhD students and 10 native speakers). Each of them evaluated 50 performances based on a rating scale, which contained information related to message delivery and specific points related to the nature of each task.

Regarding CAF measures, popular ones were adopted, such as index of subordination, number of words, errors per 100 words, frequency of self-repair, to cite but a few. The results showed that breakdown fluency measures were the strongest predictors of adequacy; while the other measures had a small effect. The results also showed that a lower incidence of false starts was related to higher adequacy for the advanced participants. In addition, no significant interaction was found among the different types of tasks.

No study on strategic planning that employed adequacy as an independent variable, at the best of my knowledge, was found, which indicates a gap within the research field. Although it is not possible to prove whether or not CAF measures employed in strategic planning studies lack a measure as adequacy without any further examination, it would be interesting to investigate the use of adequacy along with CAF

measures in order to understand its implications. Next, I present a section on strategy instruction.

2.3. STRATEGY INSTRUCTION

The field of Strategy Instruction is mostly concerned with the idea of teaching learners strategies that they may use in their favor in order to learn and to use a L2 language. In this study, though, this focus will be limited, inasmuch as, by centering my analysis on the issue of production, the processes of learning shall not be put in the spotlight. More specifically, the use of strategy instruction, in this study, is inclined to be adopted as a methodological choice, which aims at (i) assisting learners in taking advantage of the use of a pre-task condition and also (ii) building a stronger interface with Language Pedagogy. Nevertheless, this movement has only been made by one study (Specht, 2014), within a task-based perspective, at least to the best of my knowledge. Therefore, it would be useful to explore the field of strategy instruction in order to scrutinize its role and benefits and also to use it for analytical purposes. Bearing that in mind, the purpose of this section is to examine research on strategy instruction which dealt with speech production as well as present and discuss definitions and concepts in the field.

2.3.1. Strategy: Defining the term

In general terms, strategies¹¹, within a language learning perspective, are actions that learners apply to study, learn and use an additional language. When informally questioned about the strategies they use, people can cite a variety of them such as: making lists of vocabularies; route rehearsing words in order to memorize them; trying to speak regardless the fear of making errors, among many others. Nevertheless, when approaching strategies through a theoretical perspective, the scenario does not seem to be as straightforward as the everyday scenario. The literature presents the concept and studies on strategies as problematic, mainly due to the lack of consensus when defining the construct (Dörnyei, 2005). Even though a range of definitions are provided by different authors (Cohen, 1998; Oxford,

¹¹ In this study, the terms ‘strategy’, ‘learning strategies’, and ‘language learning strategies’ are used interchangeably.

1999, for instance), Ellis (as cited in Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003) explains that the definitions “(...) have tended to be *ad hoc* and atheoretical”.

Rubin (1975), for instance, defines language learning strategies as “the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge” (p. p. 43). Wenden (1987), on the other hand, claims that language learning strategies “[refer] to language learning behaviors learners actually engage in to learn and regulate the learning of a second language” (p. 6), and Oxford (1989) complements and states that language learning strategies are “behaviors and actions which learners use to make language learning more successful, self-directed, and enjoyable” (p. 235). All of them seem to agree that language learning strategies facilitate the learning process; however, they do not agree whether a strategy is a technique, a device, a behavior, or an action, and this terminology disagreement may cause confusion in distinguishing strategies from other learners’ characteristics such as learning styles as well as in understanding the cognitive nature of the construct (Dörnyei, 2005). In order to solve this problem, Griffiths (2013) identifies, in the literature, six main features in the definitions of strategies and proposes examining them in order to deliver a clearer cut definition.

The first feature is the idea of strategy being an **activity**, in the sense that strategies are actions made by learners and not part of them as a characteristic, even though they can be driven by individual characteristics, such as learning styles. The strategies used by visual learners, for instance, shall more likely be strategies related to vision, while aural learners will probably use strategies related to listening. The second feature is related to the idea that strategy use is **conscious**, and that is what distinguishes strategies from other processes (Cohen, 1998, p. 4). The level of consciousness, though, may vary depending on the strategies learners are using, that is, more automatic strategies require less attention compared to more controlled strategies. The idea of **choice** is the third feature. Learners have an active role in their learning and studying, so they may choose the strategies they use, being impossible, for instance, to force a learner to use a strategy. Nevertheless, this choice can vary, depending on individual variables, such as motivation, age, and beliefs.

The fourth feature is the idea that strategies are **goal-oriented**, that is, they will be used according to the goals of a task or a situation. The fifth and the sixth features are the ideas of **regulation** and **learning focus**. These two concepts are related to the fact that learners use strategies to regulate (or control) their own learning. Covering these six features, Griffiths (2013) defines language learning strategies as “(...)

activities consciously chosen by learners for the purpose of regulating their own language learning” (p. 15). Notwithstanding its careful developed definition, Griffiths only focuses on the process of learning and does not mention language use¹². Dörnyie (2005) explains that even though we cannot equate use with learning, it is undeniable that language use may lead to learning. Ortega (1999; 2005) and Guarátavares (2006; 2016) pointed out a list of strategies learners used for planning the performance of an oral task. No reference was made in relation to language learning, though, which reinforces the idea that we can understand learning and use individually. Considering that, for the purpose of this study, I shall use an extended version of Griffiths’ definition, who considers strategies “(...) activities consciously chosen by learners for the purpose of regulating their own language learning **and use**”.

Depending on the purpose of a strategy it can be divided into: cognitive strategies; affective strategies; sociocultural-interactive strategies, and metastrategies (Oxford, 2011). Cognitive strategies are those related to learning itself. *Repeating a word you do not know in order to ‘learn’ it* may be considered a cognitive strategy, for instance. Affective strategies are related to students’ feelings and how they deal with them: *trying to relax, talking about your feeling*. Sociocultural-interactive strategies involve learning through the interaction with others, such as *asking for help* and *talking to a classmate*. Finally, metastrategies are the strategies that learners are aware of and know that their use may be beneficial in specific situations, for example: *planning our learning, organizing materials*, among others.

Studies on the area are highly interested in the metastrategies, more specifically the metacognitive ones. It is believed that students who reflect upon their own learning process may be more active in the process and therefore learn more (Griffiths, 2013). This self-reflection may depart from learners or they can also be driven by teachers in an instructional setting, which makes the idea of strategy instruction quite appealing. In the next subsection, I present and discuss the concept of strategy instruction further.

2.3.2. Strategy Instruction: A Pedagogical and Theoretical Construct

¹² Following a different path, communicative strategies are concerned with the online use of language. That is, strategies that may assist someone in communicating a message on-line. In this study, strategies related to language use are those students may employ to prepare a specific task.

The idea of teaching learners strategies that may enhance their language learning and use emerged from studies that examined the strategies unsuccessful learners used while studying. They found out that those learners were not aware of the strategies they used and they relied on few non-communicative strategies such as translation and repetition (Murphy, 2008, p. 304). Based on that, it was justified that teaching these learners strategies successful learners used should be part of language programs. From that time on, research has invested their attention on investigating the effectiveness of strategy instruction and also on creating a range of materials for training purposes.

Regarding a pedagogical perspective, language learning strategies may assist in the learning process, and teaching them is feasible and also advisable, especially considering a cognitive perspective, which sees learners as responsible for their own learning process (Griffiths, 2013). However, when it comes to research, the learnability and teachability of strategies are not so straightforward in practice. Griffiths (2013) explains that there are not many studies on strategy instruction itself. In fact, the total of studies that consider the instruction of strategies constitutes only 10% of studies on language learning strategies in general. A number of 25 controlled experiments were identified by Hassan et al (2005) in a systematic review of strategy instruction studies they conducted. Considering that the field of research has approximately four decades, this number is quite small. Moreover, the studies cover different areas of language: speaking, reading, listening, overall language ability, and vocabulary. Such variety decreases, even more, the number of studies if one wishes to focus on studies that investigated the impact of strategy instruction on speech production, for instance.

In fact, Ellis (2008) emphasizes that although there is a range of materials developed to train students to use effective language learning strategies, there is not much research which attempted to scrutinize the success of this training. Moreover, the few studies on the areas present mixed results, meaning that part of them asserts that strategy instruction may be effective, while others do not have positive results. From the 25 studies reviewed by Hassan et al (2005), 17 brought positive results, 6 presented mixed results, “such as reporting a positive finding for one outcome and a negative outcome for another” (p. 4), and 2 studies showed negative results.

Some researchers have even made strong criticisms on the efficiency of teaching strategies. Kellerman (1991), for instance, claimed that teaching learners strategies on how to deal with vocabulary

gaps in L2 is pointless, since they already deal with that in their L1. Learners transfer the strategies they use from the L1 to the L2. Moreover, for Kellerman, if students do not know how to use a strategy, it is due to their lack of proficiency in L2. Notwithstanding the criticism, Kellerman is one of few who advocate against strategy instruction. Many researchers and teachers believe that strategy instruction is very promising. Plonsky (2011), in his meta-analysis, was able to report moderate size effects for the impact of strategy instruction and he claims that “this finding reinforces the greatest gains result from SI when learners are allowed to develop their use of strategies over time” (p. 1015). This suggests that learners may benefit from strategy instruction.

Griffiths (2013) explains that when conducting strategy instruction, both for pedagogical or research purposes, some factors should be taken into account. Considering how to teach, some conditions should be met. First, students should be aware about the strategies options they have, because in this way, students may be able to make informed choices regarding their learning. Also, students should be asked to reflect upon the strategies they already use and prefer (Ellis, 2008). By doing this, Specht (2014) was able to show that a student that reported using a specific strategy before the instructional sessions acknowledged that the instruction assisted him in enhancing the use of this strategy, which was a strategy he used preferably. A downside, though, according to O’Malley and Chamot (1990), is that some learners may not find strategy training necessary, and generally the learners that need strategies instruction the most are those who reject it.

Practice is another factor to be considered and is seen as an important ingredient in strategy instructional sessions (Griffiths, 2013). It is by practicing that students may try the strategies that were taught and see whether they find them necessary and helpful. If they do, they may start using them. The process of strategy learning through practice is grounded on a processing-information perspective; therefore, at first, this use would be more controlled and require more attentional resources, but with practice the use may become automatic (Oxford, 2011).

Another factor is the form in which the strategy instruction will be approached. There is the possibility of conducting strategy instruction both implicitly and explicitly. If it is explicit, students should be aware that they are learning the strategies, and if it is implicit, the strategy instruction should be embedded into the regular classroom activities. Griffiths (2013) explains that students should be provided with both types of instruction; however, in relation to the effectiveness of each

type, there is not much empirical evidence in relation to which one would be more beneficial for learning and/or performance improvement. Nevertheless, considering that students that make use of metacognitive strategies seem to be more strategic, it would be expected that the more students are aware of the strategies they use, the more strategic they may be (Oxford, 2011).

A final factor to be considered is whether the strategy instruction will be taught separately from or integrated in the language lessons. In the former, entire lessons are designed for strategy teaching, while in the latter, strategy teaching will be inserted in parts of the lesson when necessary. The choice for one type or another depends on the goal of the instruction. Usually, when a specific goal that depends on a set of strategies wants to be reached, separate strategy lessons are designed. Nevertheless, considering research purpose and instruction efficiency, Ellis (2008, p. 557) explained that there is not much evidence whether strategy training should be taught separately or integrated in the language lessons.

Those in favor of isolated strategy instruction explain that “learners benefit more from the training and acquire the knowledge about strategies much faster than in the case of integrated instruction” (Trendak, 2015, p. 97). On the other hand, advocates of the integrated strategy instruction claim that “learning in context is more effective than learning separate skills whose immediate applicability may not be evident to the learner and that practising strategies on authentic academic language tasks facilitates the transfer of strategies to similar tasks encountered on other classes” (Trendak, 2015, p. 97). Regardless of the type of instruction, though, Oxford (2011) is able to provide positive evidence from programs and studies that have been developed both with isolated and integrated strategy instruction.

Considering all these factors, it is possible to highlight that the main aims of strategy instruction are to

to raise the learners’ awareness about learning strategies and model strategies overly along with the task; to encourage strategy use and give a rationale for it; to offer a wide menu of relevant strategies for learners to choose from; to offer controlled practice in the use of some strategies; and to provide some sort of post-task analysis which allows students to reflect on their strategy use (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 174).

In conclusion, the field of language learning strategy is a rich area for teaching and inquiry. It can promote our understanding regarding teaching and also learning. Nevertheless, due to the complex nature of strategies and classroom settings, research in the area is scarce, which does not allow for strong conclusions on the benefits of strategy instruction. So far, from the results presented, a great potential for strategy instruction is observed and also encouraged. In the next subsections, considering that this study investigated the impact of strategy instruction on planned speech performance, attention is directed to studies that investigated the impact of strategy instruction on speech production.

2.3.3. Studies on strategy training for oral performance purposes

As it was already mentioned, studies on strategy instruction are not many. Hassan et al (2005) were only able to identify 25 experiments. From those, only 3 studies investigated the effect of strategy instruction on speech production: Ayaduray and Jacobs (1997), Holunga (1998), and O'Malley *et al.* (1985). Besides these three studies, another experiment, interested in strategy instruction and speech production, was found: Rossi (2006). In this sense, the purpose of this subsection is to review the four studies in order to scrutinize the effect strategy intervention may have on oral performance.

Ayaduray and Jacobs (1997) investigated whether instruction focused on higher order questions¹³ would be related to students asking more of this type of questions and providing more elaborated responses during peer interaction. For that, 32 students from a secondary school in Singapore participated in the study. All the participants had English as a L2 and were divided into two classes: a control and an experimental one. Both classes had the same teacher; however, only the experimental one received the treatment. The treatment lasted 10 weeks and was administered once a week. It consisted in providing participants with instruction on how to elaborate higher order questions and practice what was taught in groups of four participants. In order to examine whether the treatment was beneficial, the groups performed a task in which they

¹³ According to Ayaduray and Jacobs (1997), “(...) higher order questions are those which stimulate learners to think more deeply, e.g. application, analysis, or evaluation of information (p. 562)”, while “lower order questions generate more superficial thought, e.g. recall of information (p. 562)”.

had to discuss about a history topic before and after treatment. The discussion was recorded and used as data for analysis.

The output was analyzed in terms of types of questions produced: lower, higher or procedural questions and type of response: elaborated or unelaborated. Results showed that the experimental group produced more higher order questions and elaborated responses compared to the control group in the task conducted after treatment. This suggests that “it is possible to train students to adopt new, more effective learner strategies” (Ayaduray & Jacobs, 1997, p. 567). Furthermore, the authors explained that one key ingredient, observed from the instructional moments, was the motivation of the students in learning that topic. That is, it was not only a mandatory content provided by the teacher, in which students were required to learn. Participants, in fact, perceived the importance in learning how to prepare higher order questions and elaborated responses.

Holunga (1998) investigated whether training on metacognitive strategies would assist advanced learners in producing more accurate oral performance. For that, 48 students participated in the study. All of the participants took a written task in order to examine their degree of accuracy in using verbs in English. After that, they were randomly divided into three groups: metacognitive strategy training with verbalization, metacognitive strategy training without verbalization, and no strategy training. The training sessions lasted 3 weeks and they focused on four metacognitive strategies: predicting, planning, monitoring, and evaluating. The groups performed three oral tasks: one prior to the intervention, one right after the intervention, and one a month later the intervention. The tasks were transcribed and analyzed in terms of accuracy (the appropriate use of verbs).

Results showed that both experimental groups presented significant differences in terms of accuracy between the first task and the task administered right after the treatment sessions, while this difference was not significant for the control group. Nevertheless, no difference was found for the delayed task, which may suggest a momentary impact for the training. All in all, Holunga (1998) concluded that the use of the four metacognitive strategies is related to the production of more accurate performance.

O'Malley *et al* (1985) were interested in identifying a range of strategies learners used and also in understanding the impact of teaching learners metacognitive, cognitive and socioaffective strategies would have in the performance of listening, vocabulary and speaking tasks. For the sake of space constraint, this review shall solely focus on the impact

of strategy instruction phase on the speaking task. 75 high school students with intermediate proficiency in English took part in the study. The participants were assigned to three groups: metacognitive group, cognitive group, and control group. There were eight training sessions of 50 minutes each, in which participants were taught and practiced strategies, depending on the group they were in. The participants performed a speaking task in which they had to present a brief oral report on a personal or cultural theme before and after the instructional sessions.

The presentation outcomes were rated in a 1-5 scale by 5 raters, taking into consideration the following aspects “delivery (volume and pace), appropriateness (choice of words and phrases for a class presentation), accuracy (phonological, syntactic, and semantic), and organization (coherence and cohesion)” (O’Malley *et al*, 1985, p. 573). Comparing the results from the second task, there were significant differences between the experimental groups and the control group, which means that the performance of the experimental groups improved. The authors pointed out that “[s]tudents were extremely adept in learning and applying functional planning, the metacognitive strategy, and gained in judged organization and comprehensibility” (p. 576).

Finally, Rossi (2006) investigated the impact of metacognitive strategy instruction on learner’s oral performance. For that, 22 Brazilian students with intermediate proficiency in English participated in the study. They were equally divided into two groups: experimental and control. The instructional sessions lasted four weeks, and the participants of the experimental group were taught and practiced three metacognitive strategies: planning, monitoring, and evaluating. Participants also performed a video narrative task before and after the treatment. The performance of the task was transcribed and assessed in terms of fluency, complexity, accuracy and lexical density.

Results showed that the experimental group outperformed the control group in terms of complexity, accuracy, and lexical density. However, no difference was found regarding fluency. Rossi (2006) explained that this lack of impact in fluency may be due to a trade-off effect, that is, learners focused their attention on producing a more accurate, complex and lexically dense performance, and ended up not having enough attentional resources to focus on fluency, too. In addition, the author also found a significant relationship between strategy use and improved performance.

All in all, after reviewing the four studies, it is possible to conclude that, although few studies were found, all of them present

positive evidence towards the benefit of strategy instruction on speech performance. This may suggest that strategies are teachable and may improve oral performance. Nevertheless, more evidence would be necessary to bring stronger claims, especially because the studies do not assess speech performance equally and they focus on different strategies. Next, the method chapter is presented.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

3.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the objectives, research questions, and the pilot study conducted to assist in the selection of instruments for this study. In addition, it also describes and justifies the method which was used to collect and analyze data as well as the participant selection, the setting, and the instruments. More specifically, this chapter is organized into nine sections; some of them are further subdivided. The first section, 3.1, introduces the chapter. Section 3.2 introduces the objectives and research questions that guided this research study. Section 3.3 presents the pilot study and its results. Section 3.4 portrays a general overview of the research design in order to offer a panorama of the method. Section 3.5 presents the context in which the data was collected as well as the proficiency test adopted to select the participants. Section 3.6 introduces the participants. Section 3.7 presents the research instruments and justifies their selection. Finally, sections 3.8 and 3.9 explain how data was collected and analyzed, respectively.

3.2. OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The present study, of quasi-experimental and interpretative nature (Locke, Silverman & Spirduso, 1998), aimed at investigating the impact of two types of strategy instruction – integrated and isolated¹⁴ - on Brazilian learners' planned performance in terms of fluency, complexity, accuracy and adequacy. Moreover, the study also aimed at (i) examining the implication of adequacy as an additional measure to assess speech performance more qualitatively as well as (ii) establishing learners' perception on (a) the instructional sessions, (b) the opportunity to plan and (c) the role instruction and/or strategic planning played in their speech performance.

¹⁴ Within the field of strategy instruction, two types of strategy training may be conceptualized: integrated and isolated (or separate). The first concerns the teaching of strategies embedded in the regular language class; while the second concerns the teaching of strategies separated from the regular language class (Trendak, 2015, p. 97).

In order to achieve the objectives aforementioned, the following research questions¹⁵ guided the present study:

- a) Does strategic planning after instructional sessions produce an impact on students' L2 oral performance at the level of fluency, complexity, accuracy, and adequacy, regardless the type of instruction?
- b) Is there a difference between the two types of instruction – isolated and integrated – in terms of benefits for planned speech performance?
- c) What are the implications of the use of adequacy as a dimension to assess speech performance?
- d) What are learners' perceptions on the instructional sessions, both integrated and isolated, and the opportunity to plan before and after instruction?

3.3. PILOT STUDY

Before conducting this research, a pilot study (Specht, 2015) was carried out, aiming at informing the selection of (a) the proficiency test and (b) the narrative tasks adopted as instruments in the data collection process. The decision of piloting these instruments, in particular, emerged from the facts that (i) two different proficiency tests were available with their advantages and specificities and I was uncertain about which of them to use, and (ii) I wished to guarantee that the narrative tasks were similar in terms of difficulty in order to diminish task effect. Moreover, this pilot also assisted me in becoming more familiar with the research context of investigation, since the groups that took place in the pilot were of the same level and context – level 5; Extracurricular courses at UFSC - of the groups that actually participated in this study.

Regarding the proficiency tests, one of them was an oral test (see Appendix A for the test) designed by D'Ely and Weissheimer (2004), and the other one was a listening test (see Appendix B for the test) adopted by Wang (2014). The advantages of the oral test were the fact that it was testing oral proficiency, and it was already adopted in other studies which investigated speech production (D'Ely, 2006; Guara-Tavares, 2016, for instance); however, a disadvantage was that it was

¹⁵ In general, quantitative research commonly raises hypotheses to guide the analysis; however, as this study aims to build an interface with the classroom and explore the qualitative nature of the data, only research questions were used.

time consuming, especially considering that the study would be carried out within classroom settings in which students would have to be taken to a laboratory to record an extra task (a procedure of the proficiency test). The listening test, on the other hand, was less time consuming and could be administered in the classroom; however, it did not measure speaking proficiency, even though, according to Wang (2014), listening was a good indicator of general proficiency. In order to examine whether both tests evaluated proficiency similarly, a group of ten students performed the tests, and the results were compared. For half of the participants, the scores in the tests were different. Based on that, in order to avoid any risk, it was decided to adopt the oral test in the present study. It was also decided that, instead of requiring students to perform an extra oral task, the students' performance in the first task - the one prior to instructional treatment - would be used for proficiency analysis purposes, as well.

With respect to the narrative tasks, as in this study, students would perform two narrative tasks: one before and another after treatment, the tasks were expected to be different in content, so that students would perform different tasks; however they should be similar in the level of difficulty, so that this would not be an intervening variable. One group of students performed a picture-cued narrative task (see Appendix C for the task) which told the story of a man who goes to his beloved's house with a different gift every time, but he is always rejected by her. In the end, he appears with another woman, and his beloved becomes jealous. Another group of students performed a picture-cued narrative task (see Appendix D for the task) which told the story of a couple in a restaurant, having dinner quietly; however the man is thinking about terrible ways to hurt the woman. In the end, he throws a pea at her and she becomes mad. The students' performance was analyzed in terms of complexity (degree of subordination), accuracy (number of errors per 100 words) and fluency (speech rate unpruned), and the groups were compared statistically. The results indicated that the groups' performance was similar in terms of accuracy and fluency, but not in terms of complexity. The second task seemed to yield more subordinate clauses because students had to narrate events that were imagined by one of the characters. Based on that, a decision was made to use another task to substitute the second one.

Specht (2014) adapted a video-based narrative task, which told a story of Tom and Jerry, to a picture-cued narrative task. Assessing the task, it was noticed that the sequences of the pictures could hinder comprehension, and some modifications were made. In order to

guarantee that the story was indeed comprehensible, the modified task was sent to ten raters, who had to describe the story. All the raters described similar stories and did not report any difficulty in understanding it. This task, therefore, was used as a second task in this study.

3.4. GENERAL RESEARCH DESIGN

In order to accomplish the objectives and answer the research questions aforementioned, this study was carried out as follows. Students from 3 level-5 groups of the Extracurricular courses at UFSC were invited to participate in the study. Those who accepted the invitation signed in a consent term and filled up a profile questionnaire. After that, students performed an oral picture-cued narrative task. Prior to the performance, they had ten minutes to plan the task, and right after finishing the task, they filled up a post-task questionnaire, in which they left their perception on their experience and performance. The task's outcome was recorded and used as data for assessing their oral proficiency in English as well as to compare to their performance in a second similar task administered after the treatment sessions. Regarding oral proficiency, raters assessed and scored the students' performances, and those whose scores were within an intermediate proficiency level range were taken as participants.

The groups were randomly assigned to different treatments: two experimental groups: integrated and isolated, and one control group. Within a period of three weeks, the integrated group received strategy instructions on how to plan, which were incorporated in the oral activities of their regular classes; whereas the isolated group did not receive any strategy instruction during regular classes; however one entire encounter of 1h30min was used to introduce and practice strategies they could use during planning time; and the control group did not receive any treatment whatsoever.

After the treatment phase, students performed a second oral picture-cued narrative task under the same planning condition of the first task. The students also filled in a post-task questionnaire, answering questions related to their experience, performance and the possible impact of the instructional sessions they received (for the treatment groups). Participants who did not attend the instructional sessions (or at least most of the instructional sessions for participants from the Integrated group) and did not record their task performance at the same day as the rest of the participants were excluded from the study.

The performances of the two tasks were transcribed and analyzed in terms of fluency, complexity, accuracy and adequacy, and they were statistically compared in order to examine whether the treatments had any effect and whether there was any difference in the effects of the types of treatment. The results from the adequacy measure were also statistically treated in order to understand which aspects of performance it was assessing. The answers from the post-task questionnaires were used as qualitative data, which was organized and tabulated in order to establish participants' perception on the process. Furthermore, during the entire process, that is, during the performances and instructional sessions, I kept a diary, in which I reported situations that could assist in interpreting the data and the analyses. Table 7 summarizes the main procedures.

Table 7

General research design summary

Steps	Procedures
Target Participants	Three level-5 groups from Extracurricular
TASK A + Post-task questionnaire	All target participants performed the task and filled up the post-task questionnaire
Proficiency selection	The outcome of TASK A was assessed by raters, so that a proficiency score could be provided. Students whose score was in the intermediate range were taken as participants
Treatment	The three groups were randomly assigned to a treatment: (a) integrated treatment, (b) isolated treatment, (c) no treatment.
TASK B + Post-task questionnaire	All the participants performed a second task and filled up a second post-task questionnaire.
Analyses	Quantitative analysis: tasks' outcomes were transcribed, analyzed and statistically compared. Qualitative analysis: post-task questionnaires' answers were tabulated and compared.

3.5. CONTEXT OF DATA COLLECTION AND PARTICIPANT SELECTION PROCESS

3.5.1. Extracurricular – UFSC

The extracurricular courses of languages are offered by the Foreign Language and Literature department of the *Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina* (UFSC), a public and federal institution situated in the state of Santa Catarina. The classes take place in the institution and are open to both the university students and the community in general. Those who wish to attend the classes need to pay a fee to enroll. The general English courses have 11 levels, which go from level 0 (starters) to level 10 (advanced). The Interchange 4th edition books (Interchange Intro, 1, 2, and 3) are adopted in levels 0 to 6, and the New American Inside Out books (Upper intermediate and Advanced) in levels 7 to 10.

Most teachers are undergraduate and graduate students from the institution, who underwent a selection process. Teachers are suggested to follow the books, but they have the autonomy to bring new activities and conduct the classes as they find appropriate. Furthermore, the extracurricular courses are seen as a context for teaching practice and development as well as a context in which research can be conducted under the students' consent.

3.5.2. Target Groups and Participants

Students from level 5 groups were chosen as target participants in this study. Such decision was taken to the fact that, within these groups, students are expected to have an intermediate level of English, which seems to be the most common proficiency level in strategic planning studies (D'Ely, 2006; Foster, 1996; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Guará-Tavares, 2008; Mehnert, 1998; Sangarun, 2005; Skehan & Foster, 2005; Specht, 2014, for instance). In addition, Specht (2015) conducted a small-scaled study in Extracurricular, where he observed some level 5 classes and had students from these groups perform narrative tasks. In his study, students' level of proficiency was evaluated, being most of them considered intermediate speakers. Moreover, researchers (D'Ely, 2006; Mehnert, 1998) that pointed out that participants may not know how to use the planning time efficiently - one of the assumptions that this study makes - had intermediate participants in their experiments.

As this study required 3 groups (2 experimental and 1 control) and was intended to be conducted during regular classes, three level 5 groups were assigned to me in the first semester of 2016. Each group contained around 20 students, who were invited to participate in the study during the first day of class. All of the students accepted to take part in the study, so they signed a consent term and filled in a profile questionnaire.

3.5.3. Selection of Participants

As this study was conducted within a classroom context, during regular English classes and was embraced by all the students, the entire groups participated in the process of data collection; however, not all of the students could have their data used for the analyses. In order to be participants, students had to fit in some criteria: (a) their level of proficiency had to be intermediate, (b) the participants of the isolated group had to be present in the instructional lesson, and the participants of the integrated group had to attend at least 4 out of 5 lessons, in which the instructional sessions would be administered, (c) all participants had to be present in the task recording day and (d) they had to follow precise instructions during task recording. The students, however, were not informed of these criteria. All the data, even those from students that did not fit in the criteria, were analyzed and feedback was provided to the students. It is worth highlighting that providing feedback for all the individuals that participated or were willing to participate in the study was considered an important and ethical step. After all, they engaged in a number of extra tasks and made their data available for research without receiving any financial support.

3.5.3.1. Proficiency level control

The level of proficiency is an important variable to be controlled in experimental studies, since it may cause an impact on the studies' results in general. Regarding research on strategic planning particularly, D'Ely (2006) explained that the proficiency level may interfere in the effect that the pre-task condition may have, that is, learners might approach the planning time and benefit from it differently, depending on their proficiency levels.

Even though students from level 5 groups were expected to have an intermediate level of proficiency, as it was aforementioned, there were no guarantees and homogeneity in their level of proficiency was

actually not expected. Some students may have more advanced features in their speech; while others more basic ones, for instance. Therefore, their proficiency needed to be controlled. In order to verify whether the students had intermediate level of proficiency, the students' performance in the first task (see section 3.7.3 for more details about the task and the planning condition) was assessed by three raters, which listened to each story and scored it. The scores went from 0 to 5 with 0,5 intervals between each number, being 0 considered basic level, 3 intermediate level and 5 advanced level. This approach to assess proficiency level was proposed by D'Ely and Weissheimer (2004). They designed the guide for raters to score speech samples, which was adapted from the First Certificate in English speaking test assessment scale (Cambridge Examination), Iwashita, McNamara and Elder's scale (2001, as cited in D'Ely, 2006), and the Royal Society of Arts (RSA) test (in Hughes, 1989 as cited in D'Ely, 2006). The guide took into consideration aspects of speech, such as complexity, accuracy and fluency (see Appendix A for the guide)

Three raters, master and PhD students with large experience in English teaching, listened to 64 stories - from which 6 were duplicated - and scored. These duplicated audios were used in order to control for intrarater-reliability, that is, to verify the consistency of the raters in scoring the stories. Raters 1 and 2 gave the same score to 4 of the 6 stories, while Rater 3 gave the same score to 5 of the 6 stories. Nevertheless, the differences in the scores varied from 0,5 to 1 point more or less, which may not be considered a great difference. This suggests, therefore, that raters were consistent in scoring of the stories. Regarding inter-rater reliability, that is, the consistency in the evaluation among the raters, a Cronbach's Alpha test was run. This test correlates the scores from the three raters and the higher the correlation number (closer to 1 or -1), the more consistency among the raters' assessment (Field, 2009, p.675). As it can be seen in Table 7, the correlation number was above 0,8, which suggests a strong correlation.

Table 8
Inter-Rater Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,839	,846	3

As each story was assessed three times, a mean score was calculated, by adding up the scores and dividing the outcome by three, resulting, then, in the final score. Following D'Ely (2006), scores that varied between 2,5 to 3,5 were included within the intermediate range. Therefore, students that had their stories evaluated within this score range were taken as participants in this study. In addition, four students whose score was 3,7 and three whose story score was 2,4 were also taken as participants, resulting in a total of 52 potential participants.

3.5.3.2. Other control criteria

As it was aforementioned, other than having an intermediate level of proficiency, participants should have full attendance in the instructional session(s), be present in the task recording day and follow the precise instructions during task recording. Part of the 52 potential participants did not come to the classes in which the strategies were taught and practiced (students in the integrated group could miss one class, since their sessions occurred during five regular classes). Moreover, others had problems using the recording device. For not meeting these criteria, from 52 potential participants, only 34 participants lasted: 12 in the isolated group, 11 in the integrated group and 11 in the control group. Next, a profile of the participants is provided.

3.6. PARTICIPANTS

In order to identify the participants and to preserve their anonymity, each participant was given a number preceded by the three first letters of the type of group they belonged to (as it can be seen in Table 8). For instance, Iso7 is one of the 12 participants of the isolated group. In a general and brief picture, all the participants, regardless the type of group, have in common their nationality (Brazilian), level of proficiency (previously controlled) and the fact of being students in Extracurricular course - level 5, as it was aforementioned.

Table 9

Types of group, number of participants and their identification

Type of group	Number of participants	of Participants' identification	Examples
Integrated	11	Int	Int1, Int11
Isolated	12	Iso	Iso1, Iso12
Control	11	Con	Con1, Con11

Based on the information provided in the profile questionnaire (see section 3.7.2. for more details), more specific information regarding age, profession, and perception on English language can provide a more detailed picture of the participants in each group, which is summarized in the next paragraphs (see Appendix E for a summary of each participant's answers in the profile questionnaire).

Participants' age in the integrated group varied from 19 to 40 years old, being 2 participants under 20 years old, 7 participants between 20 to 29 years old, and 2 participants more than 30 years old, resulting in a mean age of 24,81 years old. Five participants were undergraduate students, 1 participant was a graduate student, and the other 5 participants had the following professions: beautician, business assistant, professor, musician, visual artist. Participants claimed to be studying English formally and informally for more than 1,5 years, and 5 of them visited and lived abroad. Nine participants considered the receptive skills: reading and listening as being the easiest ones; while two of them considered speaking as being the easiest skill. Regarding the most difficult skill, all of the participants mentioned the productive skills: speaking and writing. No participant in this group evaluated their speaking as being good. Finally, their beliefs on being fluent in a language revolved around thinking in English, and speaking naturally and accurately.

Regarding participants in the isolated group, their age varied from 17 to 55 years old, being 5 participants under 20 years old, 6 participants between 20 to 30 years old, and 1 participant more than 50 years old, resulting in a mean age of 23,83 years old. Eight participants were undergraduate students, 1 participant was a graduate student, and the other 3 participants had the following professions: firefighter, retired teacher and journalist. Participants claimed to be studying English formally and informally for more than 1 year, and 3 of them visited and lived abroad. All the participants considered the receptive skills: reading and listening as being the easiest ones; however two of them also included writing as being an easy skill. Regarding the most difficult

skill, all of the participants mentioned the productive skills: speaking and writing; however, two participants also included listening as a difficult skill. Only two participants in this group evaluated their speaking as good, but they added that they had difficulties; while the rest considered their speaking from bad to regular. Finally, their beliefs on being fluent in a language revolved around thinking in English, speaking naturally and accurately, mastering the language skills, and being confident.

Finally, participants' age, in the control group, varied from 15 to 47 years old, being 6 participants under 20 years old, 4 participants 20 years old, and 1 participant 47 years old, resulting in a mean age of 21,45 years old. Nine participants were undergraduate students, 1 participant was a high school student, and 1 participant was a professor. Participants claimed to be studying English formally and informally more than 1 year, and 6 of them visited and lived abroad. Ten participants considered the receptive skills: reading and listening as being the easiest ones; however 4 of them also included a productive skill as being an easy one, and 1 participant considered writing as an easy skill. Regarding the most difficult skill, all of the participants mentioned the productive skills: speaking and writing; however, 4 of them also included receptive skills as being difficult ones. No participant in this group evaluated their speaking as being good. Finally, their beliefs on being fluent in a language revolved around thinking in English, speaking naturally and accurately, being confident to hold a conversation, mastering the four skills, and having few pauses while speaking.

All in all, although participants in and among the groups differed in relation to their age, profession, and beliefs about English, which is normally expected in this language learning context in Brazil, the groups as a whole seem to be similar regarding the mean age and their opinions about language. The most prominent difference appears to lie on the profession, especially considering that the control group is mostly composed by young students compared to the other groups.

3.7. RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

3.7.1. Consent terms

As required by the Ethics committee¹⁶, the consent terms (see Appendix F), which were designed in Portuguese¹⁷, contained the following information about the study: the title, the objectives, the procedures for data collection, and the risks and benefits. The participants were also informed that: (i) their participation was volunteer and that they would not receive any type of payment, (ii) they could decide to quit at any time, and (iii) they could require judicial compensation, if they felt violated in some way. The terms also had my contacts such as home address, e-mail address and cell phone number. As there were three groups of students, and each group would go through different processes, there were three different consent terms whose information differed in the procedures for data collection. Participants were asked to sign two copies of the term: one copy for me and the other for them. Moreover, I read the term along with the students and answered their questions when asked.

3.7.2. Profile questionnaire

The profile questionnaire (see Appendix G), adapted from D'Ely (2006), aimed at collecting relevant information about the participants and their perceptions, which was not only used to provide the participants' profile, but also for analysis purposes when necessary. In the first part of the questionnaire, participants had to inform their name, age, profession (if any), e-mail address, and phone number. In the second part, they had to answer seven questions regarding (1) period of time studying English; (2) experience abroad (if any); (3) level of difficulty of language skills; (4) self-evaluation of language competence; (5) experience with oral activities in the classroom; (6) familiar topics for conversation; and (7) opinion on being fluent in English. The entire questionnaire was in English, but students were informed they could answer it in Portuguese if they felt more comfortable.

3.7.3. Tasks and conditions for data collection

Narrative tasks, more specifically there-and-there picture-cued tasks, were adopted in this study as a research instrument to collect speech samples from the participants. This specific type of task was

¹⁶ Prior to the conduction of this study, its project was submitted to the Ethics committee and was approved.

¹⁷ Participants' native language

chosen for the following reasons: (1) it seems to be popular among planning studies (according to Ortega, 1999), which may be an indication of its efficiency; (2) it elicits performance that can be analyzed in terms of complexity, accuracy and fluency (according to D'Ely, 2006); (3) it can be manipulated monologically (Kawauchi, 2005); and (4) it was previously piloted with a similar population (Specht, 2015). In addition, its then-and-there nature, that is their lack of support while planning and retelling the story, leads "(...) learners to use their full range of communicative resources" (D'Ely, 2006, p. 96), making it a more complex and cognitively demanding task (Robinson, 1995), which is an important factor in making the impact of strategic planning more noticeable, according to D'Ely (2006, p. 97).

Two there-and-then picture-cued narrative tasks were administered in the study: one before and another after the treatment. The control group did not receive any type of treatment, but they also performed the two tasks in different moments. The first task (see Appendix C for Task A) told the story of a man who shows at the house of his beloved with a different gift every time, but he is always rejected by her. In the end, she becomes jealous because he finds another girl. The second task (see Appendix H for Task B) told the story of Tom (from the cartoon 'Tom and Jerry'), who falls in love with a female cat, but he has to dispute her love with a richer cat. In the end, the female cat marries the richer cat, making Tom depressed¹⁸.

Participants received an instructional guide with information on how to perform both tasks (see Appendix I for the guide). The information was the following: they were given 50 seconds to assimilate the story - which has been the amount of time used in some studies (D'Ely, 2006; Guara-Tavares, 2016; Specht & D'Ely, 2017, for instance). After that, they had 10 minutes to plan the story - which seems to be a standard amount of time in planning studies (Ellis, 2009). For the planning condition, participants were only given a sheet of paper and a pen for draft purposes; however, they did not have access to the story anymore, and they did not receive any information on what to plan (even in Task B, which was administered after instruction). Finally, after planning time, they had to retell the story with no support of the story or the planning draft. Moreover, students were instructed on how to use the digital recorders, and they were told they could speak as much as they

¹⁸ It is important to highlight that the sexist perspective presented in the tasks is not supported and was discussed with the students after the data collection was carried out.

wished; however, they could not pause the story under any circumstance. In general, most stories revolved around one minute.

3.7.4. Post-task questionnaires

The participants filled in post-task questionnaires, adapted from D'Ely (2006), right after the performance of each task, which aimed at collecting information on the participants' perception about the task, their task performance and the planning condition. This type of instrument has been adopted by other studies (D'Ely, 2006; Specht & D'Ely, 2017) in order to investigate the processes which learners underwent while planning. Furthermore, the use of post-task questionnaires may be a fast and effective alternative to control whether learners actually used the planning condition to plan.

The first questionnaire (Appendix J), which was administered after the first task, was composed by seven questions. The participants were asked about (1) the level of difficulty of the task; (2) the effectiveness of the planning condition; (3) what they did during the planning time; (4) the aspects they focused while planning; (5) their perception on the absence of an interlocutor; (6) their evaluation of the story they produced; and (7) the processes they underwent while performing the task. This same questionnaire was filled in by the control group twice, since they did not undergo any treatment intervention; they just produced two tasks with planning condition in two different moments.

The second questionnaire (Appendix K), which was administered after the second task with the experimental groups, was composed by eight questions. The participants were asked about (1) the level of difficulty of the task; (2) the fact they performed a similar task before; (3) the processes they underwent while performing the task; (4) the strategies they learned during the instructional sessions; (5) the effectiveness of the planning condition; (6) their evaluation of the story produced; (7) what they did during the planning time; and (8) the aspects of their speech affected by the planning condition.

3.7.5. Instructional interventions

The instructional sessions, both the integrated and isolated ones, were designed following the strategy training framework proposed by Oxford (1990), which basically consists in (a) presenting a set of strategies to the students and (b) practicing them through activities. The

strategies chosen for the sessions were those used by Specht (2014): organizational planning, monitoring, rehearsal, writing/outlining/summarizing, elaboration, lexical search, and paraphrasing (see Table 9 for the definitions). Such decision was made considering that Specht's sessions also aimed to assist students in becoming more strategic in performing the pre-task activity (strategic planning). Those specific strategies were reported by Guar-Tavares' (2016) participants as being the ones most used during the planning condition¹⁹. Some of the strategies were cognitive strategies such as lexical search and monitoring; however for the purpose of this study they were manipulated in order to serve as metacognitive strategies.

Table 10
Strategies and their working definitions

Strategies	Definitions
Organizational planning	It "concerns the planning of parts, sequence, and main ideas to be expressed" (Guar-Tavares, 2008, p. 64).
Monitoring	It consists in double-checking grammar and lexical choices that emerged during planning time.
Rehearsal	It consists in doing the oral activity mentally or reading to oneself what was planned in written.
Writing/outlining/summarizing	It concerns any form of writing used during planning time.
Elaboration	It "concerns in improving one's performance by relating new information to prior knowledge, by making meaningful personal associations with the new information, and by attempting to improve and/or embellish performance." (Guar-Tavares, 2008, p. 66).
Lexical search	It consists in searching words related to the topic mentally or in written form.
Paraphrasing	It concerns the use of similar words or explanations when one cannot recall the target words.

¹⁹ Guar-Tavares (2016) did not present 'paraphrasing' in her rank of strategies; however Specht (2014) included it based on his pilot study.

For the integrated intervention, the strategies were presented prior to oral activities of the regular English lessons and practiced with the activities themselves; while for the isolated intervention, students received an entire lesson where the strategies were presented and practiced with exclusively designed activities. Moreover, it is worth mentioning that the regular English lessons administered for the three groups were similar. Clearly, the integrated group's lessons differed from the others because their intervention occurred during the regular classes. Next, I explain each intervention in detail.

3.7.5.1. Integrated intervention

The integrated intervention occurred during the period of April 5th to April 19th in every regular English lesson the group had. A total of five activities were used to present and practice the strategies, preceded by one awareness-raising session conducted right after students performed the first task and filled in the first post-task questionnaire. During the awareness-raising session, which aimed at promoting reflection upon the experience of performing a speech task with the opportunity to plan it previously, students were encouraged to discuss the task and the planning condition they had just experienced. After that, they watched a video in which a girl was being interviewed and had problems in delivering her message. The video was used as a departure point to discuss the importance of planning. Next, I explained to the students about how some speech production processes happen (based on Levelt's model, 1989) and how having the opportunity to plan can cause an impact on these processes. The students also reflected upon the strategies they already used, and, next, the seven strategies were briefly introduced to them.

3.7.5.1.1. Activity 1 for Rehearsal

After performing an activity, in which they were supposed to match the information in columns A and B, students were supposed to complete the sentences in column A with their own information and tell them to their colleague. Before doing the activity, students were told they would have some time to perform the activities mentally. Moreover, it was emphasized that they were not supposed to write anything. After performing the activity in pairs, they were asked if they were not told what to do during the planning time they would have done

something differently. After discussing that, they were introduced to the strategy 'rehearsal' formally.

3.7.5.1.2. Activity 2 for Rehearsal and Lexical Search

Students were supposed to describe their own personality using some of the adjectives they had learned in a previous activity. They were given some time to think about what they would say, but this time they were encouraged to write down keywords that they could use in the activity. After doing that, if they had time, they were supposed to do the activity mentally. After performing the activity, students were asked whether they were familiar with writing down keywords and if it was a positive strategy. Then, they were introduced to the strategy (lexical search) formally.

3.7.5.1.3. Activity 3 for Organizational planning and Rehearsal

I brought a text entitled '6 healthy things in a relationship people think are toxic'. The text had six topics, each topic talking about one healthy thing. Students were asked to sit in pairs or trios in order to assemble six big groups. Each group was responsible for reading, discussing and presenting one topic of the text for the rest of the class, so everyone would know the content of the whole text; in addition during the presentation everyone was supposed to speak. I told students that, while they were discussing and deciding who would present what, they were supposed to write down in an organized way some topics of the things they were supposed to say, and that if they had time, they could practice their speech mentally. After the presentation, students were asked about what they thought of the activity and whether organizing their speech in topics was helpful.

3.7.5.1.4. Activity 4 for Paraphrasing

Students were presented to the images of 4 different jobs that no longer exist. The images were presented one by one and they were given some time to guess the name of the jobs. In addition, they were told if they did not know their names, they were supposed to write down a definition of the job. After finishing the activity, they were presented to the real jobs' names. Next, they were informed that what they did during the activity was a strategy called 'paraphrasing'. Moreover, a reflection on the use of paraphrasing was carried out.

3.7.5.1.5. Activity 5 for Lexical search, paraphrasing, organizational planning, rehearsal, and elaboration.

Students were supposed to talk about possible careers they did not choose, or careers they dreamed about when they were children. They were given some time to plan, and they were also asked (a) to think about the words they could use, (b) to think about a different word if they did not know the word they wanted to use, (c) to organize the topics, (d) to practice everything mentally. After doing the activity, we discussed about the planning time and the strategies they used. Furthermore, I also talked about a strategy they had not seen yet: elaboration. I showed them some sentences and how we could enhance them and a discussion was carried out.

3.7.5.2. Isolated intervention

As it was already mentioned, for the isolated intervention, an entire lesson - which was originally supposed to be a regular lesson - was adopted to present and practice the strategies. The material adopted in this lesson was the same one designed by Specht (2014). However, unlike him, who utilized this material within a 4 week instructional period, the material was adapted to be used within a 1h30min session. During the session, which occurred on April 14th, an awareness-raising moment, similar to the one delivered for the integrated group, was carried out and the seven strategies were presented and practiced individually.

3.7.5.2.1. Awareness-raising moment and activities

The awareness-raising moment was similar to the one administered in the integrated group; however it was faster, due to time constraints, and it did not occur in the same day the students performed the first task; therefore, they were asked to recall that day. Apart from that, students also discussed their experience with the task performance and planning condition, they watched the interview video, they were presented to the speech production processes and how strategic planning may impact this process, and they were briefly presented to the 7 strategies.

The dynamic for presenting and practicing each strategy was the same: first students were formally introduced to the strategy through a definition; after that, they performed an activity to practice the strategy,

and finally they discussed the use of this strategy. The order of the strategies was the following: lexical search, paraphrasing, elaboration, organizational planning, monitoring, rehearsal, and writing/outlining/summarizing.

In the lexical search activity, students were presented to 3 different situations, and, for each situation, they had to write down keywords that could assist them in talking about them. In the paraphrasing activity, students were presented to images of common things (like fruits, objects, people) and they had to write down three different ways to describe the images without using their real names. In the elaboration activity, students were presented to images with a sentence describing them and they had to elaborate the sentences, based on extra information in the images or even their creativity. In the organizational planning activity, students were given a situation, in which they had to provide an excuse, and, for the planning time, they were advised to organize their excuses in topics. In the monitoring activity, a brief narrative text, with a few grammatical errors, was read to the students and they were supposed to point out the errors. For the strategies ‘rehearsal’ and ‘writing/outlining/summarizing’, only one activity was provided. Students had three pictures, which depicted three children stories. They had to select one, and, for the planning time, they had to apply all the strategies they had seen. After doing that, they would have to do the activity mentally. Moreover, the students were advised not to write down the entire story (see Appendix L for the complete activities).

3.7.6. Research diary

According to Bell (2005), “(...) diaries are an attractive way of gathering information about the way individuals spend their time” (p. 173); however it must be kept in mind that they

(...) are not personal records of engagements or journals of thoughts and activities, but records or logs of professional activities. They can provide valuable information about work patterns and activities, provided diary keepers are clear about what they are being asked to do, and why (p. 173).

Based on Bell’s definition, the goal of using a diary in this study was to grasp any additional information that could be observed during

the whole period of the data collection and that could be used to explain any result that emerged from the post-task questionnaire and the task performances. Therefore, any situation that exalted during the task performance and the instructional intervention was annotated by me.

3.8. PROCEDURES FOR DATA COLLECTION

Even though the procedures adopted for each group was the same and were administered during the same weekly period, the data collection occurred separately, depending on the day the groups had their regular English classes. First, participants signed up the consent form and filled in the profile questionnaire in class, and next, they were taken to the language laboratory to perform the first task. After receiving the instructions and planning the task, they recorded their story using a SONY audio recorder. There were ten recorders. Thus, each group, who was composed by 20 students, was divided into two equal batches. While the first part of the students was performing the task, the other part was outside of the laboratory waiting. As soon as participants finished recording the story, they were asked to answer a post-task questionnaire.

During a period of three weeks, the experimental groups received their respective instructional treatments, while the control group had regular English classes. After the treatment phase, participants were taken to the language laboratory to perform the second task. The procedures were the same ones adopted in the first task. First, students received instructions and planned the task, and after that, they recorded the story using the recorders. Right after the performance, they filled in the post-task questionnaire. Next, the procedures, both quantitative and qualitative, for data analysis are presented and explained.

3.9. PROCEDURES FOR DATA ANALYSIS

3.9.1. Quantitative analysis

Speaking is a quite complex phenomenon, which cannot be seen as a unitary construct when treated experimentally (House, Kuiken & Vedder, 2012, p. 1). Therefore, in order to analyze the participants' task performance, in this study, speech production was assumed as a multifaceted phenomenon, composed primarily by three dimensions: complexity, accuracy, and fluency, as proposed by Skehan (1998). These dimensions have been traditionally used in studies on strategic

planning; however, the measures adopted to assess the dimensions sometimes differ from one study to another, depending on specificities of the context and participants, for instance. In addition, a great deal of discussion has focused on the improvement of the three dimensions and their respective measures as well as the inclusion of other measures and dimensions (Larsen-Freeman, 2009; Norris & Ortega, 2009; Pallotti, 2009; Robinson, Cadierno & Shirai, 2009). D'Ely (2011) pointed out that accuracy, for instance, takes a more conservative stance toward language production, which suggests that some type of measurement that deals with language in a more communicative dimension should be necessary. Based on that, this study also adopted a fourth dimension, which was inspired on Pallotti's (2009) proposition of adequacy. Next, the dimensions and their respective measures are defined and discussed, and, following, transcription procedures are explained.

3.9.1.1. Speech dimensions

3.9.1.1.1. *Complexity*

Within SLA research, the notion of complexity is broad and can encompass three components: propositional, discourse-interactional, and linguistic. However, in this study, the focus was solely on linguistic complexity, which was defined as “(...) the number of discrete components that a language feature or a language system consists of, and as the number of connections between the different components” (Bulté & Housen, 2012, p. 24). Thus, in order to assess complexity in this study, two measures were used: (1) degree of subordination and (2) number of words per AS-unit.

Degree of subordination seems to be a commonly adopted measure when it comes to complexity in strategic planning studies (D'Ely, 2006; Guara-Tavares, 2016; Kawauchi, 2005; Mehnert, 1998; Skehan & Foster, 2005; Wigglesworth, 1997, for instance), and, according to Skehan and Foster (2012), it has proven to be useful (p. 203). The calculation was provided by dividing the number of independent and dependent clauses by the number of AS-units. The result represents the index of subordination in the speech sample. If the index number is 1, it means that the story does not have any subordination - and the higher this number, the higher the number of subordination in the story. In this study, the index number varied from 1 to 2.

An AS-unit stands for Analysis Speech unit, and it was proposed by Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000) to be a standard unit in studies which deal with speech production. AS-units are synthetic units as T-units; however they encompass speech features that are not encountered in written texts. Moreover, the authors explained that the use of AS-units meets the psychological concept of planning, which occurs in synthetic blocks as research in oral production suggests. In this sense, AS-unit is defined, in this study, as “(...) a single speaker’s utterance consisting of *an independent clause, or a sub-clausal unit, together with any subordinate clause(s) associated with either*” (Foster, Tonkyn & Wigglesworth, 2000, p. 365) if it is the case of existing subordinate clauses.

An independent clause was considered a clause with a finite verb; a sub-clausal unit, which is very common in speaking, was considered as one or more phrases that from the context or situation you can grasp as a complete unit even without a verb; and a subordinate clause consists, minimally, of a finite or non-finite verb element plus at least one other clause element, which is linked semantically to a main clause. Types of subordinate clauses, provided by D’Ely (2011) and found in this study’s data, are the following: finite clause, gerund, infinitive, participle, verbless, and bare finite. Coordinate verb phrases (i.e. when two verbs share the same subject) were considered to belong to the same unit, unless there was a pause of more than 0.5 between them.

The second measure, number of words per AS-unit, was proposed by Norris and Ortega (2009) as a complementary measure to be used along with subordination. The authors claimed that only measuring subordination is not so effective with higher level students in special. In addition, they explain that using an extra measure that focuses on the number of words captures a different feature of complexity. In order to calculate this measure, the number of words was divided by the number of total AS-units. Repetitions, reformulations and self-repairs were not counted as words. In addition, contractions were calculated as two different words. In this study, the number of words per AS-unit varied from 5,4 to 15,14 words.

3.9.1.1.2. Accuracy

Accuracy is related to error-free form and has been assessed by specific and general measures in studies. Skehan (2014) explains that specific measures may have more construct validity, because they may “(...) detect influences of experimental conditions” (p. 15); however, at

the same time, they are not practical when dealing with spoken performance that is relatively short. That is, few or no instances of specific types of errors may not be found in performance. Considering that, as this study deals with short speech performance, general measures were adopted in order to assess accuracy, more specifically, three general measures: (1) percentage of error-free AS-units, (2) number of errors per 100 words, and (3) the average of errors per AS-units.

Before turning to the measures, it is important to provide a definition of error. In this study, an error was defined as any linguistic form or combination of forms that deviate from the standard grammar. Nevertheless, as we are dealing with speech production, and speaking has some specific characteristics, three exceptions were made. (1) Errors of adverb positioning, when the case could be considered a common phenomenon in speaking, were not considered. (2) Pronunciation errors were not computed when they were intelligible. In order to check for intelligibility, the words that had problematic pronunciation were sent to raters who listened to the sentences, in which the words occurred and evaluated whether they could understand the words or not. If the word was not understandable, it was not considered intelligible; therefore it was computed as an error. And (3) verb conjugation would be further analyzed before considered an error. That is, it is common for narratives to be told both in the present and past tenses, and both tenses are sometimes used in some cases; however in stories in which both tenses were used, it was not always possible to recognize the learner's intention. Therefore, in order to avoid misinterpretation, it was counted the quantity of uses in the past and in the present, and the most used tense was considered the correct one, while the verbs produced in the other tense were considered errors.

The first measure, percentage of error-free clauses, according to Skehan and Foster (2012), is the standard accuracy measure used by most strategic planning studies. It was calculated by dividing the number of error-free AS-units by the total number of AS-units. The result was, then, multiplied by 100. In this study, the percentage number varied from 0 to 84,64. Notwithstanding the popularity of this measure, a downfall is the fact that it does not control for the number of errors presented in each AS-unit, meaning that an AS-unit may have three errors, while another may present only one, but both are categorized equally (Skehan, 2014). Taking this in account, two other measures were adopted to overcome this issue.

Number of errors per 100 words is also another popular measure for accuracy, proposed by Mehnert (1998) in her study. The researcher explained that as some languages have different clause structures, calculating the amount of error based on the number of words allows crosslinguistic comparison, and it also lays the focus on the error itself and not on the error-free clause. It was calculated by dividing the total of errors by the total of words, and the division result was multiplied by 100. Repetitions, replacements, and self-repairs were not counted as words. In this study, the number of errors varied from 2,02 to 27,45.

Finally, it was decided to include the average of errors per AS-unit as a third measure to grasp the issue of quantity of errors presented in the AS-units. This measure is not commonly adopted in studies (at least not in strategic planning studies), however it seems to be useful in this study and also captures a different component of accuracy. It was calculated by dividing the number of errors by the number of AS-units. In this study, the average of errors varied from 0,30 to 4.

3.9.1.1.3. *Fluency*

Fluency, itself, is also a multifaceted phenomenon, having at least three subdimensions: speed fluency (rate and density of linguistic units produced), breakdown fluency (number, length and location of pauses), and repair fluency (false starts, misformulations, self-corrections and repetitions) (Housen, Kuiken & Vedder, 2012, p. 5). In order to assess every subdimension, five measures were used in this study.

Regarding speed fluency, two measures were used: speech rate pruned and speech rate unpruned. Both measures aim at providing the number of words per minute; however the first is a more specific measure, because it does not consider repetitions, reformulations and self-repairs as words, while the second does. Their calculation was provided by dividing the number of words by the total amount of time in seconds, and the result was multiplied by 60.

Number of unfilled pauses is a general measure when it comes to breakdown fluency. It concerns the amount of time learners remained silent during the story narration. The amount of time considered a pause is debatable in the area: it may vary from 0,4 to 1 second. In this study, following research conducted in Brazil (D'Ely, 2006; Guara-Tavares, 2016), 1 second was used as a cutoff point. Another issue is the position a pause occurs in the speech; that is, it may occur in the middle of clauses or in the boundary of clauses, being the latter considered more natural in speaking (Skehan, 2014). Taking this difference into account,

two measures of breakdown fluency were used: (1) number of middle clause unfilled pauses and (2) number of boundary clause unfilled pauses. The calculation was made by dividing the total pausing time (middle or boundary) in seconds by the total audio time in seconds.

Finally, regarding repair fluency, one measure was used: number of self-repairs. Self-repairs were considered any reformulation, repetition, false starts, or replacements participants produced while narrating the story. In order to calculate this measure, the total of self-repairs was divided by the number of AS-units.

3.9.1.1.4. Adequacy

In order to reach a more discourse-oriented stance of speech production, adequacy was adopted as a fourth dimension in this study. Pallotti (2009) explains that “(...) adequacy represents the degree to which a learners’ performance is more or less successful in achieving the task’s goals efficiently” (p. 596). The author claims that high scores on complexity, accuracy, and fluency may not prove that learners have produced adequate outcomes. A narrative, for instance, may have few errors, few pauses and several subordinate clauses and at the same time may be confusing and poorly organized.

Pallotti (2009) did not present any concrete measure or framework to assess adequacy, which is understandable, considering that adequacy itself is contextual, that is, it depends on the task’s characteristics and goals; however, he suggested that it “(...) can be evaluated by means of qualitative rating, using predefined descriptors scales (...)” (p. 597). As the tasks used in this study were narrative tasks, and it was expected that students told a story based on the set of pictures they were presented, I listed several features a narrative should present to be considered an adequate one. This list of features was delivered to two raters, who judged whether or not they agreed with the features. With the features that were agreed by all raters, a table was designed. The table contained five statements: (1) The story is well organized - It has beginning, middle and end; (2) The story is interesting – It catches my attention; (3) The lexical choices used by the narrator are understandable and compatible with the story; (4) the story is clear – It is easy to understand; and (5) The rhythm and speed the narrator tells the story is good. Each statement was followed by a scale of scores that went from 1 to 5, being 1 very poor, 2 poor, 3 regular, 4 good, and 5 very good. Each story, in the end, had one final score that was the sum

of the scores given to each statement; therefore, the minimum score could be 5 and the maximum score could be 25.

This table was piloted in order to examine whether it was clear and did not hinder comprehensibility while being used. Two raters evaluated some stories using the table, and they complained about not having a basis to evaluate the story. The raters suggested that a training rating session would solve the problem. Based on that, three narrative stories with different adequacy levels were selected from the pilot study (Specht, 2015), to be presented to the raters and discussed along with the researcher as a training session.

The 68 stories (two stories per participant) were listened and evaluated by three Brazilian raters²⁰ – two PhD students and one master student with extensive teaching experience. A Cronbach's Alpha test was run in order to check whether the raters' final scores correlate; that is, whether they followed a similar evaluation pattern, and as it can be seen in Table 10, a relatively high correlation number was obtained (0.786), especially considering that some statements in the evaluating table could be quite subjective. The mean of the scores given for the three raters was the one used in the study for statistical purposes. The adequacy number, in the study, varied from 11,66 to 21,66.

Table 11
Inter-Rater Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.786	.783	3

3.9.1.2. Data transcription

The procedures adopted for data transcription in this study were the ones proposed by Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000). The oral texts produced by the participants were transcribed *verbatim*. False starts, repetitions and self-corrections were also transcribed and inserted within brackets ({..}). In addition, the transcriptions were revised by a rater. Pronunciation errors when did not affect the narrative comprehension were corrected when transcribed. For instance, Brazilian

²⁰ It is common for studies also to use native speakers of English as raters; however, in a study conducted by Révész, Ekiert & Torgersen (2016), they found no consistent difference between the assessment of native and that of non-native speakers when evaluating adequacy.

students tend to pronounce a /i/ in words that begin with an s and should be pronounced with an /s/ sound, such as: school, and in words that end in a consonant sound such as: and, make. They also tend to pronounce the ED particle for every regular verb in the past as /id/; therefore, rather than pronouncing ‘worked’ as /workt/, they pronounced it as /workid/, for instance. All of these kinds of pronunciation errors were checked with random people and were considered intelligible.

After transcribed, the texts were segmented into Analysis Speech units (AS-units) and subordinate clauses. AS-units were separated with a vertical bar (|), and subordinate clauses within the AS-units were separated with a sequence of two colons (::). Regarding the length of silent pauses, any pause - the same or longer than 1 second - was inserted within parenthesis. In order to measure the length of the pauses, a software program called Audicity was used. This program presented the spectrum of the speech and once a pause was identified, it could be selected and the precise length of it was presented. Errors were marked by an asterisk (*). Below you can see an example of a transcribed text segmented in AS-units and subordinate clauses, with its pauses and errors identified (see Appendix M for all the data transcription).

Is04 - |There are two cat* Tom and a black cat|(1.75) {Hmm} they are trying to get the attention of a girl| That girl is a female cat|(1.07) so (2.17) everything that Tom does :: the black cat does it better|(2.24) {hmm} (3.32) Tom appears with a car|(1.12) {so} but the black cat appears with a better and more {ex} expensive car|(1.48) and after all the girl stays with the black cat|(1.68) and (2.26) Tom get* sad|(2.16) {and} (7.37) and he (1.48) are* crying and drinking milk :: (2.55) cuz {the} the girl doesn't want to stay with {h} him| - TASK B

3.9.1.3. Raters

A number of eighteen raters participated in this study. Three raters assessed the outcome of the first task in order to identify students' level of proficiency. Three raters checked the transcriptions, the errors, and the length of the pauses. Two raters piloted the adequacy table, and three other raters scored the stories based on the table. Finally, ten raters

evaluated the intelligibility of the pronunciation errors and the comprehensibility of the second task, which was modified.

3.9.1.4. Statistical treatment

In order to answer research questions 1, 2, and 3 and provide a careful analysis of the results coming from the eleven measures adopted in this study, four statistical treatments were adopted. First, a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was conducted. Such test establishes “which linear components exist within the data and how a particular variable might contribute to that component” (Field, 2009, p. 638). In this study, the PCA aimed at understanding whether the eleven measures were assessing oral proficiency and also whether, at the same time, they were assessing different speech dimensions. The use of PCA is advisable when data meets two assumptions: suitability and sphericity, which can be checked by the results of KMO and Bartlett's Test. The result of the KMO test is supposed to be equal or higher than 0.60 and the result of Bartlett's test should be equal or lower than $p. 0.05$, according to Kaiser (1974). The PCA also provided a correlation matrix table, which presents the correlation number between the measure's pairs. All measure's pairs should have, at least, some level of correlation if they are assessing speech performance. However, if the correlation number is too strong, it may mean that the measures are assessing similar aspects of the phenomenon. Finally, the PCA presents a Rotated Component Matrix table, which presents the measures loaded in their respective components.

After that, a descriptive analysis was conducted in order to provide an overall picture of the groups' performance in the two different conditions: planning and planning after instruction considering the eleven measures adopted. Moreover, descriptive statistics also provided the mean, and the standard deviation of each group under each condition, which assisted in the interpretation of the results provided by the other tests.

Regarding the third statistical treatment, as this study has a 3X2 design, which means that there are three different groups performing two different tasks in two different moments, two types of comparisons are possible: within-subjects, concerning differences in the performance in the second task compared to the first one; and between-subjects, concerning differences in the performance between the groups in each task. Considering the research design, a series of 11 Mixed ANOVAs were run – one for each measure. This ANOVA test is a mixed version

of the repeated-measures ANOVA and the One-way ANOVA, and it provided the results of the interactions of the within-subjects and between-subjects comparisons (Field, 2009). Once a significant or nearly significant p value was found in one or both comparison interactions, a command modification in the syntax of the test was carried out in order to have access to the pairwise comparisons between tasks and groups. Furthermore, only the significant or nearly significant interactions were analyzed further, because if the interaction is not significant, no pairwise comparison shall be.

It is worth explaining that, as the Mixed ANOVA is a parametric test, some assumptions for its use should be met. The main ones are the following: (a) the data should be normally distributed, and (b) no significant outliers should be present in the data (Field, 2009). A few measures did not meet the assumptions, and some precautions were taken. Non-parametric tests were used for these measures in order to verify whether the results would be different; however, no difference was found. Considering that, the use of the Mixed ANOVA was the option for all the measures, since parametric tests yield stronger results, especially in experiments that have complex data settings like the present study. Furthermore, a series of Mixed ANOVAs was also run with the five individual scores that composed the adequacy measure, so that a clearer picture of what exactly adequacy was assessing could be had. During this analysis, a pair correlation, the fourth statistical treatment, was run in order to investigate certain issues that arose.

3.9.2. Qualitative analysis

The post-task questionnaires and the diary notes were the main source of data used in the qualitative analysis. All the answers from the post-task questionnaires were tabulated (see Appendix N) in order to have a panorama of the participants' perception in performing the first and second tasks along with the opportunity to plan it. This tabulated data was also used to compare their perception about the tasks, especially considering the groups that underwent treatment. The diary notes were used in order to add factual information, that could assist in the analysis. In the next chapter, I present and discuss the results.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to present and discuss the results of both quantitative and qualitative analyses, which were conducted in order to answer the four research questions addressed in the study: (a) Does strategic planning after instructional sessions produce an impact on students' L2 oral performance at the level of fluency, complexity, accuracy, and adequacy, regardless of the type of instruction? (b) Is there a difference between the two types of instruction – isolated and integrated – in terms of benefits for planned speech performance? (c) What are the implications of the use of adequacy as a dimension to assess speech performance? And (d) What are learners' perceptions on the instructional sessions, both integrated and isolated, and on the opportunity to plan before and after instruction?

This chapter is organized into five main sections, being this introduction Section 4.1. Section 4.2 deals with the quantitative analysis of data which is presented in four subsections. Subsections 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.2.3 and 4.2.4 are, respectively, concerned with: (i) examining whether measures minimally correlated between each other and also whether they were representative of their respective dimensions; (ii) presenting and discussing the descriptive statistical results, (iii) presenting the results of the statistical procedures to understand differences in speech performance, and (iv) presenting the results of statistical procedures to scrutinize the adequacy measure. Section 4.3 concerns the qualitative analysis of data, which is subdivided into four subsections that analyze the participants' answers from the post-task questionnaires in order to establish their perceptions. The first three subsections deal with the analysis of each group individually and the last subsection provides a comparison between the groups' perception. Section 4.4 brings all the results to light and propose a discussion in the light of the theories and studies presented in Chapter 2. And finally, Section 4.5 answers the research questions of the study, by summarizing the analyses presented in the previous sections.

4.2. QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS

The quantitative analysis concerns the examination of the outcomes derived from the participants' speech performances of two tasks, which were produced before and after treatment. The participants were part of three different groups: integrated instruction, isolated instruction, and no instruction. As such, the purpose is to understand whether being exposed to instructional conditions causes an impact on participants' performance in terms of complexity, accuracy, fluency, and adequacy. The four speech dimensions were assessed by 11 measures: 2 for complexity, 3 for accuracy, 5 for fluency and 1 for adequacy. The latter was conceptualized specifically for this study in order to include a more discourse-oriented measure to assess performance as well as to verify its validity as an extra measure. Table 11 specifies each measure, presenting how they shall be referred as in the next tables. Thus, the analytical objectives of this section are threefold: (i) to examine whether the 11 measures adopted are representative of speech performance and at the same time grasp different aspects of it through a Principal Component Factor Analysis; (ii) to report and discuss the results of descriptive statistics and (iii) the results of the Mixed-designed ANOVAs run to check significant differences and also to scrutinize the adequacy measure.

Table 12
Dimensions, measures and their references in the statistical reporting tables

Complexity	Subordination index	C1
	Number of words in AS-unit	C2
Accuracy	Percentage of error-free clauses	A1
	Errors per 100 words	A2
	Average of errors per AS-unit	A3
Fluency	Speech rate unpruned	F1
	Speech rate pruned	F2
	Number of end unfilled pauses	F3
	Number of mid unfilled pauses	F4
	Number of self-repairs per AS-unit	F5
Adequacy	Functional adequacy	Ad1

4.2.1. Correlation and Principal Component Factor Analysis

As already explained, speech performance is a complex phenomenon (Skehan, 1998), which is being assessed in terms of complexity, accuracy, fluency, and adequacy in this study. For each dimension, two or more measures, except for adequacy, are being adopted in order to tackle different aspects of the respective dimension. However, in order to verify whether the measures are indeed representative of speech performance and load on different components, a Principal Component Analysis was carried out. For the analysis, the performance of the first task produced by the three groups under the same condition - planning without instructional treatment - was used.

For conducting the analysis, two assumptions should be met: suitability and sphericity of data. Regarding suitability, Kaiser (1974) suggests that in order to conduct a Principal Component Analysis, the result of the KMO test should be at least 0.6. This assumption was not met, since the result of the test was 0.56 as can be seen in Table 12. However, the result of Bartlett's Test was significant, meeting the assumptions for sphericity. Even though the condition for the use of this statistical test was not entirely advisable, I opted to employ it, because it is my understanding that such test may provide some type of evidence that adequacy can be seen as a fourth dimension in this study.

Table 13
KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		,561
	Approx. Chi-Square	392,002
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	DF	55
	Sig.	,000

Considering that all the eleven measures are being used to assess speech performance, some level of correlation between at least one measure pairs is expected; otherwise the measure that does not present any correlation would be measuring a different phenomenon, which is not speech performance. Field (2009) suggests that the correlation should be higher than 0.3. At the same time, there should not be a strong correlation between any measure pairs, which would mean that the two measures are assessing alike aspects. As it can be seen in Table 13, all the measures minimally correlate with other(s) measure(s), since they present correlation numbers higher than 0.3. Therefore, it means that all the variables are measuring the same phenomenon. On the other hand,

some pairwise correlations, A1/A2, A1/A3, A2/A3 and F1/F2, presented a strong correlation (higher than 0.8). This may indicate that they are measuring similar aspects of speech performance as it was explained. However in such cases, this strong correlation could be expected since they are assessing related aspects within the same dimension, for instance, both F1 and F2 measure speech rate. The difference between them is that the former considers self-repairs and repetitions, while the latter does not. If this is the case, the statistical results of these variables shall be similar.

Table 14
Correlation Matrix

	C1	C2	A1	A2	A3	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	Ad1
C1	1	,63	-,21	-,00	,25	,06	,02	-,27	-,11	,38	-,10
C2	,63	1	-,35	,07	,50	,05	-,01	-,43	-,02	,64	-,12
A1	-,21	-,35	1	-,84	-,84	,29	,36	,45	-,42	-,47	,38
A2	-,00	,07	-,84	1	,86	-,23	-,29	-,33	,32	,36	-,33
A3	,25	,50	-,84	,86	1	-,23	-,30	-,47	,25	,64	-,35
F1	,06	,05	,29	-,23	-,23	1	,98	-,16	-,60	-,19	,31
F2	,02	-,01	,36	-,29	-,30	,98	1	-,07	-,66	-,34	,32
F3	-,27	-,43	,45	-,33	-,47	-,16	-,07	1	,17	-,42	-,04
F4	-,11	-,02	-,42	,32	,25	-,60	-,66	,17	1	,37	-,43
F5	,38	,64	-,47	,36	,64	-,19	-,34	-,42	,37	1	-,24
Ad1	-,10	-,12	,38	-,33	-,35	,31	,32	-,04	-,43	-,24	1

Table 14 shows the results of factor analysis, and it is possible to see that the variables can be divided into four components. Accuracy loads highly on the first component, followed by fluency, complexity, and adequacy. Even though this may indicate that the measures adopted in this study are in fact assessing different dimensions of speech performance, the order in which each component loaded is not in line with the one presented by Guara-Tavares (2008). In her study, fluency loaded as a first component, followed by complexity and accuracy. Nevertheless, such results are expected, considering that Guara-Tavares used in the analysis the outcomes of a task performed under no planning condition, while, in this study, both tasks administered were preceded by strategic planning.

Table 15
Rotated Component Matrix

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
A2A	,932			
A3A	,874			
A1A	-,868			
F2A		,970		
F1A		,953		
C2A			,898	
C1A			,847	
Ad1A				,862

In sum, the analyses indicate that all the measures are representative of the same phenomenon, that is, speech performance, and that some measures (all accuracy measures and two fluency measures) are quite similar to each other, indicating that they are probably assessing equivalent aspects of their respective dimensions. Moreover, the speech performance is divided into four dimensions: accuracy, fluency, complexity, and adequacy, considering that the (or some) variables responsible for that dimension loaded in different components. The results, therefore, are an indicative that adequacy may be seen as an independent dimension, assessing specific aspects of speech performance other than the ones assessed by complexity, accuracy, and fluency.

4.2.2. Descriptive Analysis

This section aims at presenting the descriptive analysis of the task performances of the three groups (integrated, isolated, and control) in the eleven measures of L2 speech production adopted in this study (see Table 11 for the measures), so that differences in the performance can be initially identified. It is worth remembering that all the groups performed two narrative tasks under two different conditions. For both tasks (Tasks A and B), participants had 10 minutes for planning; however, the integrated and isolated groups were exposed to instructional sessions on how to plan in the period between the performance of the two tasks; while the control group was not exposed to any instructional session whatsoever. Therefore, due to such design, two types of comparison are possible: between-group and within-group

comparisons. Tables 15 to 18 present the means and the standard deviations of each group's performances in each task.

Table 16

Descriptive Statistics – Means and Std. Deviation – Complexity

Task A				Task B			
	Group	Means	Std. Dev.		Group	Means	Std. Dev.
C1	Int	1,341	,1637	C1	Int	1,336	,3448
	Iso	1,446	,2108		Iso	1,321	,2091
	Con	1,388	,2757		Con	1,490	,1539
C2	Int	8,881	2,364	C2	Int	9,070	1,916
	Iso	9,724	2,009		Iso	9,014	1,274
	Con	9,106	1,970		Con	9,041	2,275

Note: C1 – Degree of subordination; C2 – Number of words in AS-unit

Table 17

Descriptive Statistics – Means and Std. Deviation – Accuracy

Task A				Task B			
	Group	Means	Std. Dev.		Group	Means	Std. Dev.
A1	Int	39,86	22,29	A1	Int	33,28	23,37
	Iso	35,13	19,95		Iso	50,21	25,34
	Con	26,62	13,62		Con	32,82	19,59
A2	Int	12,18	8,134	A2	Int	13,16	6,350
	Iso	11,71	4,769		Iso	8,861	5,873
	Con	15,78	5,165		Con	12,77	6,616
A3	Int	1,157	1,067	A3	Int	1,197	,7162
	Iso	1,131	,6272		Iso	,7967	,5380
	Con	1,375	,3404		Con	1,095	,5069

Note: A1 – Percentage of error-free clauses; A2 – Errors per 100 words; A3 – Average of errors per AS-unit

Table 18

Descriptive Statistics – Means and Std. Deviation - Fluency

Task A				Task B			
	Group	Means	Std. Dev.		Group	Means	Std. Dev.
F1	Int	87,92	23,66	F1	Int	83,66	17,27
	Iso	86,43	25,13		Iso	83,71	20,68
	Con	78,50	16,69		Con	79,60	17,29
F2	Int	80,76	21,47	F2	Int	76,94	18,82
	Iso	78,93	24,04		Iso	76,85	22,37
	Con	71,31	16,04		Con	75,20	16,20
F3	Int	12,83	7,189	F3	Int	12,76	7,922
	Iso	9,491	7,589		Iso	8,549	6,748
	Con	11,37	5,181		Con	13,87	7,368
F4	Int	13,76	10,84	F4	Int	10,30	6,942
	Iso	14,99	11,71		Iso	13,39	9,775
	Con	17,50	8,251		Con	13,71	7,649
F5	Int	,9018	1,048	F5	Int	1,029	1,463
	Iso	1,014	,7579		Iso	,9633	,7584
	Con	,9609	,5618		Con	,5918	,5414

Note: F1 – Speech unpruned; F2 – Speech pruned; F3 – number of end unfilled pauses; F4 – number of mid unfilled pauses; F5 – number of self-repairs per AS-unit

Table 19

Descriptive Statistics – Means and Std. Deviation - Adequacy

Task A				Task B			
	Group	Means	Std. Dev.		Group	Means	Std. Dev.
Ad1	Int	16,63	2,822	Ad1	Int	18,00	2,521
	Iso	15,86	2,622		Iso	18,52	2,157
	Con	16,87	3,092		Con	15,30	2,030

Note: Ad1 – Raters' assessment scores

By comparing the means of the three groups: Integrated (Int), Isolated (Iso), and Control (Con) in each measure, some general results can be pointed out regarding the differences in the four dimensions of performance. The three groups did not present similar performance in Task A in any measure, which was not expected since all the groups performed this first task under the same condition. The treatment groups outperformed the control group in 10 measures, while the control group

underperformed the treatment ones in seven measures. Nevertheless, most of the differences are not substantial and do not seem to follow any pattern that explains them. Level of proficiency could be a reason for different performances, for instance; however, as the participants were controlled for proficiency level in this study, this does not seem likely. Foster and Skehan (1999) explain that learners, when planning solitarily and without any type of guidance, seem to engage in different types of planning activities that may lead them to different planning impacts on their performances. Perhaps this could explain the lack of similarity in the groups' performances.

Regarding the groups' performance in Task B, the scenario seems to be clearer. The isolated group outperformed the other groups in all the accuracy measures, in one measure of fluency (number of end unfilled pauses), and in the adequacy measure. However, the group performed poorly in terms of complexity, considering that it produced fewer subordinate clauses compared to the other groups. The integrated group outperformed the other groups only in one measure of fluency (number of mid unfilled pauses) and adequacy. And the control group outperformed the other groups only in one measure of complexity (number of subordinate clauses) and one measure of fluency (number of self-repairs per AS-unit).

Considering the difference in the performances of Tasks A and B, the scenario is slightly different. The control group improved in terms of complexity (number of subordinate clauses), accuracy (number of errors per 100 words and average of errors per AS-unit), and fluency (number of mid unfilled pauses and number of self-repairs per AS-unit). The Isolated group improved their performance in all the accuracy measures and in the adequacy measure; but they reduced their number of subordinate clauses. And the integrated group only improved their performance in terms of adequacy. One explanation for this improvement in the performance of the control group may be their poor performance in Task A, which opened more room for such improvement. Interestingly, the control group did not improve in terms of adequacy. In fact, their adequacy score presented some decrease compared to Task A.

In short, the scenario seems to be blurry. Nevertheless, general results seem to favor the isolated group considering that their performance improved both when between- and within- subject comparisons were carried out. The integrated group did not show much improvement, except for adequacy. They produced a more adequate performance compared to the control group in Task B and also

comparing to their outcome of Task A. Finally, the control group seems to have improved in all the dimensions, except for adequacy. In the next section, the results of Mixed ANOVA are presented, so that it is possible to examine whether such differences are significant.

4.2.3. Mixed ANOVA for General Speech Performance Assessment

As explained in Chapter 3, Mixed ANOVA is a statistical test employed in this study to examine whether the differences between- and within-group comparisons are significant. Table 19 shows the results of the interactions between the two tasks and the three groups. As it can be seen in bold, there were three significant differences in the interactions for measures A1 ($F=3.714 - p. 0.036$), A3 ($F=4.971 - p. 0.033$), and Ad1 ($F=6.152 - p. 0.006$), and one interaction that approached significance for the measure A2 ($F=3.654 - p. 0.065$). However, no significant differences in the interactions for complexity and fluency were found or even approached. Therefore, it is possible to claim that there were only significant differences in terms of accuracy and adequacy when comparing the three groups and the two tasks they performed.

Table 20
Tests of Within-Subject Contrasts

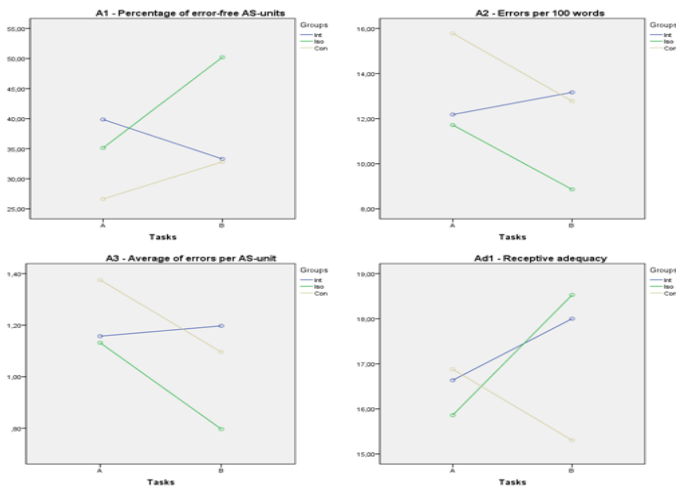
Measure	F value	Sig.	Source	Measure	F value	Sig.
C1	.074	.787	Task*Groups	C1	2.041	.147
C2	.353	.557		C2	.585	.563
A1	2.526	.122		A1	3.714	.036
A2	3.654	.065		A2	2.218	.126
A3	4.971	.033		A3	1.757	.189
F1	.330	.570		F1	.206	.815
F2	.043	.838		F2	.447	.644
F3	.211	.649		F3	1.088	.350
F4	2.346	.136		F4	.132	.877
F5	.623	.436		F5	1.380	.267
Ad1	2.971	.095		Ad1	6,152	.006

In order to start understanding in which pair comparisons, more precisely, the significant differences are, we can examine and compare the groups' performances. Figure 1 presents the plots of each group's

performance in Tasks A and B for the measures in which significant results in the groups' and tasks' interaction were found. By examining the plots, it is possible to observe that both the Isolated and Control groups improved their performances in terms of accuracy (measures A1, A2, and A3) from Task A to Task B, while the Integrated group slightly decreased their performance. However, when comparing the groups' performance in Task B, the Isolated group is the only one to present a more accurate performance in all the accuracy measures compared to the Control group. In addition, the Integrated and Control groups have quite similar performances in Task B concerning accuracy for all measures. All in all, the significant differences may have derived from the Isolated group considering their consistent improvement both from Task A to Task B and compared to the control group.

A clearer picture can be drawn regarding the adequacy measure, in which both the treatment groups improved their performances, while the control group presented a decrease, when comparing Tasks A and B. Moreover, the treatment groups presented rather similar performances in Task B and a more adequate performance compared to the control group. Therefore, regarding adequacy, the significant differences may have come from the treatment groups both within- and between-subject comparisons, and there is a chance that some difference may have come from the decrease in the performance of the control group.

Figure 1 – Plots



In order to scrutinize the significant differences, especially considering that the performance analysis concerning the accuracy measures were not completely apparent, an additional command was added to the syntax of Mixed ANOVA test in SPSS, and between- and within- pairwise comparison tables were provided. Tables 20 and 21 show, respectively, the results of the group and task comparisons.

As can be seen in Table 20, the only significant difference between group comparisons was at the level of adequacy between the pairwise groups: Con/Int (p. 0.025) and Con/Iso (p. 0.005) in Task B. This indicates that the performances of the groups that received treatment were more adequate than the performance of the group that did not. Moreover, it is worth mentioning that no significant differences between the performances of the groups in Task A (the task which was performed under the same condition for the three groups) were found. This suggests, therefore, that the groups produced similar outcomes in terms of complexity, accuracy, fluency, and adequacy, in spite of the differences reported in the descriptive statistics analysis. This similarity in the performance of Task A reinforces (i) homogeneity regarding the proficiency level of the participants, which was previously controlled in this study as well as (ii) reliability in comparing groups' and tasks' performances.

Table 21 shows that the only group that improved its performance from Task A to Task B was the Isolated group. The group presented significant improvement in two accuracy measures (A1 and A3), and the adequacy measure. In addition, it also approached significance in the third accuracy measure (A2). It is worth remembering that the three accuracy measures showed a strong correlation between one another, indicating that they were measuring similar aspects of accuracy dimension; therefore, an impact in (almost) all of them would be expected. Some near significant results were found for the control group at the level of accuracy (A2 and A3) and adequacy as well. However, in terms of adequacy, the control group produced a less adequate performance in Task B compared to Task A; while in Task A, the group's score was 16.8, in Task B, it was 15.3. Thus, it can only be said that a tendency of improvement in terms of accuracy is seen in the control group's performance. And finally, no significant improvement was found in the performance of the Integrated group.

Table 21
Groups comparison – Task B

Measure	Groups	Groups	Sig.
Ad1	Int	Iso	1.000
		Con	.025
	Iso	Int	1.000
		Con	.005
	Con	Int	.025
		Iso	.005

Table 22
Pairwise Comparison – Comparison of Tasks A and B in each group

Measure	Groups	Sig.	Measure	Groups	Sig.
A1	Int	.262	A2	Int	.524
	Iso	.010		Iso	.060
	Con	.290		Con	.058
A3	Int	.797	Ad1	Int	.136
	Iso	.031		Iso	.004
	Con	.080		Con	.086

In short, the results of the Mixed ANOVA show that the Isolated group outperformed the other two groups in terms of accuracy and adequacy, being the impact of the latter found in both within- and between-group comparisons – which reinforces the nature of the impact. The Integrated group, in their turn, outperformed the control group in terms of adequacy, when their performance in Task B was compared with the control groups'. And the control group produced the lowest performance, since no significant improvement was found. The control group, though, approached significance in two accuracy measures and the adequacy measure, which may indicate an improvement at the level of accuracy and a decrease at the level of adequacy in Task B. All in all, these results may indicate that the two types of treatments, even though they presented different levels of improvement, may have a positive effect on strategic planning and, as a consequence, on speech performance.

4.2.4. Mixed ANOVA for Adequacy Scrutinization Purposes

This subsection aims at scrutinizing adequacy, which is adopted as an additional speech dimension - represented by one measure - along with complexity, accuracy, and fluency in this study. Traditionally, most

studies on strategic planning only employ measures related to complexity, accuracy, and fluency; however, these measures may leave some qualitative and discourse-oriented aspects of speech performance unattended such as task completion and task type, for instance. In this sense, the adoption of such dimension was opted in order to bring this qualitative view to the analysis of speech performance.

As already explained in the Method chapter, the adequacy measure was proceduralized as an assessment table composed by 5 remarks: (1) The story is well organized – It has beginning, middle, and end; (2) The story is interesting – It catches my attention; (3) The lexical choices used by the narrator are understandable and compatible to the story; (4) The story is clear – It is easy to understand; (5) The rhythm and speed the narrator tells the story is good. For each remark, raters were asked to provide a score from 0 to 5, being 0 very poor and 5 very good. In the end, the final score was the sum of the 5 individual scores. Even though adequacy measure was conceptualized as the sum of all these criteria, a Mixed ANOVA was run for each individual score in order to examine which criteria was most affected: (1) structure, (2) appeal, (3) vocabulary, (4) clarity, and (5) fluency.

As already presented, the results of Factor analysis (in section 4.2.1) show that adequacy can be characterized as a separated dimension, which indicates that it measures different aspects of speech performance, besides the ones measured by complexity, accuracy and fluency. The issue, though, lies on understanding which specific aspect(s) of adequacy was/were more salient, since five features were analyzed. Table 22 shows the results of the interactions among tasks and groups and it is possible to see that it was found (almost) significant differences in vocabulary ($F=8.687$ - $p. 0.006$), structure ($F=6.575$ - $p. 0.004$) and clarity ($F=5.973$ - $p. 0.006$), and appeal ($F=3.159$ - $p. 0.056$). These results indicate that there are significant differences between task and group pairwise comparisons.

Table 23
Tests of Within-Subject Contrasts

Source	Aspects	F	Sig.	Source	Aspects	F	Sig.
Task	Struct	.864	.360	Task*Groups	Struct	6.57	.004
	Appeal	1.38	.249		Appeal	3.24	.052
	Vocab	8.68	.006		Vocab	3.15	.056
	Clarity	1.17	.287		Clarity	5.97	.006
	Fluenc	1.43	.240		Fluenc	2.07	.142

Interestingly, fluency was the only adequacy feature that did not present any significant differences. Even though fluency as part of adequacy measure was assessed by raters' perception of fluent speech, it is the only adequacy feature that assesses aspects that are similar to the ones assessed by the fluency measures of the other dimensions. This relation is not quite clear when it comes to complexity and accuracy dimensions, in which no adequacy features can be directly related to their measures. If this similarity is taken into consideration, it is possible to see that this lack of impact in adequacy fluency may be in line with the lack of impact in fluency measures. Running a partial correlation analysis between the fluency measures and the fluency scores, a moderate and significant correlation, shown in Table 23, can be found between the following pairs FluencyA/F1A (0.554), FluencyA/F2A (0.592), FluencyB/F1B (0.639), and FluencyB/F2B (0.636).

Table 24

Results of moderate correlation between fluency measures

	F1A	F2A	F1B	F2B
FluencyA	0.554	0.592	x	x
FluencyB	x	x	0.639	0.636

x = low correlation

These moderate correlations may reinforce the connection between adequacy fluency and fluency measures, more specifically the ones concerned with speech rate. This may indicate, even if speculatively, that raters' fluency perception is coherent with how speech rate measures are assessed. This result highlights the validity of speech rate measures that have been employed in strategic planning studies. On the other hand, the fact that four adequacy features did not have a more direct connection with measures of another dimension may support the claim of adequacy being an independent dimension.

Returning to the comparative analysis of the adequacy aspects, Table 24 shows the significant differences between group pairwise comparisons. As it is possible to observe, the integrated and isolated groups outperformed the control group in terms of structure, appeal, and clarity. This means that the experimental groups produced well structured (with a clear beginning, middle, and end), appealing, and clear stories. The results of the task pairwise comparison in Table 25 show that not only the control group underperformed the experimental groups, but they also decreased in terms of structure and clarity.

Table 25
Groups comparison – Task B

Aspects	Groups	Groups	Sig.
Structure	Int	Iso	.942
		Con	.156
	Iso	Int	.942
		Con	.013
	Con	Int	.156
		Iso	.013
Appeal	Int	Iso	1.000
		Con	.054
	Iso	Int	1.000
		Con	.018
	Con	Int	.054
		Iso	.018
Clarity	Int	Iso	1.000
		Con	.011
	Iso	Int	1.000
		Con	.003
	Con	Int	.011
		Iso	.003

Table 26
Pairwise Comparison – Comparison of Tasks A and B in each group

Aspects	Groups	Sig.	Measure	Groups	Sig.
Structure	Int	.534	Appeal	Int	.282
	Iso	.005		Iso	.034
	Con	.041		Con	.191
Vocabulary	Int	.027	Clarity	Int	.313
	Iso	.004		Iso	.009
	Con	.723		Con	.049

These prominent differences between the Control and the Isolated groups, regarding their stories' structure, appeal and clarity, can be clearly seen in the stories' transcriptions below. Contrasting the first and second stories produced by a participant of the Control group (Con1) and one of the Isolated group (Iso4), at first glance, it is possible to observe that Con1 presented a briefer story in Task B, while Iso4

produced a slightly longer story in Task B. By reading the stories, it becomes more evident that while in the first story produced by Con1 she presents a story with beginning, middle, and end, the same does not occur in Task B. This structural difference is not present in the story produced by Iso4. This lack of information in Con1's story may have led her story to become less clear and as a consequence less interesting for the raters. This same pattern can be seen in other participants' stories. Another indication that structure was the leading aspect followed by clarity and appeal was the raters' verbalizations while assessing the tasks. They mentioned quite often that some stories were "more complete" or "more well-structured" than others.

Con1 – Task A - |This is a history about one man :: that loves Mary| the man loved Mary| and he offered some gifts for her| first of all a ring, after a jewel and a dress| but Mary didn't like the gifts| and the man was dissapointed| some times after this moment the man found another person| a simpatic person :: that loves his| and they got married| and they bought a special car| and in some situations they meet Mary| Mary was alone| and the couple were happy| and Mary stay a little bored :: I think| but this is the end of the history|

Con1 – Task B - |A cat called Jerry :: falled in love to Rose| but Rose had a boyfriend| and Jerry saw the couple together| very very happy| and after that Jerry was very depressive| I think :: Rose loved your boyfriend|

Iso4 – Task A - |the history is about a guy :: that wanted to go out with a girl| but the girl didn't care about he| so he started to bring presents to her| but she still didn't care about| in the end of the history he appears with his car with a girl| and cuz he gave up the first girl| and that's it|

Iso4 – Task B - |There are two cats; Tom and a black cat| They are trying to get the attention of a girl| That girl is a female cat| so everything that Tom does :: the black cat does it better| Tom appears with a car| but the black cat appears with a better and more expensive car| and after all the girl stays with the black cat| and Tom get sad| and he are crying and drinking milk :: cuz the the girl doesn't want to stay with him|

These results reinforce the fact that adequacy may be employed as an additional dimension, which deals, at least in this study, with discourse-oriented aspects, such as textual structure along with more qualitative aspects of speech performance. Furthermore, these results may shed some light on the fact that the control group had an almost significant improvement regarding accuracy when comparing task performances as was presented in the previous section. Considering that Control group's narratives did not present a well-organized and complete structure, lacking particularly middle elements, the number of words in their stories, consequently, was smaller, reducing the possibility of making mistakes.

In short, adequacy as it was conceptualized and proceduralized in this study appears to be a reliable measure to represent an extra speech dimension as well as assess discursive and qualitative aspects of speech performance. The measure seems to have initially grasped structural aspects of the oral stories, which may seem related to clarity and appealing aspects, considering that a well structured oral text may be clearer and more appealing to the listener. Furthermore, the results offered some explanation to results concerning the control group's performance. Next, the results of the qualitative analysis are reported.

4.3. QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

The qualitative analysis is concerned with the examination and interpretation of the information of the post-task questionnaires filled up by the participants after their performance in both tasks. Questionnaire A posed 7 questions, which were concerned with the level of difficulty of the task, the benefit of planning time, strategies employed during planning time, aspects learners focused on during task performance, the lack of interlocutor, evaluation of task performance, and processes participants underwent while telling the story. Questionnaire B posed the same question of Questionnaire A in addition to two additional questions concerned with the benefit of the instructional sessions (for the experimental groups) and the performance of a similar task. Thus, the main purpose of this analysis is to establish participants' perception on the tasks, conditions, and instructional sessions, triangulating with the results from the quantitative data whenever possible.

4.3.1. Post-task questionnaires

The objective of this subsection is to present and discuss participants' answers to the post-task questionnaires. As there were three different groups in the study, for understanding the impact of the two different types of instructional sessions, the analysis of each group will be presented separately so that a clearer picture can be depicted. After presenting the individual analyses, a comparative analysis is conducted in order to account for the groups' differences.

4.3.1.1. Integrated group

In Task A, eight out of eleven participants reported that having time to plan their tasks was beneficial, and their main justification was the fact that planning time allowed them to prepare and organize the story. Participant Int11 even acknowledged that "without this time the task would have been much more difficult". On the other hand, the three other participants did not have the same impression. They claimed that planning time only confused them, because they could not remember what they had written during planning time. Expectedly, these three participants judged the task as being a difficult one, while other participants signaled the task as easy or reasonable.

The participants reported a range of strategies they used during planning time. They were the following: describing the general context of the story, imagining the story, writing the entire story, practicing the story, using precise vocabulary, worrying about verb tenses, remembering vocabulary, memorizing what was written, and remembering the images. Furthermore, the aspect participants were most concerned with while telling the story was avoiding mistakes, as reported by 9 out of 11 them. Some of them also stated that they were concerned about speaking fast, remembering general ideas and the planned story, and also using elaborate language. When asked to evaluate their productions, only three participants did it positively, saying that the story was interesting and satisfying; however, at the same time they pointed out some aspects they could have improved such as their difficulties for remembering some words.

In Task B, ten participants claimed that performing a similar task assisted them in the performance of Task B. They explained that they felt more comfortable with the task and the procedures and that they could correct the mistakes they made in the former task. The only participant that claimed the opposite explained that the stories' contents

were different. The planning time was seen as positive by all the participants. Some even pointed out the strategies they learned in the instructional questions as a helpful aspect for the planning time. The same perception can be seen for the instructional sessions. Participants stated that the instructional sessions assisted them in organizing better the planning time, using strategies they had not used before. Participant Int3 wrote that he searched for the words, substituted the words he didn't know, while Participant Int5 claimed that rehearsal was a good strategy for him. Concerning task evaluation, no participant seemed to be satisfied with the task outcome.

In a nutshell, it is possible to observe that most participants acknowledged the benefit of planning in Task A, while all of them considered planning positive in Task B. This twist seems to be due to the repetition of a similar task and also due to the instructional sessions participants received during their regular English classes. Participants claimed that the instructional sessions assisted them in using the planning time in a different way, using the strategies they learned. Moreover, it is possible to see the participants' concern in making mistakes, using complex and fluent language as well as presenting a clear and understandable story.

4.3.1.2. Isolated group

In Task A, not all the participants from the Isolated group seem to recognize the benefit of planning time. Three out of 12 participants claimed that planning time was not positive because they could not remember what they had planned, as can be seen in the voice of Participant Iso4: "(I) spent time trying to remember what was planned". However, in this group only two participants that had not benefited from planning time did not classify the task as a difficult one. The other participants signaled the task as being easy or reasonable. The strategies used by the participants during planning time were the following: writing the entire story, rehearsing by reading, translating the sentences from Portuguese, remembering the images, and thinking about vocabulary and verb tenses.

The aspects participants were most concerned with while telling the story were the following: avoiding mistakes and pauses, telling a clear story, and remembering what was planned, being avoiding mistakes the aspect mentioned by most participants. Eleven out of 12 participants claimed that the lack of an interlocutor was positive or indifferent. Only one participant said it was negative, explaining that the

task would be easier if it was told to someone (Participant Iso5). When asked to evaluate their stories, only two participants did that positively, saying that their story was good and funny. Finally, participants reported the following processes they engaged in during task performance: avoiding mistakes, remembering what was planned, forgetting what was planned, following the planned order.

In Task B, five participants provided the same classification for the level of difficulty as in Task A, three participants found the second task easier than the first one, and four participants considered this task more difficult than the first one. Nine participants claimed that performing Task A assisted them in performing Task B, while the other three participants answered that it was indifferent. Regarding the opportunity to plan, all participants considered it beneficial, explaining that it helped them better organize the story. The strategies participants used during planning time were the following: writing topics, writing a summary of the story, writing short sentences, drawing, underlying topic words, adding details, rehearsing by reading, and revising the story.

Eleven out of 12 participants also recognized the positive impact of the instructional session on the planning time and the task performance. Participant Iso5 explains that this time he decided to write topics and it was better. Participant Iso6 wrote that she used the same strategies she used in Task A, but this time she added one strategy she learned and it was helpful. Only one participant claimed that the instructional session was indifferent, because he has facility with this type of task. Regarding their self-evaluation of the stories, no participant considered their story good. In general, they said that the story was simple. Finally, the aspects participants believed to have affected the performance were: remembering what was planned, tranquility, speaking naturally, and feeling more comfortable.

In sum, it was possible to observe that participants perceived the impact of the instructional session on the planning time and task performance. Even though participants used a range of strategies in Task A, they claimed to have used the strategies they learned. Moreover, they also recognized the effect of repeating a similar task.

4.3.1.3. Control group

Regarding Task A, all of the 11 participants considered the level of difficulty of the first task reasonable. Their perception on the benefit of the planning time was also unanimous. Participant Con10 acknowledged that he gets too anxious when speaking, so planning

diminished this pressure. Some participants, though, pointed out that even though planning was positive, they had some difficulties. Participant Con4 claimed that planning was not enough to make her feel safe while telling the story. During planning time, participants reported using the following strategies: writing keywords and sequence of facts, writing the entire story, editing the story, rehearsing mentally, elaborating sentences, thinking about vocabulary and verb tenses, and remembering the images.

The aspects participants were most concerned with were: verb tenses, sentence structures, mistakes, pronunciation, not thinking too much, simple and easy to memorize vocabulary, and pausing. Avoiding mistakes, though, was the aspect which almost all the participants mentioned. The lack of an interlocutor when retelling the story was seen by half of the participants as positive and by the other half as indifferent. Participant Con2 explained that not having anyone to tell the story made him feel less distressed. Regarding participants' evaluation of the produced task, only 3 participants considered their story good, the other participants evaluated their story as too simple, silly, and reasonable. Finally, the processes participants allegedly underwent were the following: problems with verbs and sentences, remembering the images and what was planned, and telling the story clearly.

Regarding Task B, ten participants considered the task reasonable and only one claimed it was easy. Eight participants explained that doing a similar task was positive, mainly because they already knew the procedures. The other participants claimed that they felt the same difficulties as in the first task. Con11 explained that the anxiety was the same. Unlike Task A, two participants stated that planning this time was not very positive. Con5 claimed that there was not much time for planning, while Con11 acknowledged that planning assisted him in organizing his ideas, but he could not remember what he had planned. The strategies participants used in Task B were basically the same they reported using in Task A, except for rehearsing by reading. By the same token, the aspects participants were most concerned with during task performance were the same from Task A, being avoiding mistakes the aspect most cited by the participants.

Like Task A, the participants did not make a positive evaluation of their stories, except by two participants that considered their stories interesting. The other participants considered their stories simple, reasonable, and with few details. In this questionnaire, participants were asked to reflect upon the aspects of speech production that were most affected by the planning time, and they were the following: the story

organizing, the use of verbs, the possibility to provide a name for the characters, faster speech, a more elaborated story, pronunciation, and anxiety reduction.

In short, participants from the control group, who produced two tasks under planning condition and did not receive any type of instruction, seemed to have benefited from planning time, according to their views. They also used a relatively large number of strategies during planning time, which may indicate that participants already present a large of strategies they may use while planning. There were no considerable differences in their perception on the performance of both tasks, except the fact that they see the performance of a similar task as a positive aspect. This is also an indication of practice effect, which was mentioned in the quantitative analysis.

4.3.1.4. Comparative analysis

By comparing the perceptions of the participants from the three groups, it is possible to point out some similarities and differences, and also to reach some conclusions. Apparently, the three groups perceived the performance of Task A similarly, and acknowledged the benefit of planning time. In general, the most used strategy in the first task was ‘writing the entire story’, which can also be confirmed by examining participants’ drafts. This result is in line with the one presented by Specht and D’Ely (2017). This strategy does not seem to be a positive one in this context, because learners end up spending the entire planning time writing a story with many details and when they have to retell it, without the access to the planning draft, they do not remember it, having to improvise a new story. This puts a burden on learners’ attentional resources, which runs counter one to the goals of strategic planning²¹. Moreover, this interpretation is also in consonance with Pang and Skehan (2014), who explained that attempting to do too much during planning time does not seem positive to speech performance. Therefore, using planning time to write the entire story does not only seem to be a negative strategy, but also may interfere in the speech performance negatively.

Notwithstanding the fact that ‘writing the entire story’ was the most employed strategy, it is possible to see that participants also used

²¹ Studies (Crookes, 1989, Foster, 1996, to cite but a few) which leave learners to plan without any guidance generally instruct their participants not to write the entire story. Nevertheless, as one of my purposes was to understand whether learners would use the planning condition strategically, I decided not to provide such instruction to my participants.

other strategies. Not all the participants were unsatisfied with their performances. This may indicate that they were successful in using the planning time at their favor. Moreover, all the strategies reported by the participants in Task A corroborate the strategies brought by Guarátavares' (2008) and Ortega's (2005) participants. Even though participants were left to plan Task A at their own without any instructional assistance, most of them had already a range of strategies to use. It would be interesting to identify where participants learned these strategies and why. They may have transferred these strategies from planning on their first language and also from other oral activities.

Differences are higher for Task B, especially considering the use of strategies during planning time. As it was expected, participants from the treatment groups employed the strategies they were taught, while the participants from the control group basically used the same strategies they used in Task A. It is also possible to see that some participants of the control group continued 'writing the entire story' and having trouble with remembering the story during task performance, which does not occur with participants in the experimental groups. Therefore, it may indicate an impact of instruction on planning time for those who used a supposed negative strategy when planning. The slight improvement in the participants from the control group in the performance of Task B seems to be due to practice effect, as it was already mentioned previously. The same effect may be present in the experimental groups; however it is not quite visible because participants acknowledged the impact of instruction. This is to say that even though practice effect played a role in the performance of Task B, the instructional impact seemed to be higher according to participants' perception.

Apparently, on terms of perception and strategy use report, it was not possible to find differences between the two types of instruction. Both groups increased their use of strategies from Task A to Task B and they pointed out the positive role of instruction.

In conclusion, it is possible to see an impact of instruction on the way participants face strategic planning. Even though a great part of the participants already took advantage of the planning condition, they seemed to reflect upon the use of strategies and also attempted to use the new strategies they learned, perceiving a benefit in doing so. Participants that initially wrote the entire story understood that it was not a good strategy and applied other strategies after instruction, which was not the case of participants in the control group, that did the same. They persisted in using the same strategy. These results points out to the benefit of instruction considering participants' perception and the use of

strategy. Instruction also led participants to reflect on the process of planning and speaking. This does not corroborate Kellermann (1991), who claimed that there is no use of teaching learners strategies, since they may use the strategies they transfer from their first language. Even though participants had a range of strategies, they included new strategies in this range. Next, the results of both quantitative and qualitative analyses are discussed under the light of the theoretical groundwork in which this study is based on.

4.4. DISCUSSION

The general perspective brought by this study is that simply providing learners with the opportunity to plan their tasks without any type of assistance may not be sufficient to cause an impact on their oral task performance, because learners may not be familiar with the strategic planning condition and/or they may not know what to do during planning time, as suggested by D'Ely (2006), who found no beneficial impact for planning group compared to the control group. As follows, it is believed that the pre-task condition can be enhanced by teaching learners strategies they can use during planning time, and, as a consequence, learners may take more advantage of the planning time, improving, then, their speech performance. Moreover, this study also lays on two other minor premises. It is believed (i) that instruction on strategic planning can be part of the English classroom, integrated in the regular lessons or as (an) isolated lesson(s), and (ii) that the task performances can be further scrutinized with the adoption of an extra measure – adequacy –, which may investigate different aspects of oral production.

The results of both quantitative and qualitative analyses have shed some light on the premises previously presented. In general terms, it is possible to claim that instruction has, indeed, a role in contributing to planned speech performance, and that it can be administered both within regular English lessons and as an isolated lesson. Furthermore, the use of adequacy seems to be an efficient measure in assessing aspects of oral production not grasped by the traditional measures – complexity, accuracy, and fluency. In spite of the enlightening results, there are still some issues that must be further explained and discussed under the light of the theoretical framework adopted by this study.

Initially, considering the two types of instruction administered in this study, it was possible to observe that both of them (integrated and isolated) caused an impact on planned speech performance, which may

suggest that instruction has a role on enhancing strategic planning, thus, improving, as a consequence, speech performance, as pointed out previously. At the outset, this result is in line with studies in the area of strategy instruction (Ayaduray & Jacobs, 1997; Holunga, 1998; O'Malley *et al.*, 1985, and Rossi, 2006), which provided evidence for the benefit of strategy instruction to oral performance. Although the field of strategy instruction does not have enough evidential support regarding the efficiency of strategy instruction and acquisition, for instance, such result is important to reinforce the positive role of strategy instruction on, at least, improving speech production, especially considering that the few but all studies on strategy instruction and speech production have presented positive evidence so far. However, notwithstanding the positive result, each type of instruction did not seem to affect speech performance with the same strength. Isolated instruction caused an impact on speech performance at the level of both accuracy (p. 0.01 – A1; p. 0.031 – A3 within-group comparison) and adequacy (p. 0.005 and p. 0.004, between and within group comparisons respectively), while integrated instruction only affected adequacy (p. 0.025 between-group comparison).

This difference may indicate that isolated strategy instruction had a stronger effect in comparison to the integrated one. A possible explanation for that may be related to the degree and the amount of attention that each type of instruction demanded from learners. The strategy instruction delivered to the integrated group was manipulated to be part of its regular English classes, administered during the oral activities. Prior to each oral activity, learners were given some time to plan and were told how to plan it, and after the activities, learners were led to reflect upon the use of the strategies. In opposition, the isolated group spent an entire lesson working with strategies they could use for planning purposes. The learners were presented to the strategies one at a time, and for each strategy they performed an activity specifically designed for the strategy's practice. It is clear that the emphasis on the strategy teaching was higher for the isolated group, which may have led learners to focus more attention on the strategies, thus learning them faster, as explained by advocators of the isolated strategy instruction (Trendak, 2015). In addition, even though both types of instruction aimed at presenting, practicing and discussing the strategies explicitly, having an entire lesson available to work with the strategies seems to highlight the importance of the content.

Nevertheless, no study, to the best of my knowledge, has investigated the difference between the two types of instruction in order

to understand which one is more efficient. Oxford (2011) only mentions examples of isolated and integrated strategy instruction programs and points out that all of them are successful in promoting better language learning and performance. However, studies, properly speaking, that investigated the impact of strategy instruction on oral performance adopted isolated types of instruction, which allows more control of the experiments²². This discussion remains on hypothetical terms, strongly driven by pedagogical reasons. Advocators of isolated type of instruction claim that focusing learners' attention on solely learning strategies leads them to learn faster as pointed out previously; while advocators of integrated type of instruction explain that inserting strategy instruction within regular classes is a more organic way of teaching strategies and may lead learners to assimilate the strategy better, since they would learn a specific strategy when they really needed it. Nonetheless, regardless the differences, both types of instructions produced an impact on speech performance, at least considering immediate effects. More research would be necessary to understand the lasting effects of this impact.

It is worth highlighting, though, that the impact of the integrated instruction, at least regarding quantitative analysis, was only possible to be identified by the adoption of adequacy as an extra measure to assess speech performance. If only complexity, accuracy, and fluency measures had been used, no difference between the integrated and the control groups would have been found. This would have been considered a lack of efficiency for the integrated instruction, and by all means it was not the case. When analyzing the task outcomes, the treatment groups presented stories that were better structured in Task B, and this aspect of speech performance was only possible to be brought into view and identified with the adoption of an adequacy measure, which has proven, at least in this study, to be an efficient measure, representative of an extra speech dimension. Speculatively, one may wonder whether the studies on strategic planning that did not show any impact of the pre-task condition on speech performance in terms of the traditional measures improved on different aspects that were not covered, such as a clear outcome with a better structured text, for instance. In addition, it is important to highlight that the fact that stories were better, overall, might indicate that learners' primary focus is on

²² As the integrated strategy instruction is embedded in the regular lessons, there are more variables to be controlled such as learners' attendance. If learners miss lessons, it is necessary to consider whether you shall use him/her as a participant.

meaning rather than on form (VanPatten, 1990), which has been advocated in the field of Task-based approach.

Furthermore, as both groups presented more adequate language after the treatments, it may be suggested that the strategies taught during the instructional sessions led students to use their planning times to better organize their narratives, presenting stories with well-defined beginning, middle and end. The qualitative analysis showed a change in the strategies use of the participants from the treatment groups from Task A to Task B. Participants of both groups, after instruction, avoided writing down their entire stories during planning time and, instead, organized them in topics, applying the 'organization planning' strategy. This swift of strategies is in consonance with Specht and D'Ely's (2017) results and it may be seen as a positive impact of instruction. The authors explain that if learners use their planning time to write down their entire stories, they end up using their attentional resources to recall what they had written. Some participants even complained they had to come up with new pieces of stories, since they did not remember what was planned. In addition, D'Ely (2006) highlighted that "the processes of pre-planned writing and on-line oral performance are very different in nature (p. 183)". Writing and speaking require different processing styles; thus, this swift of style may also be the responsible of imposing a burden on learners' attentional resources while performing a task. In this sense, writing down the entire story, then, does not seem to be a positive strategy when planning a then-and-there narrative task, because the pre-task condition does not assist learners in diminishing the attentional resources, and they end up not focusing on producing more fluent, complex, accurate and adequate outcomes.

Furthermore, Pang and Skehan (2014) emphasized that depending on the type of planning activity²³ learners engage in; their performance may be lower or higher. In general terms, the authors explained that high performance is associated with (a) organizing the story, (b) being realistic on what to plan, (c) dealing with a problem when it occurs, (d) planning small or specific, and (e) avoiding a grammar focus, while a low performance is related to being over-ambitious and wanting to do too much during the planning time. The qualitative results of this study are in line with this scenario. Participants wanting to use 10 minutes of

²³ Pang and Skehan (2014) used the term activity instead of strategy, because in their study, they used a coding, different from the one proposed by the strategy field, to identify what their participants did during planning time. They justified this decision based on the fact that strategies are usually related to language learning, while strategic planning is related to oral production. Their coding, therefore, followed Levelt's speech production model (1989).

the planning time to write down an entire story may be seen as an ambitious and overwhelming choice. In addition, the strategies participants used after treatment seem to fit in the types of activities associated with higher performance.

Even though the general impact of the instructional sessions seems to be on adequacy, it cannot be forgotten that the isolated group also improved their accuracy level, that is, it produced less mistakes in Task B compared to Task A. This indicates that learners used their attentional resources both to deliver a well structured story and to monitor their speech during online performance. Even if speculatively, this also may be an indication of a trade-off effect between complexity and accuracy. Although no significant result was found for complexity, the Isolated group decreased their number of subordinate clauses from Task A to Task B as it was presented in the descriptive analysis (from 1.44 to 1.32²⁴). Skehan and Foster (2001) explain that when learners are concerned about not making mistakes, they avoid using more elaborated language. By the same token, in contexts where learners do not seem to be worried about making mistakes, they tend to produce more elaborated language.

Moving the discussion to a strategic planning perspective, studies on the area have brought varied results regarding the impact of the pre-task condition on speech performance. In general, fluency seems to be the most affected dimension, while there is a trade-off effect between complexity and accuracy, in which the latter seems to be less impacted (Ellis, 2005; 2009). In this study, the Mixed ANOVA's results, more specifically considering the impact of strategic planning on accuracy, did not follow this pattern. The Isolated group did not improve their performance in terms of fluency and complexity, which can be a suggestion of a trade-off effect, as pointed out in the previous paragraph. Nevertheless, other explanations may be suitable as well.

At first sight, this deviation from the standard results in the area would be expected, since this study did not have a non-planning condition as a comparative basis like other studies in the field. There was a contrast between an unguided strategic planning condition and an instructed but still unguided strategic planning condition. Therefore, no claim on the difference between non-planning and planning conditions can be raised here, as it was done by Specht and D'Ely (2017), for

²⁴ This number represents the index of subordination in the speech sample. The calculation was made by dividing the number of independent and dependent clauses by the number of AS-units. If the index number is 1, it means that the story does not have any subordination - and the higher this number, the higher the amount of subordination in the story.

instance. In their case, the participants performed three narrative tasks under three conditions: non-planning, planning, and planning after instruction. There was no difference between the non-planning and planning conditions in terms of accuracy, which suggested that providing time or not for planning did not affect accuracy. In this study, on the other hand, all the performances, Tasks A and B, were planned, which does not open room to recognize whether participants benefited from the planning condition in Task A.

However, in spite of having or not benefited from strategic planning in Task A, it is possible to observe that the treatments, especially the isolated one, assisted learners in improving the use of the planning condition, and as a consequence, it produced an impact on the groups' speech performance. This, by itself, may suggest that learners were not taking advantage of the pre-task condition to its best in Task A; regardless the impact strategic planning may have had on Task A. Qualitative results shed some light in this issue and provided indications that learners may have benefited from strategic planning in Task A. Most participants claimed that the pre-task condition was positive to the task performance, recognizing that, without it, the task would have been much more difficult. However, at same time, some participants explained that the planning time confused them in Task A. Such complaint was not found in the post-task questionnaires B.

Notwithstanding the methodological issue presented previously, the impact of strategic planning on accuracy observed in the Isolated group seems to follow the pattern of a few studies that provided their participants with some type of instruction on how to plan. In special, the results corroborate Foster and Skehan (1999), D'Ely (2011), and Specht and D'Ely (2017). These studies have shown that enhancing strategic planning may lead to an impact on accuracy. Both Foster and Skehan and D'Ely dealt with teacher-led planning, while Specht and D'Ely, like this study, provided learners with isolated strategy instruction on how to plan. It seems that, as pointed out by Foster and Skehan (1999), the role of a mediator (in the studies' case, a teacher) channels learners' attention to focus on the language used in the task. In this study, specifically, strategies such as monitoring and paraphrasing have the purpose of having participants reflect upon the language they would use in the task, which corroborates Foster and Skehan's explanation.

It seems that strategy instruction on how to plan has a relation with teacher-led planning, at least considering the impact on accuracy. In Foster and Skehan's case, the teacher-led group produced more accurate language regarding the percentage of error-free clauses

compared to the group that planned individually and without any instruction, which can be related to the results presented in this study. Foster and Skehan (1999) explained “(...) that a teacher-organized planning session does lead to more control over the language used” (p. 239). Even though, in this study, participants did not receive teachers’ assistance during planning time, they received training sessions on how to plan. These training sessions provided them with strategies that assisted them in getting more control over the use of language, similar to a teacher-led planning. Foster and Skehan highlight that teacher-led planning “is more standardized; and it is likely to introduce a greater level of efficiency to all learners since it is the product of preparation on a teacher’s part, and a greater degree of organization” (p. 223). In a way, when a teacher teaches learners specific strategies they may use for a specific task, he or she is providing a pattern on things that are possible to do, which also brings a degree of organization.

These similar results may also suggest some pedagogical reflection upon the role of the teacher during planning time. Clearly, in the classroom, there is space for both types of planning: teacher-led and instructional sessions; however, strategies instruction provides tools for learners to pursue activities and reach objectives on their own, becoming less dependent on the teacher, which is the goal of instruction after all. Moreover, strategy instruction also promotes reflection on the language use in general, equipping learners with strategies that they may also use in their daily lives.

By performing a similar task, learners attempted to overcome difficulties and problems they had in the first task. The treatment groups could benefit from the strategies and the reflection that the instructional sessions promoted, while the control group was left on their own. Even though the control group’s intention was to present a better story compared to the first one, they ended up using similar strategies they used in the first task. An interesting phenomenon was the reduction in the length of the story. In general, the control group presented briefer stories, which may have been a strategy they adopted to cope with recalling what they had planned. On the day of the data collection for Task B, some participants from the control group claimed that a better story is a briefer one²⁵.

Even though no significant results were found for the control group, significance was approached for two measures of accuracy, and at the same time, there was a decrease in adequacy. Some speculative

²⁵ Notes from my research diary.

explanations may be possible here. Even though the control group did not receive any type of instruction, they performed two similar tasks both under planning condition. The improvement in terms of accuracy may have been a result of task familiarity. Another reason may be their poor performance in Task A, which opened more room for improvement. Considering percentage of error-free clauses in Task A, for instance, the control group presented only 26% of error-free clauses, while the isolated and the integrated group 35% and 39%, respectively. And, finally, there may be a trade-off effect between accuracy and adequacy, considering that they produced a less adequate performance in Task B.

The other studies that offered some type of assistance for strategic planning do not seem to follow the same pattern regarding the impact on accuracy. Foster and Skehan (1996) did not present any difference between the group that received metacognitive advice on how to plan compared to the one that did not. Sangarun (2005) did not show any difference between the groups that received instruction on form, meaning, and form/meaning; however, he pointed out that the form/meaning group presented a more balanced performance. As regards Foster and Skehan (1996), the guided group presented an impact on fluency and complexity, which may have decentralized their attention from accuracy. In addition, unlike D'Ely (2011), Foster and Skehan (1999), and Specht and D'Ely (2017), which provided a more general and enveloping assistance, Foster and Skehan (1996) and Sangarun (2005) offered more shallow and directed orientations, respectively.

Finally, one last issue that must be taken into consideration when understanding the impact of strategic planning and/or strategy instruction on how to plan is learners' L2 linguistic knowledge. In this study, participants had an intermediate proficiency in English, their L2, and they did not receive any type of linguistic assistance when going through strategic planning and the task performance itself. They made use of their own linguistic resources, which were incomplete. D'Ely (2006) explained that the amount of linguistic knowledge a learner has may have an impact on how they perform a task. In this sense, their linguistic competence may determine "the extent to which learners may perform better" (p. 206).

4.5. RESEARCH QUESTIONS ANSWERED

This section aims at answering the research questions that guided this study. By doing so, this section also summarizes the results and discussions presented in this chapter.

4.5.1. Research question 1

Does strategic planning after instructional sessions produce an impact on students' L2 oral performance at the level of fluency, complexity, accuracy, and adequacy, regardless the type of instruction?

Partially. The quantitative results showed that strategic planning was enhanced by both types of instruction, affecting, consequently, speech performance; however the impact was limited to accuracy and adequacy measures. No statistical significant differences were found for complexity and fluency measures, which is not a common phenomenon in studies on strategic planning. In general, accuracy is the least affected dimension, which is justified by the fact that learners' attentional resources are meaning-driven (VanPatten, 1990). Nevertheless, in addition to giving learners time to prepare their task, strategic planning also opens an opportunity for learners to focus on form (Ortega, 1999). The analysis showed that instruction may have led learners on focus to linguistic aspects of their performance.

4.5.2. Research question 2

Is there a difference between the two types of instruction – isolated and integrated – in terms of benefits for planned speech performance?

Yes. Even though both types of instruction managed to enhance strategic planning and, consequently, task performance, significant differences were found between both of them. The group that received isolated instruction improved its performance in terms of accuracy and adequacy; while the group that received integrated instruction improved its performance only at the level of adequacy. This may suggest that the isolated instruction is stronger than the integrated one, which was explained by the level of attention each type of instruction might require from learners. Participants of the isolated group received an entire lesson on strategies they could use during planning time, whereas, participants of the integrated group received brief sessions on how to plan during the oral activities in their regular English lessons. It is worth mentioning, though, that this study did not investigate long-term effects

of the instructional sessions. The results are based on an immediate impact of instruction.

4.5.3. Research question 3

What are the implications of the use of adequacy as a dimension to assess speech performance?

Quantitative results and analysis showed that adequacy may be included as an additional dimension of speech performance. The adequacy measure proved to assess discourse-oriented aspects of narrative tasks, which were not grasped by CAF measures. By further examining adequacy, it was possible to identify that it assessed text structure, story appeal, and clarity. That is, participants that improved their outcomes in terms of adequacy presented better organized narratives with beginning, middle, and end information. As a consequence, their stories were more appealing and clear to the raters. Moreover, differences between the integrated and the control groups were only possible to be grasped because of the adequacy measure. In other words, if adequacy was not adopted in this study, there would not be any differences between the two groups, which would lead to the conclusion that the integrated type of instruction caused no impact on participants' oral performance.

4.5.4. Research question 4

What are learners' perceptions on the instructional sessions, both integrated and isolated, and the opportunity to plan before and after instruction?

Participants of both experimental groups reported similar perceptions on the use of strategic planning before and after instruction, and the instructional treatment. Regarding strategic planning, participants claimed that the pre-task condition was beneficial for the performance of both task; however, unlike in Task B, some participants complained that, in Task A, they had some problems during planning time. These problems were identified as being a lack of familiarity with strategic planning and also as the use of negative strategies that did not assist them in taking advantage of the pre-task condition. Moreover, participants' evaluation of their task performance in Task B presented some improvement. Regarding the instructional sessions, participants were also unanimous in agreeing its positive impact.

CHAPTER 5

FINAL REMARKS

5.1. INTRODUCTION

The objective of this chapter is to summarize the main findings of the present study. Therefore, it is divided into 4 sections. The first section is the introduction. Section 5.2 presents the main findings obtained from both quantitative and qualitative analyses of data. Section 5.3 features the research limitations as well as suggestions for future research. Finally, section 5.4 highlights the pedagogical implications of this study, wrapping up this doctoral dissertation.

5.2. MAIN FINDINGS

The main findings, obtained from both quantitative and qualitative analyses, are the following:

- Finding 1: Both types of strategy instruction – integrated and isolated – designed to teach participants strategies they could use during strategic planning affected participants’ oral performance positively, which may indicate that instruction has a role in enhancing the planning condition and, as a result, the oral performance.

- Finding 2: The isolated type of instruction had a stronger effect than the integrated one. Statistical analysis presented significant differences in terms of accuracy and adequacy for the isolated group, while the integrated group only presented significant differences at the level of adequacy. Such difference might have been due to the amount of attention each type of instruction required from participants; that is, the isolated group received an entire lesson on how to plan, while the integrated group received brief strategy instruction sessions during the oral activities of their regular English classes.

- Finding 3: The impact on accuracy of the isolated group may indicate that, even though learners’ attention is primarily focused on meaning (VanPatten, 1990), instruction seemed to lead participants to focus on formal aspects of language. This phenomenon was observed in other studies that manipulated planning time with the assistance of a mediator (D’Ely, 2011; Foster & Skehan, 1999; Specht & D’Ely, 2017).

- Finding 4: Both types of strategy instruction – integrated and isolated – led participants to use the planning time more effectively. Prior to treatment, most participants from the two groups used the planning time to write down the entire story they would tell. The use of such strategy may have caused a burden on their attentional resources, which limited the impact of strategic planning on speech performance then. After the treatment, participants opted for using different strategies, which not only improved their oral performance, but was also perceived as beneficial by participants.

- Finding 5: Adequacy as an additional measure/dimension can be used to assess more discourse-oriented aspects of speech performance, which are not grasped by the other dimensions. In this study, adequacy focused on text structure, story appeal, and clarity.

- Finding 6: Learners' perception on strategic planning and instructional sessions was positive.

4.3. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The present study should be seen as a tentative and a preliminary effort to systematically examine (a) the impact of instructional sessions on strategic planning on learners' oral planned performance at the level of complexity, accuracy, fluency, and adequacy, (b) the adoption of adequacy as an additional speech dimension/measure, and (c) students' perception on strategic planning and instruction. Despite the fact that it was theoretically and methodologically based on the existing literature, some limitations were present in the study. Thus, the results here presented should be treated with a great deal of caution and a number of limitations should be accounted for. Next, besides presenting the main limitations of this study, suggestions for future research are also presented.

(1) Sample size: This study counted with 34 participants, which is coherent with the number of participants used in studies on strategic planning in general. However, this sample size is still considered small and cannot be generalized to the young adult Brazilian population of intermediate learners. In this study, the participants were part of three different groups, therefore, the number of participants of each groups was even smaller: from 11 to 12 learners. For future research, efforts to increase this number of participants should be devoted.

(2) Context of investigation: In Brazil, there are numbers of contexts in which a foreign language as English is learned, such as public schools, private schools, English schools, extracurricular courses at universities, among others. Each of these contexts has their specificities. For this study, the chosen context was an extracurricular program of a public university. This context, in special, is open and largely used for research conduction. It would be interesting to investigate different contexts in order to understand whether it has a role in the study, particularly public schools that are under researched.

(3) Level of proficiency: In general, intermediate learners are the public chosen by most studies in strategic planning. Few studies have investigated the impact of different levels of proficiency so far. In what regards the impact of instruction on strategic planning, no study, to the best of my knowledge, has examined the role of different levels of proficiency. Therefore, future research should focus on understanding the role proficiency level plays on strategy instruction and strategic planning.

(4) Elicitation of L2 speech performance: In this study, monological there-and-then picture-cued narrative tasks were adopted to elicit participants' oral performance. This type of task was chosen due to its complex and demanding nature. Participants had only 50 seconds to assimilate the story depicted in the pictures, and after that they did not have access to the story anymore, while planning or retelling it without the presence of an interlocutor. For the research purposes, this type of task was suitable and useful; however, it would be interesting to investigate the role different types of tasks – more or less demanding – would play in the process and product of planning.

(5) Lack of a non-planning group or condition: Unlike other experiments on strategic planning, this study did not count with a non-planning group or condition to verify the impact of strategic planning. Its main premise was to verify whether or not the pre-task condition could be enhanced. Bearing in mind that this study was being conducted within a regular classroom context, it was opted for not including a third condition, as in Specht and D'Ely (2017), so that participants would not have to be taken to a language laboratory one more time. Nevertheless, the lack of a non-planning group or condition does not allow claims to be made regarding the benefit of strategic planning prior to the treatment sessions.

(6) Measures to assess speech performance: Although an array of measures was used in this study to assess speech performance in terms of complexity, accuracy, fluency, and adequacy - a total of 11 measures,

there are still other measures that could have been adopted in this study. Skehan (2014), for instance, suggests that when dealing with accuracy, errors could be classified concerning their level of importance. In addition, Pallotti (2009) explains that adequacy, instead of being adopted as a measure, could be used to adapt CAF measures, based on specificities of the target speech. For future research, other measures could be incorporated or even modified.

(7) Elicitation of strategies: The strategies used in the instructional sessions were derived from Specht's and D'Ely's (2017) study. The selection was based on the most referred strategies Guara-Tavares' (2016) participants reported using during planning time. Nevertheless, other strategies could have been employed. Pang and Skehan (2014), for instance, identified a list of action learners, who presented a higher performance, took during planning time. It would be interesting to investigate the impact of teaching other strategies, actions, and/or activities on planned oral performance.

(8) The lack of a long-term assessment for instruction: This study dealt with the immediate impact of strategy instruction, which yielded positive results. However, in order to bring more substantial evidence in favor of instruction, participants could have been tested in a posterior period.

(9) Statistical techniques: A range of statistical tests were employed in this study, aiming to analyze and compare participants' oral performance. Due to the data comparison configuration, one statistical test used was Mixed-ANOVA, which provided between- and within-comparisons at the same time. However, being a parametric test, the use of Mixed-ANOVA requires that the data meet certain assumptions, such as the absence of outliers, and normal distribution. For few measures, these assumptions were not met; therefore, the use of a non-parametric test would be advisable. So, non-parametric tests were employed, but no differences were met. It was decided, then, not to use non-parametric tests, since they are not as strong as parametric ones. Future research should be more attentive to the assumptions parametric tests require.

(10) Adequacy proceduralization: Adequacy was adopted in this study aiming at grasping more discourse-oriented aspects of speech performance. This measure was proposed by Pallotti (2009); however he did not offer any model for using the measure. Pallotti only suggested that adequacy could be assessed by raters through rating scales. In this study, five aspects of well-developed narrative were considered, since participants would perform narrative tasks. Other aspects could also have been used. Moreover, in order to allow for an adequacy

comparison between studies, a more flexible model for assessing adequacy should be proposed.

After considering the aforementioned limitations, it would be suggested for the future studies that they were taken into account in order to present a clearer view of the role of instruction on strategic planning. Next, the pedagogical implications are presented.

4.4. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

This is a minefield into which we must tread with great care (Foster, 2009, p. 254)

I see myself first as a teacher and then as a researcher; therefore I have been eager to write this section, in which I suggest how my findings may or may not provide propositions for the classroom. Nevertheless, as Foster's quotation advises, this movement must be made carefully, especially considering that we are dealing with two different fields of knowledge: Second Language Acquisition and Language Pedagogy. Ellis and Shintani (2014) explained that each respective area produces different types of discourse: theoretical and practical. The theoretical discourse refers to understanding and explaining phenomena, while the practical discourse is related to "moment-by moment decisions that teachers make in the process of conducting a lesson" (p. 01). The bright side is that both areas share a discourse in common: the technical one, which consists in understanding what can be done and how. It is the technical discourse I shall attempt to rely on.

Furthermore, Ellis (2003) reminded us that, even though the relationship between SLA and LP is a complex one, it "is strengthened when practitioners of both work with shared constructs" (p. 34). This is the case of strategic planning and also strategy instruction – the two main constructs dealt with in this study. Strategic planning can be seen as a pre-task condition, employed when a task is too demanding, and it can also be used to investigate speech production through an information-processing perspective. Strategy instruction may be seen as a teaching-based or –supported approach and as a way to understand the impact teaching strategies may have on language learning and production.

This study attempted to shed light on both fields, relying on the claim that simply providing learners with time to plan their oral task may not be enough to cause an impact on their speech performance

(D'Ely, 2006; Mehnert, 1998). Therefore, strategic planning could be enhanced by teaching learners strategies they could use during planning time. In addition to the objective of investigating the impact of instruction on learners' performance, this study also focused on real classroom contexts and designed strategy instructional sessions to be administered within such contexts. More specifically, this study was conducted with groups of an English language program – Extracurricular, which were considered to have an intermediate level of proficiency in English. For these groups, in special, the results showed a positive impact of strategy instruction on how to plan, both integrated in and isolated from the regular lessons. This impact reflected on the students' performance, which was more adequate and accurate, as well as on students' perception on the benefits of strategic planning and strategy instruction.

In spite of the positive results and the effort to make this study more classroom-oriented, the results should be seen as suggestive rather than prescriptive. Data in this study was collected under controlled environment with specific groups of students in a particular teaching context. Therefore, it is not guaranteed that the same results will be encountered in different contexts. “Teachers should analyze their own contexts in order to understand whether teaching their students strategies on how to plan should be part of their classes” (Specht, 2014, p. 58).

The tentative adaptation of this study to a less controlled environment such as a regular classroom, in my opinion, should be encouraged, especially considering that, according to D'Ely (2006),

there is room for teachers to orchestrate and experiment classroom activities and (1) systematically implement planning as a pre-task condition in classroom environments and (2) to find paths to make learners more skillful planners, either by providing careful instructions on how to conduct the planning task (and see whether they are really effective) or by motivating learners to make use of communication strategies while planning (p. 225).

The classroom should be a place where teachers also conduct their own contextualized research, incorporating the technical discourse both fields share.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A - Oral proficiency guide for rater assessment

	0	1.0	1.5	2.0	2.5	3.0	3.5	4.0	4.5	5.0
Grammar and Vocabulary <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Range • Accuracy • Appropriacy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Insufficient sample of spoken language 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The range of grammatical forms and vocabulary is not adequate. • Grammar is insufficiently accurate to deal with the tasks, and errors obscure intended meanings. • Vocabulary is used inappropriately, or may be too limited to deal with the tasks. • Clear lack of linguistic control even of basic forms. 	<p style="text-align: center;">More features of 1.0 than 3.0</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Some features of 3.0 and some features of 1.0 in approximately equal measure</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">More features of 3.0 than 1.0</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – An adequate range of grammatical forms and vocabulary is used – Grammar is sufficiently accurate to convey intended meanings. – Vocabulary is sufficiently appropriate to deal with the tasks. She is able to express herself without overly having to search for words. – Manages most common forms, with occasional errors; major errors present. 	<p style="text-align: center;">More features of 3.0 than 5.0</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Some features of 3.0 and some features of 5.0 in approximately equal measure</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">More features of 5.0 than 3.0</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A wide range of grammatical forms and vocabulary is attempted. • Grammar is mainly accurate, although minor errors may occur • Vocabulary is sufficiently appropriate to deal with the tasks effectively. • Errors are barely noticed.
Complexity and discourse management <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coherence • Extent • Relevance 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Produces mostly sentences fragments and simple phrases. Little attempt to use any grammatical means to connect ideas across clauses. • Contributions lack relevance and/or coherence, and are inadequate in developing the discourse. • Contributions are of an inappropriate length. 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Mostly relies on simple verb forms, with some attempts to use a greater variety of forms (eg. passives, modals, more varied tense and aspect). Some attempt to use coordination and subordination to convey ideas that cannot be expressed in a single clause. – Contributions are mostly relevant and coherent, and are adequate in developing the discourse. – Contributions are usually of an appropriate length. Although some contributions may be short, there is some evidence of ability to produce more complex utterances. 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Confidently attempts a variety of verb forms (eg. Passives, modals, tense, and aspect), even if the use is not always correct. Regularly takes risks grammatically in the service of expressing complex meaning. Routinely attempts the use of coordination and subordination to convey ideas that cannot be expressed in a single clause, even if the result is occasionally awkward or incorrect. • Contributions are relevant and coherent, and are effective in developing the discourse. • Contributions are consistently of an appropriate length.
Fluency <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stress and rhythm • Intonation • Individual sounds • Presence of hesitation and false starts • Pausing patterns 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The use of stress, rhythm and intonations is inappropriate and puts a strain on the listener. • Poor articulation of individual sounds makes utterances difficult to understand. • Speech is quite disfluent due to frequent and lengthy hesitations or false starts. Too much use of filled and unfilled pauses within clauses. 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – The use of stress, rhythm and intonations is sufficiently appropriate for most meanings to be conveyed effectively. – Individual sounds are articulated sufficiently clearly for utterances to be understood, although there may be occasional difficulty for the listener. – A reasonable degree of hesitation due to word-finding delays, relative ability to phrase utterances easily. – Reasonable use of filled and unfilled pauses within clauses. – Speaks fairly fluently with only occasional hesitation, false starts and modification of attempted utterance. 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The use of stress, rhythm and intonations is sufficiently appropriate for meanings to be conveyed effectively. • Individual sounds are articulated sufficiently clearly for utterances to be understood easily. • Speaks fluently, without any hesitation, false starts and modification of attempted utterances. Barely makes use of unfilled and filled pauses within clauses – filled and unfilled pauses occurring at the end of clause boundaries.

Appendix B – Example of the listening test used for assessing proficiency


PRACTICE TOEFL iBT LISTENING SECTION

This section measures your ability to understand conversations and lectures in English.

You should listen to each conversation and lecture only **one** time.

After each conversation or lecture, you will answer some questions about it. The questions typically ask about the main idea and supporting details. Some questions ask about a speaker's purpose or attitude. Answer the questions based on what is stated or implied by the speakers.

You may take notes while you listen. You may use your notes to help you answer the questions. Your notes will **not** be scored.

In some questions, you will see this icon:  This means that you will hear, but not see, part of the question.

Most questions are worth 1 point. If a question is worth more than 1 point, it will have special directions that indicate how many points you can receive.

You will have **55 Minutes** to listen to the Conversations and Lectures and to answer the questions. You should answer each question, even if you must guess the answer.

Listen to Track 11 on the CD.



Questions

Directions: Mark your answer by filling in the oval next to your choice.

1. Why does the student go to see the professor?

- To prepare for her graduate school interview
- To get advice about her graduate school application
- To give the professor her graduate school application
- To find out if she was accepted into graduate school

2. According to the professor, what information should the student include in her statement of purpose?

Choose 2 answers.

- Her academic motivation
- Her background in medicine
- Some personal information
- The ways her teachers have influenced her

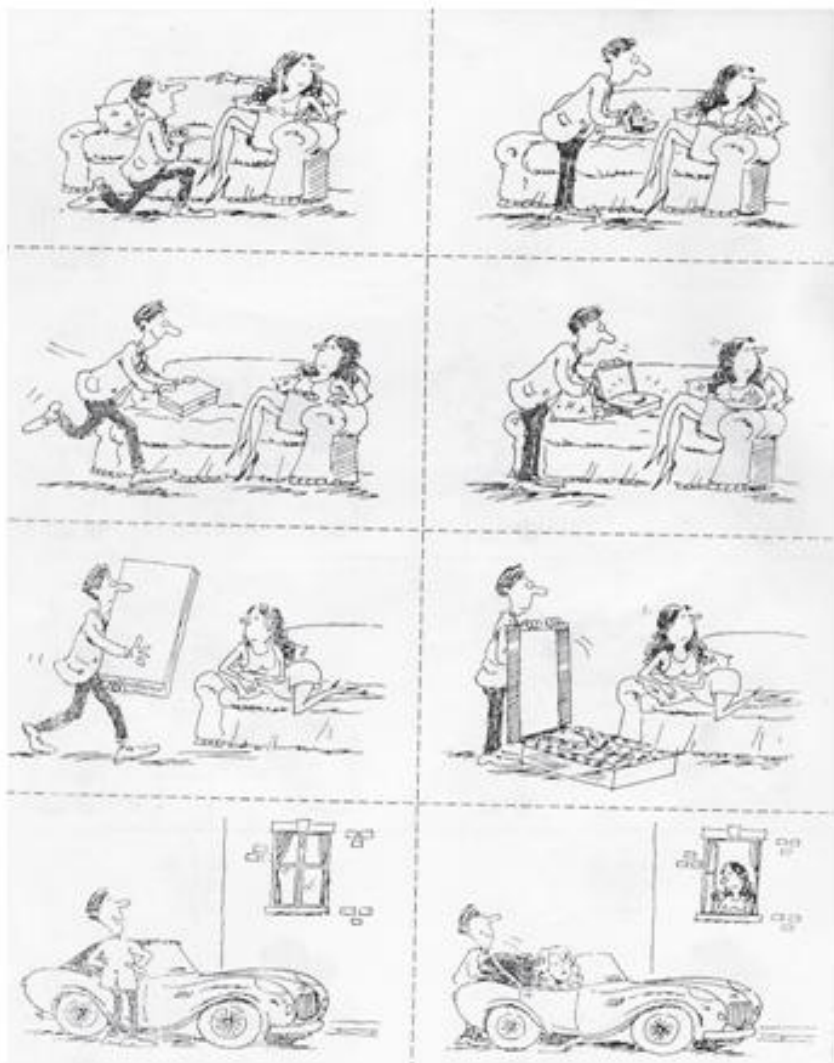
3. What does the professor consider unusual about the student's background?

- Her work experience
- Her creative writing experience
- Her athletic achievements
- Her music training

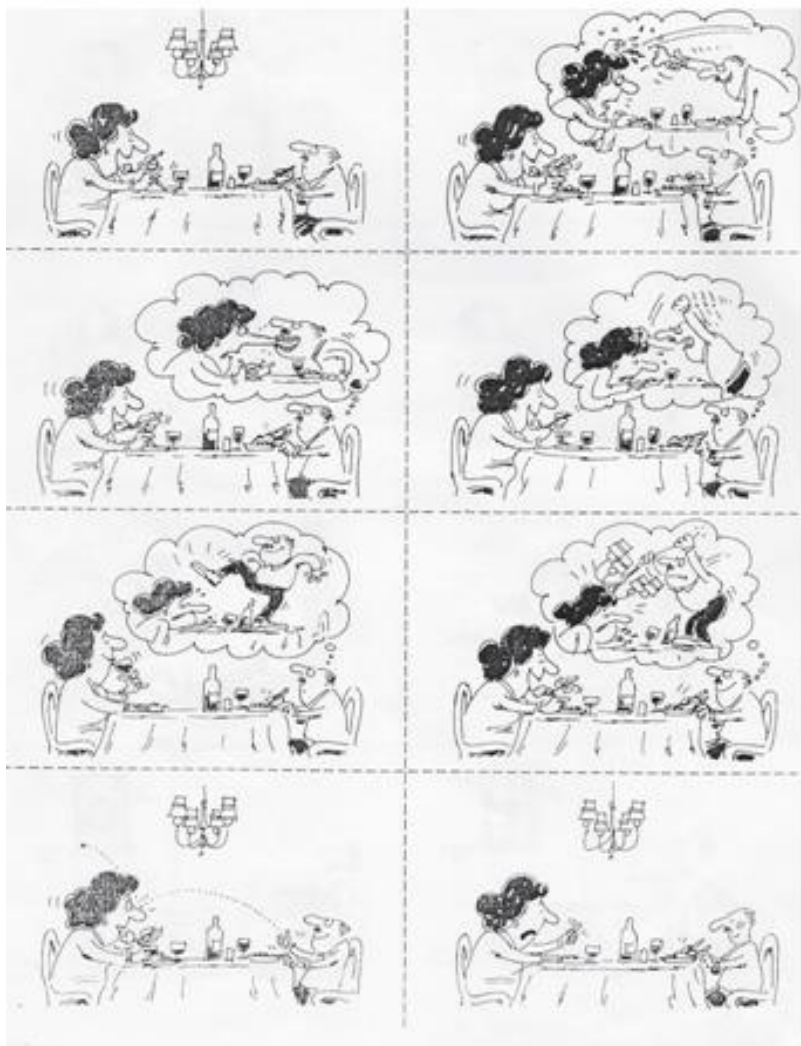
4. Why does the professor tell a story about his friend who went to medical school?

- To warn the student about how difficult graduate school can be
- To illustrate a point he is making

Appendix C – Task – The gifts



Appendix D – Task – The dinner



Appendix E – Summary of participants' profile

Participants' answers on the profile questionnaire (Control Group)

Part.	Age	Profession	Years studying English	Been abroad	Opinion on skills' level of difficulty	Self evaluation on speaking	Opinion on oral activities in the classroom	Topic familiarity	Opinion on being fluent in English
Con1	47	Professor	4 years	France	Easy: reading Hard: speaking	Not good; slow; needs practice	Conversations	Related to my research area	Expressing accurately; doesn't consider fluent
Con2	19	Student	2.5 years	3 weeks in Germany	Easy: listening Hard: speaking	Not good pronunciation	x	Music, family and hobbies	Communicating easily; doesn't consider fluent
Con3	15	High school student	2 years	No	Easy: speaking and reading Hard: writing and listening	Satisfactory; needs to improve pronunciation	Debates, conversations	Movies, tv-shows, cars	Confident to hold a conversation; doesn't consider fluent
Con4	19	Student	2 years	No	Easy: receptive Hard: productive	Reasonable	x	Music, hobbies, interests	Mastering the skills; doesn't consider fluent
Con5	19	Student	4 years	No	Easy: listening Hard: speaking	Intermediate	Pronunciation activities	Sports, family, games	Communicating easily; doesn't consider fluent
Con6	19	Student	1 year	15 days in the USA	Easy: reading and speaking Hard: writing and listening	x	x	Politics, culture, hobbies and music	Communicating easily
Con7	20	Student	2 years	No	Easy: reading Hard: speaking	Weak	Individual presentations	Music, family, literature and tv-shows	Handling the language easily; doesn't consider fluent
Con8	18	Student	1 year	2 weeks in Uruguay	Easy: speaking and listening Hard: writing and reading	Intermediate	Conversations	Sports, university and hobbies	Mastering the skills
Con9	20	Student	4 years	No	Easy: listening Hard: speaking	Reasonable	Dialogs	Music and family	Having a conversation with few pauses
Con10	20	Student	11 years	15 days in the USA	Easy: writing Hard: speaking	Bad, feels embarrassed	Conversations	Sports, family and gastronomy	Having a conversation with few pauses; doesn't consider fluent
Con11	20	Student	2 years	2 weeks in Bolivia	Easy: writing and reading Hard: speaking and listening	Regular	Conversations	Family	Thinking in English; doesn't consider fluent

Participants' answers on the profile questionnaire (Integrated Group)

Part.	Age	Profession	Years studying English	Been abroad	Opinion on skills' level of difficulty	Self evaluation on speaking	Opinion on oral activities in the classroom	Topic familiarity	Opinion on being fluent in English
Int1	20	Student	1, 5 year private school	x	Easy: listening Hard: speaking	Not very good; difficulty with lexical access	Doesn't enjoy oral activities; gets anxious	Music, tv-shows and movies	Communicating easily; doesn't consider fluent
Int2	34	Beautician	3 years	3 years in London	Easy: reading and listening Hard: writing	Not so good; needs practice	Activities in groups	Family	Talking about different topics
Int3	25	Student	3 years	26 days in Bolivia and Peru	Easy: speaking Hard: writing	Has a good pronunciation	Individual or pair presentations	Books, movies, music, family, daily routines	Expressing naturally
Int4	24	Business assistant	2 years	No	Easy: reading Hard: writing	Has a good pronunciation	Questions that requires the use of new words	Tv-shows, daily routines, real stories	Speaking with no difficulties; doesn't consider fluent
Int5	20	Student	4 years	No	Easy: listening and reading Hard: Speaking	Stuck; knows that wishes to say but gets confused	Conversation in pairs or trios.	Family, known places, design	Thinking in English; doesn't consider fluent
Int6	25	Visual artist	13 years	6 months in Argentina	Easy: reading Hard: writing	Failed; needs practice; had doubts about vocabulary	Likes oral activities	Art, trips, food	Expressing naturally; with large vocabulary
Int7	25	PhD candidate	2 years	No	Easy: reading Hard: speaking	Basic speaking; needs practice	Oral activities are important	Family	Talking about many topics accurately; doesn't consider fluent
Int8	19	Student	13 years	No	Easy: reading Hard: speaking	Difficulties in speaking; needs practice; is shy	Interactive activities	No topic in specific	Not getting stuck; doesn't consider fluent
Int9	19	Student	3 years	1 week in Chile	Easy: listening Hard: speaking	Regular problems with grammar and idioms	x	Music, geography	Speaking with no problems; doesn't consider fluent
Int10	40	Professor	30 years	2 weeks	Easy: reading Hard: Speaking	Bad; gets stressed and ashamed	Small groups	Related to the profession	Thinking in English; doesn't consider fluent
Int11	22	musician	3 years (high school)	No	Easy: speaking Hard: writing	Difficulties in finding the right words	x	Music, instrument	Thinking in English

Participants' answers on the profile questionnaire (Isolated Group)

Part	Age	Profession	Years studying English	Been abroad	Opinion on skills' level of difficulty	Self evaluation on speaking	Opinion on oral activities in the classroom	Topic familiarity	Opinion on being fluent in English
Is01	19	Student	8 years	Lived in Italy and Portugal	Easy: listening and writing Hard: speaking and listening	Good, needs practice though	Group activities	Profession, daily routines, books, places	Communicating easily; doesn't consider fluent
Is02	17	Student	10 years	No	Easy: writing and reading Hard: listening and speaking	Weak	Dialogs	Music, movies and books	Confident with speaking and listening; doesn't consider fluent
Is03	17	Student	2 years	No	Easy: listening Hard: writing	Can communicate, but feels insecure	Dialogs	Music	Confident with understanding and speaking; doesn't consider fluent
Is04	20	Student	During high school	No	Easy: listening and reading Hard: speaking and writing	Bad	Doesn't like oral activities	Music, tv-shows, daily routines	Good pronunciation and listening in English; doesn't consider fluent
Is05	30	Firefighter	1 year	Around 1,5 years in USA, Mexico, Uruguay and Argentina	Easy: listening Hard: writing	Basic; can communicate, but lacks vocabulary	x	Daily routines	Speaking and writing about everything; doesn't consider fluent
Is06	20	Student	2 years	No	Easy: reading Hard: writing	Difficulty in pronouncing and speaking rapidly	Group conversations	Family, music, hobbies	Mastering the skills; doesn't consider fluent
Is07	26	Grad student	3 years	No	Easy: listening Hard: writing	Regular	Conversations	Daily routines	Speaking naturally about many topics
Is08	35	Retired teacher	2 years	1 month in the USA	Easy: reading Hard: listening	Bad	All the oral activities	x	Speaking naturally; doesn't consider fluent
Is09	21	Student	2 years	No	Easy: reading Hard: speaking	Regular; pronunciation difficulty	Conversations	Music, family, hobbies and movies	Communicating with no difficulty; doesn't consider fluent
Is010	18	Student	1.5 years	No	Easy: reading Hard: speaking	Doesn't think rapidly while speaking	x	x	Mastering the skills; doesn't consider fluent
Is011	26	Journalist	10 years	Yes	Easy: reading Hard: speaking	Bad; gets anxious	All the oral activities	Daily routines, music, friends	Communicating accurately; doesn't consider fluent
Is012	17	Student	7 years	No	Easy: reading and listening Hard: writing and speaking	Reasonable	Activities to practice new vocabulary	Daily routines, music	Talking about everything; doesn't consider fluent

Appendix F – Consent terms

Termo de consentimento livre e esclarecido (Controle)

Título do Projeto: O planejamento estratégico basta? Investigando o impacto de dois tipos de ensino de estratégia na produção oral de alunos e desvelando as suas percepções

Gostaria de lhe convidar a participar de um projeto de pesquisa sobre o desenvolvimento da habilidade oral. A fala é uma habilidade cognitiva, altamente complexa, e os processos metacognitivos nos quais embarcamos ao falar uma língua estrangeira podem ter seu papel maximizado nas tentativas de sermos bem sucedidos ao comunicar-nos. Esse estudo busca escrutinar os processos de planejamento estratégico e instrução na tentativa de construir uma interface entre cognição e ações pedagógicas eficazes para o ensino da habilidade oral em ambiente de sala de aula. Você está sendo convidado (a) a participar deste estudo por estar em processo de desenvolvimento da habilidade oral em inglês. Se você aceitar participar, por favor, leia este termo de consentimento livre e esclarecido e se concordar com a informação aqui apresentada, assine onde indicado. Uma cópia ficará comigo, pesquisador responsável pelo projeto, e outra com você.

Objetivo do Estudo:

O objetivo deste estudo é investigar o impacto do planejamento estratégico e da instrução no desempenho oral de aprendizes de inglês como língua estrangeira. Muitos estudos mostram que estes processos são eficazes em promover ganhos no desempenho oral dos aprendizes, entretanto mais pesquisas são necessárias para que possamos aprender mais sobre eles.

Procedimentos:

Se você aceitar participar deste estudo, você será solicitado a realizar as seguintes tarefas: (1) responder a um questionário que apontará o seu perfil (2) narrar duas estórias (narrativa de sequência de figuras) em inglês e (3) responder dois questionários pós-tarefa que tentará revelar a sua opinião em relação à tarefa e condições de desempenho experimentados. As suas duas narrativas serão gravadas para posterior análise. A realização das tarefas e das sessões instrucionais ocorrerá nos horários de aula.

Riscos e benefícios do estudo:

Os riscos em participar dessa pesquisa são mínimos. Você pode se sentir um pouco cansado, aborrecido e desconfortável em gravar suas tarefas orais e responder aos questionários, mas todo o esforço será feito para que isso não aconteça. Existe, também, o risco de que os dados possam vazarem, ainda que involuntário e não intencional o que pode vir a causar constrangimento. Em contrapartida, você poderá aprender mais sobre o desenvolvimento da sua habilidade oral e receberá retorno sobre as atividades que você desenvolver. Ao final da pesquisa, os resultados do estudo serão tornados públicos, mas sua identidade será totalmente preservada e não será incluída nenhuma informação que possa identificá-lo (a). Somente o pesquisador deste projeto terá acesso aos dados coletados.

Natureza voluntária do estudo:

Sua decisão de participar ou não deste estudo não irá afetar você ou sua relação com o curso Extracurricular de nenhuma forma. Você também não receberá nenhuma compensação financeira pela sua participação e não terá nenhum gasto participando dessa pesquisa, visto que ela ocorrerá durante as aulas regulares do curso. Se você decidir participar e depois decidir desistir, não tem problema. Você poderá desistir a qualquer momento. Peço apenas que você me notifique, através dos contatos abaixo. Caso você tenha alguma dúvida antes, durante e depois da execução da pesquisa, você receberá a minha completa assistência.

Contatos:

O pesquisador responsável por esse estudo é o:
Prof. Ms. André Luís Specht

Caso você tenha algum prejuízo material ou/e imaterial em decorrência da pesquisa ou sintase violado(a) em alguma maneira durante o processo, você pode entrar com um processo de indenização judicial. Abaixo, segue o endereço do Comitê de Ética em Pesquisas com Seres Humanos para mais informações, se você achar necessário:

Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina

Pró-Reitoria de Pesquisa

Prédio Reitoria II

R: Desembargador Vitor Lima, nº 222, sala 401, Trindade,
Florianópolis/SC

CEP 88.040-400

Contato: (48) 3721-6094

cep.propesq@contato.ufsc.br

Declaração de consentimento:

Declaro que li a informação acima. Quando necessário, fiz perguntas e recebi esclarecimentos. Eu concordo em participar deste estudo.

Nome:

Assinatura do participante

Eu, André Luís Specht pesquisador responsável por este estudo, declaro que respeitarei todas as informações contidas nesse termo de consentimento livre e esclarecido.

Assinatura do Pesquisador Responsável

Termo de consentimento livre e esclarecido (Integrado)

Título do Projeto: O planejamento estratégico basta? Investigando o impacto de dois tipos de ensino de estratégia na produção oral de alunos e desvelando as suas percepções

Gostaria de lhe convidar a participar de um projeto de pesquisa sobre o desenvolvimento da habilidade oral. A fala é uma habilidade cognitiva, altamente complexa, e os processos metacognitivos nos quais embarcamos ao falar uma língua estrangeira podem ter seu papel maximizado nas tentativas de sermos bem sucedidos ao comunicar-nos. Esse estudo busca escrutinar os processos de planejamento estratégico e instrução na tentativa de construir uma interface entre cognição e ações pedagógicas eficazes para o ensino da habilidade oral em ambiente de sala de aula. Você está sendo convidado (a) a participar deste estudo por estar em processo de desenvolvimento da habilidade oral em inglês. Se você aceitar participar, por favor, leia este termo de consentimento livre e esclarecido e se concordar com a informação aqui apresentada, assine onde indicado. Uma cópia ficará comigo, pesquisador responsável pelo projeto, e outra com você.

Objetivo do Estudo:

O objetivo deste estudo é investigar o impacto do planejamento estratégico e da instrução no desempenho oral de aprendizes de inglês como língua estrangeira. Muitos estudos mostram que estes processos são eficazes em promover ganhos no desempenho oral dos aprendizes, entretanto mais pesquisas são necessárias para que possamos aprender mais sobre eles.

Procedimentos:

Se você aceitar participar deste estudo, você será solicitado a realizar as seguintes tarefas: (1) responder a um questionário que apontará o seu perfil (2) narrar uma estória (narrativa de seqüência de figuras) em inglês, (3) responder um questionário pós-tarefa que tentará revelar a sua opinião em relação à tarefa e condições de desempenho experimentados, (4) participar de sessões instrucionais que serão atreladas as atividades orais das aulas regulares, (5) narrar uma estória (narrativa de um *cartoon*) em inglês e (6) responder um questionário pós-tarefa que tentará revelar a sua opinião em relação à tarefa e condições de desempenho experimentados. As suas duas narrativas serão gravadas para posterior análise. A realização das tarefas e das sessões instrucionais ocorrerá nos horários de aula.

Riscos e benefícios do estudo:

Os riscos em participar dessa pesquisa são mínimos. Você pode se sentir um pouco cansado, aborrecido e desconfortável em gravar suas tarefas orais e responder aos questionários, mas todo o esforço será feito para que isso não aconteça. Existe, também, o risco de que os dados possam vazarem, ainda que involuntário e não intencional o que pode vir a causar constrangimento. Em contrapartida, você poderá aprender mais sobre o desenvolvimento da sua habilidade oral e receberá retorno sobre as atividades que você desenvolver. Ao final da pesquisa, os resultados do estudo serão tornados públicos, mas sua identidade será totalmente preservada e não será incluída nenhuma informação que possa identificá-lo (a). Somente o pesquisador deste projeto terá acesso aos dados coletados.

Natureza voluntária do estudo:

Sua decisão de participar ou não deste estudo não irá afetar você ou sua relação com o curso Extracurricular de nenhuma forma. Você também não receberá nenhuma compensação financeira pela sua participação e não terá nenhum gasto participando dessa pesquisa, visto que ela ocorrerá durante as aulas regulares do curso. Se você decidir participar e

depois decidir desistir, não tem problema. Você poderá desistir a qualquer momento. Peço apenas que você me notifique, através dos contatos abaixo. Caso você tenha alguma dúvida antes, durante e depois da execução da pesquisa, você receberá a minha completa assistência.

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Nome:

Assinatura do participante

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Assinatura do Pesquisador Responsável

Termo de consentimento livre e esclarecido (Isolado)

Título do Projeto: O planejamento estratégico basta? Investigando o impacto de dois tipos de ensino de estratégia na produção oral de alunos e desvelando as suas percepções

Gostaria de lhe convidar a participar de um projeto de pesquisa sobre o desenvolvimento da habilidade oral. A fala é uma habilidade cognitiva, altamente complexa, e os processos metacognitivos nos quais embarcamos ao falar uma língua estrangeira podem ter seu papel maximizado nas tentativas de sermos bem sucedidos ao comunicar-nos. Esse estudo busca escrutinar os processos de planejamento estratégico e instrução na tentativa de construir uma interface entre cognição e ações pedagógicas eficazes para o ensino da habilidade oral em ambiente de sala de aula. Você está sendo convidado (a) a participar deste estudo por estar em processo de desenvolvimento da habilidade oral em inglês. Se você aceitar participar, por favor, leia este termo de consentimento livre e esclarecido e se concordar com a informação aqui apresentada, assine onde indicado. Uma cópia ficará comigo, pesquisador responsável pelo projeto, e outra com você.

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Procedimentos:

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Nome:

Assinatura do participante

Eu, André Luís Specht pesquisador responsável por este estudo, declaro que respeitarei todas as informações contidas nesse termo de consentimento livre e esclarecido.

Assinatura do Pesquisador Responsável

Appendix G – Profile questionnaire

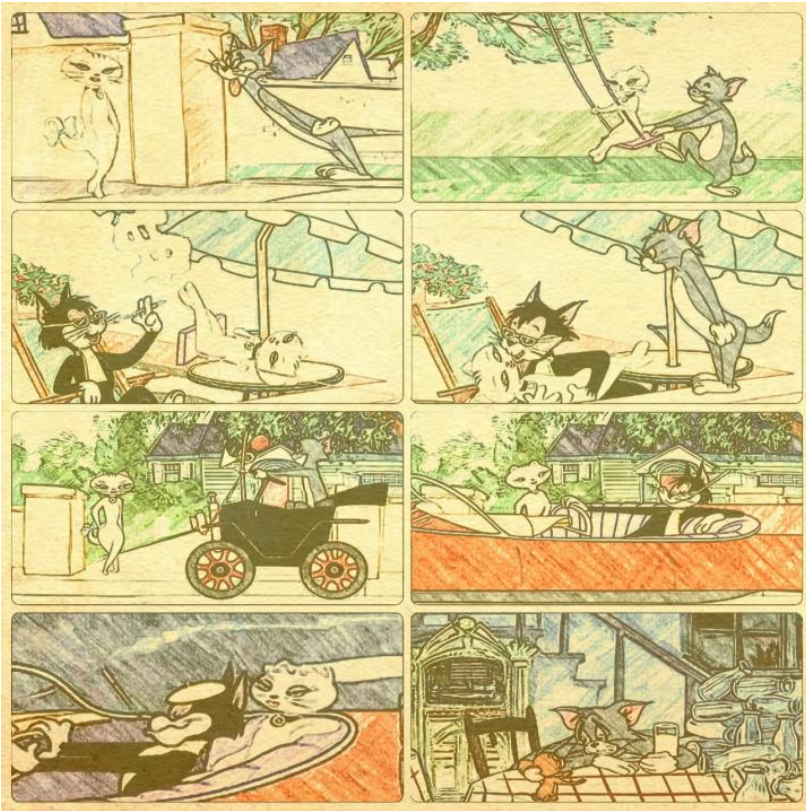
Questionário de Perfil (adaptado de D'Ely, 2006)

Nome:
Idade:
Profissão (se houver):
Endereço de email:
Número de telefone:

Responda as seguintes perguntas em português ou em inglês. Não se preocupe com possíveis erros de gramática ou vocabulário que você possa cometer, pois não temos nenhum intuito em avaliar a sua escrita. Queremos somente conhecê-lo melhor e conhecer, também, a sua opinião sobre algumas questões de aprendizagem de inglês como lingual estrangeira. Portanto, lembre-se: Não há respostas certas ou erradas, apenas expresse o seu ponto de vista.

1. Há quanto tempo você estuda inglês?
2. Você já foi a algum país estrangeiro? Se sim, qual e por quanto tempo você ficou lá?
3. Das quatro habilidades – fala, escrita, escuta e leitura – qual você tem mais facilidade e qual você tem mais dificuldade?
Facilidade: _____
Dificuldade: _____
4. Como você avalia a sua fala em língua inglesa? Se possível, dê razões para a sua resposta.
5. Em relação às atividades orais que o seu professor faz em sala de aula, quais delas você mais aprecia (se existir), e quais delas você menos aprecia (se existir)? Se possível, dê razões para a sua resposta.
6. Quais os temas que você tem mais familiaridade para conversar em inglês? (Por exemplo: esportes, música, família, entre outros).
7. Em sua opinião, como é uma pessoa fluente em língua inglesa? Você se considera uma? Por quê?

Appendix H – Task – Tom in love



Appendix I - Instructions for task performance (adapted from Guar-Tavares, 2008)

1. H duas folhas em sua frente: uma histria em quadrinhos e uma folha de rascunho. Por favor, no mexa nessas folhas por enquanto.
2. Na hora determinada, voc ter 50 segundos para olhar a folha da histria que contm uma sequncia de figuras.
3. Quando passar o tempo de 50 segundos, eu falarei “STOP” e voc virar a folha da histria e ter 10 minutos para planejar aquilo que ir falar **sem recorrer s imagens**. Voc pode usar a folha de rascunho para fazer anotaes, porm **no poder utiliz-la** quando for narrar  estria.
4. Quando se passarem os 10 minutos, voc guardar as anotaes e iniciar a narrativa de uma histria sobre as figuras vistas. A narrativa ser gravada no gravador que se encontra na sua mesa. Para utiliz-lo basta apertar o boto vermelho e direcion-lo prximo a sua boca.
5. No h sequncia correta ou incorreta para a histria. Voc pode usar a criatividade para construir a ordem dos eventos e caso voc esquea alguma figura, voc pode preencher com informaes adicionais.
6. No  permitido pausar a gravao em momento algum da narrativa. Voc pode parar de falar para pensar, espirrar, tossir, etc. durante a narrao. Porm, no pode jamais pausar a gravao.
7. Por favor, aps terminar de gravar a sua narrativa, aperte o boto vermelho novamente, certifique-se que ele esteja pausado e coloque-o em cima da mesa.
8. Por favor, aguarde todos os seus colegas finalizem para se levantar e sair da sala.
9. Muito obrigado.

Appendix J – Post task questionnaire A (adapted from D'Ely, 2006)**Questionário Pós-tarefa A**

Nome do participante:

Email do participante:

1) Como você considera a tarefa que você acabou de realizar?

() fácil

() razoável

() difícil

Outros: (Sinta-se a vontade de acrescentar qualquer comentário que você deseje.)

2) Você acredita que ter tempo para planejar o que você falou lhe ajudou ou não a realizar essa tarefa? Dê razões para a sua resposta.

3) O que você fez enquanto planejava? Tente dar uma descrição bastante detalhada.

4) Quais são os aspectos que você mais se preocupou enquanto realizava a tarefa? (Por exemplo, você se preocupou em não parar para pensar muito; usar uma linguagem mais complexa; não cometer erros)? Sinta-se a vontade para comentar todos ou algum(s) dos aspectos citados ou outros que lhe chamaram a atenção.

5) O fato de você não estar contando essa história para ninguém foi positivo, negativo ou não fez nenhuma diferença na realização da tarefa?

6) Como você avalia a história que você produziu? Sinta-se a vontade para fazer os comentários que você desejar.

7) Você consegue descrever os processos pelos quais você passou enquanto contava a história? Você pode fazer referências às estratégias que você usou ou, então, a problemas que você possa ter enfrentado.

Appendix K – Post-task questionnaire B (adapted from D’Ely, 2006)
Questionário pós-tarefa B

Nome do participante:

Email do participante:

8) Como você considera a tarefa que você acabou de realizar?

() fácil

() razoável

() difícil

Outros: (Sinta-se a vontade de acrescentar qualquer comentário que você deseje.)

- 1) Você acha que o fato de você ter feito uma tarefa parecida a essa facilitou a realização dessa? Justifique a sua resposta.
- 2) Quais são os aspectos que você mais se preocupou enquanto realizava a tarefa? (Por exemplo, você se preocupou em não parar para pensar muito; usar uma linguagem mais complexa; não cometer erros)? Sinta-se a vontade para comentar todos ou algum(s) dos aspectos citados ou outros que lhe chamaram a atenção.
- 3) Qual é a sua opinião em relação as estratégias que você aprendeu nas aulas? Elas lhe ajudaram ou não na realização dessa tarefa? Dê razões para a sua resposta.
- 4) Você acredita que ter tempo para planejar o que você falou lhe ajudou ou não a realizar essa tarefa? Dê razões para a sua resposta.
- 5) Como você avalia a história que você produziu? Sinta-se a vontade para fazer os comentários que você desejar.
- 6) O que você fez enquanto planejava? Tente dar uma descrição bastante detalhada.
- 7) Em sua opinião, quais os aspectos da sua fala foram mais beneficiados pelo planejamento?

Appendix L - Instructional sessions from the Isolated Group (taken from Specht, 2014)

The focus of these sessions will be on

- a) calling learners' attention on how planning time can assist their oral performance;**
- b) making learners familiar with the strategies they can use while they plan;**
- c) practicing these strategies.**

Lesson 1 – Raising students' awareness

- a) An informal discussion will be conducted in order to know students' opinion about the tasks they performed.**
- b) A brief explanation on how strategic planning can be beneficial and improve one's oral performance.**
- c) Some strategies (Ortega, 1999, 2005; Guará-Tavares, 2008) students can use while they plan will be presented to the students.**

Lesson 2 – Organizational planning and Monitoring

Task 1 – Organizational planning

- a) The students will be divided into two groups (group A and B). All the students will be required to talk about some personal theme (family, city, friends) in English. The students from group A will receive a sheet of paper with some instructions of what they will need to say (parts, sequences, main ideas) 1 minute prior to their presentation, while students from group B will receive nothing but the**

theme.

- b) After performing the task, all the students will share their opinion about the task and it will be discussed how organizational planning can be a helpful strategy while performing an oral task.
- c) As a final activity, the students will be given a common theme and they will have two minutes to organize their speech, and present to their peers.
- d) A discussion about the task will be made, so the students can share their opinions.

Task 2 – Monitoring

- a) The students will be asked to sit in pairs and both of them will receive a sheet with one question (i.e. What did you do yesterday? Tell me about your last weekend.), and table with correct and incorrect boxes to check in relation to the use of past tense. The students are supposed to chitchat asking one another the question, but they will have to monitor the other's answer checking the correct or incorrect box to all the verbs the other used.
- b) After that, the students will show one another the table in order to reflect upon the accurate use of the verbs.
- c) A discussed guided by some questions (How easy or difficult was it to monitors your partner's speech? Do you think you would be able to monitor your own speech, if so, would it be helpful?)

Lesson 3 – Rehearsal and Writing/outlining/summarizing

Task 3 - Rehearsal

- a) The following situation will be presented to the students: "Imagine you will have a job interview for a teacher position in a private school in a few minutes and you are

nervous because you really need this job. You decided to practice the interview imagining what the interviewer could ask you (your job experiences, where do you expect to be in 5 years)”.

- b) The students will be asked to take a seat in a corner of the room where they will be not disturbed by the others and they will have between 5 to 10 minutes to rehearse.
- c) The students will sit in pairs and each of them will receive an interview questions which they will ask to each others. In a first moment, one of them will be the interviewer and the other will be the interviewee and they will change roles in the second moment.
- d) A discussion about the task will be made, so the students can share their opinions.

Task 4 – Writing/outlining/summarizing

- a) The students will receive three comic strip with no text on it, and they will be given 2 to 3 minutes for each to write some sentences they think they could use if they had to tell the story.

i.e.



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- b) After that, the instructor will see the students’ sentences and talk to them individually.
- c) A discussion about the task will be made.

Lesson 4 – Elaboration and Lexical search

Task 5 – Elaboration

- a) The students will receive five simple sentences (i.e. He drinks water.), and they will be asked to elaborate the sentences making it more complex. They will have around half minute for each sentence.
- b) After that, the students will present their sentences, and the instructor will write some good examples on the board in order to be discussed.
- c) A discussion about the task will be made.

Task 6 – Lexical search

- a) The instructor will present some pictures to the students and ask them to tell what they are seeing. Some same pictures will be shown to several students and they are supposed to describe the picture using different words.

i.e.



- b) In a second moment, the students will see a dozen of objects and they will have to describe all of them in 1 minute, if they do not know the name of the objects they have to use some word they think that best describe them.

i.e.



- c) Finally, a discussion will be carried out in order to reflect upon the activities and how it can help them when they are speaking English.

Appendix M – Data transcription

Audio transcriptions

TASK A

Con1 - |This is a history (0.8) {ah (0.6)} (0.54) about (0.74) one man :: (0.85) that loves Mary|(1.1) {ah (0.82)} the man (0.65) {ah (1.0)} (1.72) {loves} loved Mary|(0.7) and (0.64) he (0.64) {off} {of} offered (0.57) {ah} some gifts for her|(0.76) {ah (0.66)} first of all a ring, after {ah (0.82)} a jewel (0.78) and (from 'and' 0.96)(0.5) a dress| (0.6) but (from 'but' 0.65) Mary (2.14) didn't (from 'didn't' 1.39) (0.51) like {the} {the things} {the} {the} the gifts|(0.85) and the man (1.0) was disappointed|(1.15) {ah (0.78)} (0.57) some times after this moment (0.85) {ah (0.84)} the man (1.33) found {ah (0.65)} (1.57) another person|(0.86) {ah (0.9)} (0.7) a simpatic person :: (0.66) that (from 'that' 0.52) (1.5) loves {ah (1.31)} (0.83) his|(1.0) and (from 'and' 1.46) (1.7) {the} they (0.5) got married|(0.79) and (0.85) they bought {a (0.81)} a special car|(1.4) and (0.88) {in (0.97)} (1.3) in some situations (0.5) {ah (1.0)} (1.1) they (from 'they' 0.68) (1.82) meet Mary|(0.53) Mary was (0.68) {eh (1.3)} alone|(1.1) and (from 'and' 0.72) (2.89) the couple (1.72) {eh (1.27)} {was} were (0.83) {ah (0.67)} happy|(1.38) and (from 'and' 0.7) Mary (0.75) stay (from 'stay' 0.6) (0.6) a little (1.39) bored :: I think|(1.0) but this is the end of the history|

Con2 - |There was a guy {who wanten} :: who wants (0.63) to give a gift to (0.57) his girlfriend|(0.9) so (0.44) he bought (0.97) a ring| (0.8) and try to give her| (1.1) but she (0.83) doesn't like it|(1.0) {so she} so he tried something big| (1.1) and try to give her a (1.88) necklace| (1.6) but she doesn't like too|(1.4) {ahn} so (1.0) he tried to give her some (0.5) clothes like a beautiful dress| (1.2) but she doesn't like too|(1.32) and then (1.25) the guy (0.7) got a new car| (1.3) and went to her house| (0.8) but (0.85) when the (1.1) girl came at the window :: (1.44) she saw| and the guy was with (0.98) {a new girl} (0.68) a new girlfriend|

Con3 - |{Eh} the man {eh (0.67)} (0.48) try to (from 'to' 0.67) (0.65) {eh (0.53)} (0.76) call the girl :: to go on a date with him|(0.6) but {eh (0.57)} (0.4) without success {eh}|(0.66) he tries different types of {eh} gifts (0.5) like expensive coats (0.45) and jewelery| (0.8) but (0.5) {eh (0.63)} the girl don't {eh (0.62)} want to go on a date with him|(0.6) she stays with no reactions|(0.89) she have any reaction to the expensive

gifts|(1.37) {eh} so (0.46) one day the man tries to catch her attention with a convertible car|(0.74) {eh (0.5)} and she go to (0.82) {the} (1.63) the window and see the car and express no reaction still|(1.0) and then the man {eh} open {the} the convertible roof and show up {a} a nice girl|(0.55) {and (0.5) she} (0.55) and she look to the other girl|

Con4 - |George is in love for a girl|(1.2) he spend (1.0) all day :: think of (0.6) new ways :: (0.5) {to have} (2.38) to have her heart| (2.7) but George can't imagine :: that superficial and (0.54) material {thin} gifts like jewelry and diamonds (0.45) can't buy (0.76) her heart|

Con5 - |One time I was falling in love {with a} (0.75) with a beautiful woman| (1.1) but she doesn't matter for me| (1.49) I gave her a lot of expensive gifts |(1.34) {ah} gold ring, (2.71) diamond necklace (from 'lace' 0.9) (1.0), skin coats, (1.1) even a goddam car,| (2.0) but {if a} {even I} (2.18) even I try to (0.93) marry her :: I gave up|(1.18) months later (1.7) {I} (0.7) I married with another human :: (1.29) {who really} who really loves me|

Con6 - |A man appears {to} {to begin the} :: (1.42) to beg the pardon of the wife for :: something he did|(1.15) In attempt to achieve the pardon of his wife :: (0.6) he sent gifts to her| and she refuses all of them |even the husband giving her a better gift (0.4) {af} (1.85) {hm} (1.45) {after} (2.88) after :: the wife refused the previous gift| (0.9) but {she} (0.92) she didn't accept {an} none of the gifts|(5.81) And then in the end of the story {the} the {husb} husband {appear} (1.44) appear in home (1.55) with a car| (0.9) but the car {is} (0.92) {is} is no for {the} (1.35) the wife| is for the mistress {cuz} {hm}|(3.27) cuz she appears {to} :: to give up {to} to try {to} (2.24) to beg the pardon of the wife |(2.0) {and} (4.0) and {he} (1.94) he decides :: to break up with her|

Con7 - |The woman was sad :: (0.74) because {eh} (2.4) in the next days it was your birthday|(1.1) and she think :: that (0.94) nobody remember of your birthday|(1.22) your husband (0.68) {eh (0.75)} (2.62) thinking :: {eh} make a surprise for her|(0.9) and thinking :: {eh} buy a gift (1.45) something :: (0.9) that {eh} she like|(1.38) {eh} (1.97) first (1.22) {she bought} he bought (0.53) a ring| (0.57) but {he} she doesn't like it|(0.78) after (0.68) thinking :: (0.7) buy a (0.53) book| (0.82) but {eh (0.6)} (1.44) she doesn't like (1.36) {the writer} of writer|(1.0) {eh (0.72)} (1.31) he thinks :: (1.56) buy to {ah} a dress| (0.74) but (0.52) he doesn't know :: (0.56) what kind of color (0.41) she likes|(0.64) {eh

(0.49)} in the end {sh} he decided :: (0.86) buy a car| (1.1) and (0.41) he {goes to} go to (from 'to' 0.95) (0.63) a (0.43) store| (0.75) and {he bough} {he bought} (0.86) {eh} (0.71) he buy (1.9) a new car|(1.0) {eh} (1.33) {when} when she wins {the} the car (0.69) :: {she very} (0.58) she stay very very happy| and together (1.15) {eh (0.79)} they will (1.4) drive (0.52) in the city|

Con8 - |John was a man :: who loved his wife|(1.16) he was married :: since young| (1.11) and always tried (1.92) {to} (3.91) to made happy (1.34) his wife|(1.52) Selena (2.31) was never happy with the marry|(1.39) She always look bad (0.47) for John|(1.7) John {was sincere love} (0.55) was sincerity falling in love for her|(1.47) so John (0.75) tries everything|(0.87) John bought (1.2) diamond rings|(1.59) He bought (1.0) gold colors|(1.97) John (2.92) bought (3.36) beautiful and expensive dresses| (1.49) and sang (0.9) loves musics for her| (1.45) but she (0.84) never carred (0.51) about the John's (1.0) love| (2.43) and always look unhappeless and always fight with him|(0.92) It doesn't matter :: (0.8) what John do :: (3.28) she was never happy (0.6) satisfaction|(3.13) so John (2.25) one day (2.38) arrived home (0.56) with (1.12) a (1.95) beautiful (1.63) and sport car|(1.56) beautiful, (0.62) fast (0.7) {and} (13.68) and good|(2.0) so his wife (2.54) comes close to the window (0.64)| and look for John (0.69) with the same face (0.51) unhappeless| (2.68) so John (0.52) open the door|(0.88) and there was (0.41) another woman (0.95) with great smile on the face|(4.0) so the wife (1.91) at the same time (0.95) perceive :: (2.88) that (0.41) she was wrong :: (0.83) in the way (1.6) to look for John (1.0) to look :: what he did (2.2) {from her} for her|(3.81) and to (1.22) don't appreatiate (2.07) the great (0.71) things about (1.17) their relationships| (0.6) but it was too late for John|(6.51) {she was ti} (0.6) he (0.5) was tired :: (0.41) to try (0.43) everything (0.46) and never have (1.45) the gratefication (5.5) from her|(1.8) so he leave (3.34) to a new life|(2.77) and the wife (1.0) stay at home|

Con9 - |{This is a story (0.68) about} (0.8) this is a sad story about John,|(1.75) {sh} {he (0.68)} (1.16) it's a man :: who wants to date about (1.73) {a} a girl :: called (0.43) Janes|(0.87) John (1.49) bought flowers, (1.02) a ring, (1.42) jewels and dress (1.8) for Janes,| (0.7) but (0.65) she always let (0.45) him go|(1.29) {Eh} (2.91) John (0.75) {give up (1.31) on Janes} (1.49) finally give up on Janes| (0.7) and found a girl :: {who loves} (1.6) who loves he :: just the way he are|(1.75) {Eh} (2.26) there's a day :: (2.56) when Janes (0.78) saw (0.86) the John with

another girl| (1.0) and regrets about your decision|(0.8) so it's a story sad
a for Janes| (0.57) but happy for John|

Con10 - |This history is about a couple|(1.12) {eh} he proposes married
to her| (1.0) but she didn't accept|(0.78) and (from 'and' 0.92) (1.0) he
(1.8) didn't give up with the situation|(1.0) he bought {ah} a lot of gifts
to her (1.33) {ah} like (1.52) some gold stuffs, eletronics, clothes| (1.4)
but (1.33) she neither looks to him|(1.77) {ah (0.84)} when (2.51) {she
saw him with}|(1.0) {ah} {he} she saw he with another woman and with
a new car :: (1.27) she becomes sad and realize :: (0.66) what she lose|

Con11 - |A man tried {eh} apologize to her {ex} ex girlfriend|(0.88) and
then (0.64) he made everything :: (0.5) for (1.12) try (1.0) to (2.5) her
forgiving him|(2.09) he tried give to her a lot of gifts| but she doesn't
accept it|(1.28) after (0.9) {she h} (0.41) she has a new girlfriend|(0.55)
and she stay very sad|(1.64) that's it|

Int1 -|There is a man| this man loves so much a woman :: (0.41)
proposing her in marriage all the ways {and} {giv} (0.75) and give her
so many gifts :: (0.44) always refused by this woman|(0.68) some day
tired :: (0.47) this man find another woman|(0.48) this other woman
{accep} (0.45) accept all your love| (0.62) {and both} and both live
happy (0.64) until the end|(0.66) and make her first woman sad|

Int2 - |Kent: (0.58) Hi, darling| I'm sorry|(0.52) I'm very dissapointed
with you| I was very stupid|(0.53) Mary: (1.42) No, I don't want to talk
with you| please go| (1.1) Kent: (1.31) Darling, (1.03) I'm sorry again| I
have a present for you|(0.75) I hope you like|(0.81) Mary: (1.7) {I}
(0.65) I don't want nothing {for you} from you| please go (0.5) and
leave me alone|(0.81) Kent (0.94): Darling, I know (0.6) always :: I tried
to be (1.24) {a very man} a very good man to you| (0.6) but (0.9) {ah
(0.68)} I come here| I'm try to give you a (0.43) beautiful presents ::
(0.43) because {you al} you also was a (unaudible) for me|(2.7) Mary:
(0.98) I don't want nothing from you| {I} (1.17) I told you :: {please let
oh} please go out| (1.36) Kent:(2.06) Darling, again, (0.56) please come
outside and see :: (1.16) what I have for you|(0.5) is a beautiful
present|(1.14) and Mary come outside|(0.6) and (1.16) say| (1.7) oh now
we can talk about|

Int3 - |This is a very sad story|(0.46) is about a (0.94) couple :: that was
in a relationship for a long time|(0.76) the woman was so bored|(1.54)

nothing more in her husband was interesting for she|(1.16) so the husband try to (0.6) make :: {he} his wife (0.71) fall in love for he again|(1.72) he tried to give much different gifts for she|(1.47) all much precious different kind of jewels|(1.0) but (0.47) it {was} (0.84) didn't work|(2.56) so (0.6) the last trial was :: to (4.28) make jealous for she|(1.54) with {a} (0.54) another woman a very beautiful woman in a car in a new car|(0.8) and that was enough|(1.38) his wife never more (0.53) wanted to see him again|(0.66) so this is the end of the story|

Int4 - |A man was trying to propose the woman :: he liked|(1.35) he has intended to give her a ring|(1.4) but she didn't agree with that|(1.0) she was stuck up|(0.7) and she didn't show him even a smile|(1.76) then he try to give her (1.62) a (1.44) necklace|(1.6) but she still didn't show him even a smile|(1.75) he tried so to give her (1.0) a coat| (1.69) an expensive coat|(1.56) but she was tough like a rock|(2.44) he appeared :: driving a car|(1.25) and for her surprise it was not a gift|(1.23) he introduced her (1.52) the new girlfriend :: who was in the car|

Int5 - |The man got at girl's home with a (0.95) diamond (0.47) ring for {her lov} hes love|(0.93) but the (from 'the' 0.83) (0.93) woman {don't} (1.1) {don't} (3.65) {don} (1.07) don't like her (0.78) gift|(0.97) so a second time {in a} in the next day (0.93) the (0.89) man (0.96) {get} got at {her home} {her home} her home (0.95) with a (0.76) {brila} brilliant necklace|(1.0) but (2.0) instead the girl (0.97) fall in love {with (0.93) her} with his (1.89) {eh} (1.45) :: the girl {don't} (1.22) don't appear {in} interested (1.0) by him|(1.02) so third day (1.5) the man (1.89) appear {at home} at girl home with a (0.9) fancy clothes :: to bring (0.73) her|(1.0) {but} (3.0) but (0.76) the girl (1.63) don't (2.08) show interested yet|(0.98) so (1.35) instead the for time the man (2.06) bring (1.31) presents for her {and (3.46) try} (5.9) and try (2.96) :: do (1.59) she loves her :: she bring a car with (1.3) another girlfriend inside him|

Int6 - |Once upon a time there was a couple (0.52) a woman and a man (0.52) {who used to li} (4.98*) {ahhh (0.66*)} {ok}| they used to live together|(1.42) and all he wanted :: (0.56) was :: to get from her a satisfied smile|(2.0) so the first thing he tried :: (0.54) was :: to buy her a diamond ring| but she didn't even look at it|(1.1) so he tried (0.7) {eh} to give her a shinny necklace|(1.17) but honestly she didn't care about it| (2.32) so he kept :: trying to give her bigger and bigger gifts|(1.48) she never looked at it|(0.7) one day he got tired (1.0) {of being} :: of having by his side (0.74) {eh} so unhappy person|(2.21) so he bought (1.2) a

new gift {fro} for himself| (1.2) {ah} (1.29) and it was a new car
{within a woman} {ah} within a woman inside| (1.25) and that's the end|

Int7 - |John loved Mary so much and used to buy gift for her|(13.19*) so
he used to buying gifts :: to impress her|(2.0) once on a time (2.6) {he}
he bought her a beautiful ring but she refused|(0.65) then he decided ::
{to} (0.8) to buy a beautiful necklace :: made of gold and precious
stones|(0.88) but she refused again|(2.09) then John decided :: to buy
something bigger than a necklace (0.47) or a ring|(0.5) and (0.41) he
bought for her (1.35) a beautiful coat|(2.39) so (0.93) one more time
Mary refused (0.95) his gift|(2.84) then John decided (1.32) to ::
enough|(0.9) and bought a new conversive car (0.84) :: to {hang} hang
around with her|(1.8) but Mary was so boring| (0.6) and refused
too|(1.96) but Praticia (0.47) was a girl :: that was (0.72) observing John
:: (0.46) want love Mary|(1.1) and (1.0) decided :: to talk to him|(0.88)
so in this time Mary (0.46) lose John forever|

Int8 - |João tried to invite Maria :: to go out {with them}(0.44) with
him|(2.0) but (1.09) Maria didn't accept his invite|(1.46) he gave (1.15)
her (0.57) {a eh} rings, necklaces and another gifts|(0.86) but (1.51) she
didn't accept|(2.66) {so João invite (0.58) another} (0.96) so João
invited another woman :: (1.3) to go out with him| (0.64) and she
accepted|(2.67) when (1.78) they (1.08) was going (0.78) to the cinema
:: (2.37) they (0.92) passed (0.44) in front of (0.45) Maria's house|(1.41)
{Mar} Maria saw (0.85) them|(1.74) and (1.32) cries a lot| (0.57) {she
cries for} she cried for a long hours|(1.74) and (1.3) in the end (0.93) she
decided :: to go out and have fun|(1.89) in the end (1.21) all of them
(1.31) {wa} (0.52) was (0.7) happy (1.64) and happiness for all|

Int9 - |{Ah} (0.8) a history (0.42) tells as about a man :: (0.51) who
(0.72) trying to please his wife|(0.64) {but} {ah} (2.06) {but} {she}
{ah} but {she didn't she don't} (1.1) she doesn't care about his
gifts|(1.15) {eh (0.85)} the man (0.92) {eh (0.46)} came with a ring| and
she don't even look at it| (1.27) after he came with a fancy coat| and
(1.12) {she don't} she doesn't look as well|(1.97) and after that (1.0) the
man came with a girl in his new fancy car|(0.87) and that girl is (0.6) his
(0.47) new girlfriend|(1.46) {and the} (2.51) and {as} when he came
with the girl in the car :: (0.58) the woman (0.48) started to pay attention
him|(1.32) and the story tell us :: that (0.94) you only recognize the
value of things :: (0.72) when you (0.72) lose it|

Int10 - |A man (1.89) is desperate :: to get married with a woman|(1.53) he offers many things to her|(1.47) beautiful (1.04) joys, (1.39) brilliant ring, (2.28) expensive clothes|(0.76) but (1.23) the woman decline|(2.78) after this (0.76) the man (0.4) buy a new woman (1.11) with {ah} these things and (from 'and' 0.98) (1.18) a expensive car|(0.69) and the first woman (1.58) stay dissapointed|

Int11 - |{Once upon a time} (3.89) Once upon a time the guy :: who's falling in love with wrong girl| his name is John| John is falling in love with Patricia|(2.84) {he's buy} (1.9) he's buy a diamond ring for her| but (0.96) she just don't like|(1.81) so (0.76) he buy (1.11) a necklace for her expensive necklace| but she still the same| [inaudible] :: she say|(2.19) {so} (6.45) so he buy expensive gift difference of the other| but she's still the same|(0.66) just don't like|(0.96) so John just give up|(2.33) {he} (2.15) he buy a new car for him|(2.24) {and she (3.08) has found} (1.73) {and he found} (5.59) and he found the love of her life in the (inaudible) story|(0.5) and the end|

Iso1 - |So, (1.63) there were two persons a man and a woman, (0.53) maybe a couple| I don't know|(0.8) and (from 'and' 0.76) the man offered to the woman (0.5) a present a little present|(0.41) but she refused it|(1.04) then (0.49) the man saw it and (0.46) try again| and he offer to her (0.7) a beautiful necklace| but {h} she refused again|(0.7) so (0.4) he tried {ah (0.68)} (0.46) to give her (0.78) a (from 'a' 0.66) bag with some clothes|(0.53) but (0.45) she refuse it again|(1.12) so (0.52) in the end tired of :: being trying (0.72) to give her present :: (0.72) he decided :: to offer {ah} a big car |(1.73) and {how can we} (0.45) how can we expect :: (0.94) she (from 'she' 1.24) (0.48) accepted the gift|(0.76) and (from 'and' 0.91) (0.68) they went out the car|(0.8) and that's it|

Iso2 - |They were nothing|(1.29) but he was so alone as her|(1.61) Love is not something :: that we can buy|(0.66) we can't buy love|(2.1) he get tired of (0.64) :: trying (0.78) to bought her with gifts|(2.55) gifts not {mean} (1.25) mean anything for her|(1.6) she refuse all the gifts :: (0.69) because (0.42) she knew :: (1.69) that he (1.82) don't love her at all|(2.25) that's the point|(1.25) now he's so alone (0.7) as her|

Iso3 - |It tells us the story of a man :: who's trying to {propose} propose (0.57) for a girl|(1.18) first he tries with a ring|(0.83) and she says no| then he tries with a {necks} necklace| and she says no again| (0.8) {then} (0.5) so he tries with a bag full of clothes| but she still say no| it's

not enough|(0.47) at the end (0.4) {to show he's done with her} (0.58) {he (0.94)} (2.01) to show :: he's done with her :: he appears at her home (0.63) with a fancy car (0.86) and a new girl|(1.29) and that's it|

Iso4 - |{ahn} the history is about a guy :: 0.62) that (1.4) wanted to (0.48) go out with a girl|(1.3) but (0.44) the girl didn't care (0.73) {about his} about he|(1.42) {ahn} (2.94) so he started to bring presents to her|(0.64) but she still didn't care about|(4.3) {ahn} (2.21) {hm} in the end of the history (0.65) he appears with (1.09) his car (0.65) with (1.6) a girl|(1.7) and (2.01) cuz {he gave up} (2.05) {to} (14.51) he gave up the first girl|(1.51) and (0.77) that's it|

Iso5 - |A man was {eh} in love with this brunette girl|(0.71) and ask her to marry him|(0.75) but she didn't like him|(3.27) then (0.8) he gave her {a} a ring {a necklace} a necklace (0.68) and also clothes| (0.71) but (0.7) she didn't want to accept :: because she wasn't falling in love with him|(1.17) then he was {very tired to} (0.43) {very tire} very tired :: trying (0.75) to convince her| (0.62) and went out|(0.87) he met this {ah} (1.23) blond girl (0.42) in a party|(0.57) and offer her a car| and she accept it right away|(1.25) {ah (0.44)} so she was falling in love with him|(0.85) he went to the brunette house :: (0.67) to show her :: what she (0.43) just losted|(0.76) {and (0.63)} (2.49) and she was very disappointed :: because she knows :: (0.53) that money can't buy love|(0.94) and (from 'and' 0.67) (0.65) {ac} actually she was disappointed with the blond girl :: (1.56) because it was not enough time to her :: to fall in love with him|(0.79) and then the brunette girl went back home|(0.98) and happy :: (0.85) because she's will find some love (0.45) somewhere|(1.24) and he went out with this blond girl (1.26) {buying} {th}|(0.81) the love was buying with money|(1.04) so that's it|

Iso6 - |{The man was in love (0.64) with your (from 'your' 0.79)} (4.18) the man was in love with his (0.4) friend|(0.98) {ahn (0.66)} (1.81) he believed :: (0.52) that (from 'that' 0.79) (1.16) if she received any presents (0.9) from (from 'from' 0.78) (0.5) him :: (4.01) {she will accepted} (0.84) she will accept (0.52) {be your} (1.71) be his girlfrind|(2.07) so he {bought} bought (2.03) any presents for her (0.79) rings, (0.43) clothes|(1.09) {and (0.75)} (4.2) and she didn't accept {be your} be his girlfriend|(2.45) so finally he (from 'he' 0.9) (0.86) bought a car|(1.48) and went (0.58) to (from 'to' 0.72) (0.98) his friend house :: (0.61) to show (2.59) his new car (0.62) and (from 'and' 0.45) (1.12) his new (0.83) girlfriend| (1.21) he finally found (1.8) a (from 'a' 0.53) girl ::

(0.69) {who loves} (1.79) {eh (0.47)} (0.47) {eh (0.65)} (2.72) who loves he and (1.45) {not your} (0.9) not his things (5.42) or not|

Iso7 - |The man (0.51) asked the woman :: to get married|(0.7) but {eh} she (0.48) refused|(0.8) so he thought :: to try (1.84) give her some gifts|(1.05) and {then} so he tried to give her some jewelry, (0.6) some clothes and (1.71) some another things| but not of these worked|(0.74) and {h} she kept her thought (0.4) about :: to refuse (1.18) {eh} {his} (0.6) his (0.94) offer|(1.21) so he was tired :: to try (1.13) to (1.48) change her thought|(0.76) and (from 'and' 1.08) (1.39) so he bought a new car and get another woman :: (0.95) to (0.6) make his (0.48) ex woman (0.88) to be jealous|(2.1) so (0.67) when she (0.89) passed in front of (0.73) her window :: (2.4) she was really upset :: and then look at him (0.86) with another woman|(1.05) get (0.84) {eh} is this|(0.87) I don't know|

Iso8 - |Last Sunday (0.48) I saw a man :: (0.92) {hm} (1.09) fall in love (0.79) to a woman|(0.61) but (from 'but' 0.99) the woman (0.49) didn't look {for} for he|(0.7) {ah} the man (0.51) {ah (1.17)} (0.88) {giv} {give a lot of} (0.86) {sorry} (0.54) the man (1.07) gave (0.5) a lot of (1.06) {eh} gifts for she|(0.7) but she don't (0.72) {ahn} look {for} for he|(0.75) {eh} when the woman (0.64) {ah} {se (1.93)} look (0.83) the man with the other person (0.44) a very beautiful girl :: (0.64) {eh} she cry (0.74) cry a lot of :: (0.54) because she was alone|

Iso9 - |The boy love so much a girl| (0.84) and he wanted to married {h} her|(2.0) then {sh} {eh} {he gave} {he} he bought a ring to her|(0.73) and ask to her :: married him|(1.92) {eh} but she said no|(1.45) then {he} {he loved} (0.93) he loved her so much to gave up|(2.2) and he (1.64) bought another present to her{eh} bigger than the first|(2.3) {ahn (0.88)} (0.75) but she still said no|(1.4) and (1.53) she looked at him (1.04) {ah} with indereference|(0.64) and looked like :: she wants some present bigger (0.69) {ah}| then {eh} he bought another present (1.01) bigger than the other two|(1.36) and she still said no|(1.0) {eh (0.81)} (1.6) {eh} he don't want to (0.5) give up|(0.64) and he bought a car|(0.63) then {she (1.14)} she was {so happ} {ah} very happy|(0.84) and accept married him :: if {he (0.83)} (1.43) he give the car to her|(0.98) and in the end (1.13) {ahn (0.81)} (0.81) the boy and the girl (1.35) had :: what they want| and they (from 'they' 0.85) (1.64) feeling happy|

Iso10 - |{Ah} there was a time :: (0.56) a man loved (0.94) a woman|(1.02) but unfortunetely (0.45) she didn't love {her} him back|(1.19) {eh} {the woman} {eh} (1.66) the woman gave her a lot of gifts (0.55) including clocolates, a ring, (0.76) {eh} clothes (0.88) and a lot of other (0.66) things| (2.05) {eh} the woman hes name was Maria(4.3) {didn't} (0.7) {ah} (1.17) didn't {love} {ah} love him back :: because she thought :: he was too much (0.48) for him| because he was the most beautiful woman (0.5) {at} at the {city} city|(1.56) {hm} (16.54) one day (0.96) {the} the man {appear} appeared (0.84) {eh} {under the win} under her (0.56) window (0.91) {eh} with a new car|(1.33) {eh} surprised with the gift (0.83) {eh} :: Maria {thou} thought (0.88) {eh} :: the gift was for her| but it didn't|(0.78) because {ah (0.59)} (0.7) {a} knowing woman (0.8) get off of the car|(0.87) {eh} Maria get brokenhearted|(0.85) and (1.14) get (0.6) {eh} very sad (0.89) with the woman :: (0.5) whose name was João|

Iso11 - |{Ah} {the story} (1.01) the story is about a man :: (0.7) that try {gi} {eh} give a gift to (0.85) a woman|(1.11) {ah} the first time he try to give her (0.49) a ring|(0.73) but she {simple} simply (1.31) denied| (1.01) she ingored totally {the} the gift (0.65) and the man too|(1.17) {the second time} (1.38) {she try to} (1.3) the second time (0.55) he try to give her (1.22) a colar| {ah} (0.76) {hm} I don't know neck colar I don't know| (0.9) {and} (2.0) and (1.0) the woman (0.91) denied (0.41) and {ignore} (0.92) ignored (0.41) {the} the colar (0.51) again|(2.52) in (1.42) the third (3.44) chance (2.84) the man try to give her (1.87) beautiful clothes (0.9) {ex} expensive clothes|(1.63) but again the woman (0.53) ignored it|(1.1) and (from 'and' 1.14) (2.14) neither look (0.5) for that|(2.14) so (2.53) the man (0.71) {go away} (0.96) goes away|(1.21) and come back (0.78) with a car|(3.2) he calls her :: to (0.69) come to the window :: (0.67) to see the car|(0.8) and (1.63) the woman (2.18) {eh} came (0.5) at the window| (1.37) and then (0.44) {he} he show :: (0.6) who is inside the car|(1.1) there's a girl| (2.62) so (1.55) I think :: (0.4) the woman (1.64) didn't show any reaction (0.79) like (1.33) sadness or surprised| I don't know|(0.72) but (1.26) {it} {it can means} it could mean :: (0.81) that it's not worry about the man|(0.7) or simply (1.26) {he} she (2.11) doesn't like (0.44) {mens} (0.53) men|(0.5) {or} (2.08) or (0.42) could like girl| I don't know|

Iso12 - |So what I've (0.53) think :: it's like (0.83) :: the man was wanting the woman :: to do something with him|(0.5) but the woman doesn't wanted|(0.58) was like :: he {wa} was offering like rings and

expensive things and clothes| but even this way she doesn't want to do it|(0.57) but then {sh} {he} {th} {bought} (1.78) he (3.09) bring a car|(0.92) and even this way {h} she doesn't want|(0.54) then he open the (0.61) car| and there's a other woman|(0.6) {so (0.42) the point} I think :: that's the point is :: if you (0.59) don't want to do the things with your partner :: he will probably (1.07) get {eh} {another person} another people :: to do (0.54) it with him|(1.05) and {you} you'll get alone|

TASK B

Con1 - |A cat called Jerry :: (1.08) fell in love (0.68) to (0.45) Rose|(1.45) but Rose (2.14) had a boyfriend|(1.0) and Jerry (0.52) saw (0.92) the couple together|(0.92) very very happy|(1.24) and {ee (0.97)} after that (1.33) Jerry (3.36) was very depressive|(1.11) I think :: Rose (1.46) loved (1.43) your boyfriend|

Con2 - |There was a cat :: called Tom| and he was in love by (0.5) {a} (0.71) another cat|(1.8) {eh} so (0.8) he was thinking about her|(0.54) and dreaming with her :: like (0.86) they passing some time together and all these things|(5.18) So (1.43) he was looking for (0.59) her (1.08) another day|(0.88) and when he finally found :: (2.29) he (0.97) saw her with another cat (0.53) a (0.91) rich one|(2.87) So he decided :: to go to her house (0.47) with {a} (1.79) a (0.58) beautiful car|(0.74) but (0.96) when he (0.77) went there :: (0.85) the other cat was there with a (0.45) bigger and better car|(0.85) so {he} (3.0) {stay really} {he} (0.98) he was really bad with this|

Con3 - |Tom was walking by the street :: (0.51) when she saw a pretty (0.48) female cat|(1.48) and immediately he fall in love with her|(1.63) They (0.53) hang out sometimes|(0.8) but the relationship {eh (0.45)} didn't {eh} (0.53) take (0.49) too long|(0.8) One day (0.61) {her boyfrie} {eh} (1.08) {his boy} his girlfriend was {eh} on the club :: taking some sunlight and (0.5) relaxing :: (0.48) when (1.39) a rich cat saw her|(0.63) and he kissed her|(1.3) Tom didn't like too much the situation|(0.56) but {eh} his {eh} girlfriend {eh} didn't take {eh} (0.8) too much care about Tom| {and} (1.08) {eh} (1.03) and (1.24) {the} {eh} (0.5) she (0.57) didn't {eh} (0.77) talk with Tom anymore|(0.7) {and} (1.08) {eh} and then {eh} (0.47) she run away with {eh} her new boyfriend|(0.5) and Tom fall in tears (1.1) in his house|

Con4 - |Tom (0.43) was in love for a cat :: (0.7) named Julia|(1.82) but Julia (0.65) has a boyfriend|(1.88) {he} (1.03) it is (0.68) Lucas the bad cat| he is terrible|(6.21) Tom is very very sad :: (1.4) because (0.53) Julia is the most nice and beautiful cat :: that he even seen in his life|

Con5 - |Elias was a young cat :: (0.4) in love with a pretty cat|(0.67) I gave her all the attention :: that she deserves|(0.65) or she thinks :: that deserved|(1.23) A few {we} weeks later she betrayed me for rich cat|(5.92) I spent all my money :: try to take her back|(0.56) but I failed|(0.58) The rich cat gave her beautiful car :: (1.24) which better than mine| and I felt defeated|

Con6 - |{Um} (0.86) The cat (0.51) Tom is in love for another cat a beautiful cat|(0.59) but another cat (0.4) more wealthy and handsome (0.66) tries to conquer her too| (4.57) {eh} {the} The rich cat try to conquer the other cat :: giving her (0.76) expensive gifts, (0.56) taking her to places {then}, {hm} :: (3.08) with a fancier car {than} (0.41) than Tom's car|(0.82) and Tom can't compete {with} with him|(1.69) very sad (1.38) {Tom drin} Tom drinks a lot of milk {with} (0.99) {hm} |(1.14) With the rat Jerry he drinks his milk {like} (0.96) like :: who been drinking an alcohol bevarage :: (0.74) getting drunk, trying {to forg} (0.95) {to} to forget (0.5) her|

Con7 - |Tom was a cat :: that was falling in love (0.54) {wi} (0.42) by (0.46) Joana|(2.06) however there is another (0.96) cat :: that was more rich and inteligent| Your name is Sebastian|(1.07) {Eh (0.9)} (0.5) because of that, (0.9) {eh} (1.66) Joana {going to} (1.69) {going} going out with Sebastian a lot| Together (0.44) both are going to the shopping, the movies and other places|(1.18) {Eh} (2.53) Joana (0.63) think :: that (0.69) Sebastian is more interesting, more beautiful, (0.71) more (2.11) funny (1.02) that (0.58) Tom|(1.21) {Eh} In other hand, (1.57) there is Tom|(0.64) Tom don't know :: {what do} what to do (1.17) {eh} {for that} (0.66) for buy (0.97) for :: (3.1) Joana likes herself|(1.2) He talked a lot with Jerry your friend|(0.59) {eh} he talked (0.97) {eh} long hour about Joana, about life, (0.89) {eh}, (1.19) etc|

Con8 - |{Eh} Tom was a very nice cat|(1.66) One day (0.8) Tom was walking at the park :: (0.78) when (0.87) he saw a beautiful (2.08) and (1.43) awesome (0.78) cat, (0.73) Lidia|(1.63) Tom fall in love for her at the same time|(1.42) so (1.11) Tom decided :: to invite her :: {to} {a} to go to a date {with he} with him|(3.22) The date was fine|(1.24) {a} {was

everything} (5.8) was everything (0.71) looking good (0.98) until {at the middle of} at the middle (1.15) from the date|(1.5) Tonny, (1.77) a rich and snob cat (3.03) arrive|(2.45) and then (1.07) Tonny (1.02) started to (4.33) try conquer the girl (2.43) Lidia (1.03) at the same time at the middle at the date|(0.71) Tom becomes very angry|(1.9) but Lidia is not much interested in both|(1.45) so (0.59) Tom (1.65) {see} saw :: (0.66) that (0.73) he (0.45) had arrived|(0.6) and he (0.9) had to conquer her first|(2.0) The both (2.74) leave|(1.88) and Lidia go home|(0.55) In the next day, (1.48) Tom (2.88) gave her flowers|(2.72) and she smiled a little|(2.09) but then (0.5) Tonny arrives|(1.87) and give her (0.87) a expensive (2.0) {eh} dress|(0.69) and she smiled (0.87) more|(3.51) So Tom loses the first battle|(1.17) In the next day, (1.26) Tom (0.7) was decided :: to do (4.14) anything (1.0) necessary :: to conquer her| so Tom (1.44) {with} (1.5) {all her} with all (0.69) his economies :: (0.78) he rent (0.96) a nice car|(1.73) {and goes} (1.78) and went to the (1.0) Lidia house :: (2.26) to invite her to a date| but when he arrived :: (0.78) there was Tonny with (0.46) a big, (0.81) sport and expensive (0.43) car, a (0.93) {benW} (1.28) BMW|(0.79) So Lidia (1.12) from the window look Tom and Tonny|(1.0) She left the house but she (7.76) increase (1.3) at Tonny's car|(0.69) so then (0.43) Tom saw :: (0.99) he lose the second battle|(5.96) Tonny (1.13) dated the girl|(0.75) and Tom started to cry at home :: (0.77) {because she lo..} (1.31) because (0.76) Lidia (1.15) was more interesting|(0.5) and (2.35) money and (2.15) {expensi}, expensive things (0.98) (inaudible) (0.79) sincere love|

Con9 - |This is a (0.81) tragic love story| (0.86) Tom (0.47) the cat loved the most beautiful woman in the (0.55) cat's world|(1.11) but (0.65) she never loves he :: (0.88) the way he love (0.46) her|(1.41) and (1.23) she stays with (0.71) another guy :: who had a lot of thing :: to offer to her|(0.76) but (0.5) isn't love too|(1.22) and (0.68) Tom (1.0) the other guy (1.19) {eh} (0.59) {gives up} {give up} (1.46) give up on her :: because (1.09) {eh} (0.7) she deserve more| and (0.77) {she thinks} (1.59) {she thinks} {eh} he thinks :: (0.69) {eh} love is about yourself too|

Con10 - |The history is about three cats| (0.84) {eh} the first one is Frajola|(0.57) He is {ff} falling in love (0.7) with the woman|(1.37) but (0.65) she has a relationship (0.61) with the other cat :: (0.85) who (0.81) {ah} has much money (0.75) and (0.6) a better car than Frajola|(1.01) So Frajola stay very bad|(1.26) and drunk a lot of milk ::

to forget {the} the woman :: (0.57) when (1.71) he talk {ah} (1.29) to a friend|

Con11 - Tom seem (0.58) fell in love with another cat| (1.0) and he takes her :: for (0.55) enjoy the day with him|(1.84) {Eh} seem :: (0.71) they (2.37) {ah} (1.0) have fun|(2.68) but (0.8) after other cat appear|(0.8) and he's rich|(1.07) And (2.18) he (0.6) kiss her| and (2.98) {tom} Tom lose the (0.94) cat|(3.59) He try to get her| but he lose :: (1.0) because he's poor|(0.83) That's it|

Int1 - |{Eh} the cartoon tells us a story about (0.61) one cat|(0.51) His name is Tom|(1.03) {Eh} he meet a other cat| He fall in love in first view|(1.13) {Eh (0.7)} this other cat (0.53) only concerns about {ah} look style of life, (0.58) money|(0.92) and have a boyfriend|(1.59) Tom {trie} try to {uh} impress this cat :: (1.53) {eh} bring some gifts and (0.68) catch on her house (1.62) with a simple car|(1.1) {but} (1.19) but this female cat doesn't like :: (0.71) because (1.17) {like only about} (1.69) {ah} this female cat (2.47) {eh} {so} {is} (1.73) doesn't care (0.43) about Tom|(2.17) {Hmm} (2.52) Tom try to get her (0.72) on his house with some simple car|(1.1) but doesn't like he|(1.16) Tom be (1.69) just sad (1.65) about the situation|

Int2 - |Tom is a cat and was in love {wi} with one cats girl|(0.82) and one day he decide to invite her :: to go out to a park and have fun|(1.67) {Ah} the another day he saw (0.93) her girl (0.74) with other {guy cat} guy's cat| and {uh (1.09)} (0.56) {he} (0.49) this guy invited her :: to (1.06) go out in the swim pool|(0.51) and get to her a lovely day|(0.85) he was jealous| and he decide :: to impress the girl (0.45) again|(0.75) and boat a nice car|(0.43) and {eh} went to her :: to invite (1.55) to go out again with a nice car|(1.93) but the other (0.55) {guy cat} guy's cat (0.63) did the same about with the car (1.07) more beautiful than the Tom|(0.97) and when he saw :: he was so dissappointed|(1.0) and {he} after that he was sad and went to talk with Jerry his friend|

Int3 - |Something happening in Tom's heart|(0.71) He's in love for a very beautiful cat| (0.69) and he'll try everything {to} (1.03) :: to gain her heart|(0.92) but wait|(0.58) Another guy is in the key|(0.92) He's {a} (0.62) a very ugly cat but he's rich|(1.7) but don't worry| Tom it's a very persistent cat|(0.53) and (1.0) he ask to a friend {to} :: (0.7) to lend him a car :: (0.44) to show to the cat girl|(1.11) so (1.43) he show to her|(1.62) but {the other bad guy} (0.47) the other bad cat guy (1.16)

appeared with another better car|(0.95) so the girl (0.42) went with this bad guy|(1.24) oh Tom now it's so sad|(0.88) and (0.51) to help {him} {her} :: his friend (0.73) Jerry (0.76) {uh (0.7)} (1.41) offered {a} (0.9) a milk|(0.92) but (0.71) Tom sadness it's so magnificent|(0.81) so that's it|

Int4 - |Tom (0.6) had a crush on a female cat|(0.8) her color was white|(1.63) Everytime Tom could (0.9) stay with her :: (0.92) other handsome and rich cat (0.75) could (0.82) call her attention|(3.0) The rich cat (1.56) takes her (0.81) to his pool|(1.59) and (from 'and' 0.97) (0.41) Tom gets sad|(3.19) Then Tom (1.31) tries to call her attention|(0.76) and he shows up (0.59) in a car|(1.3) but handsome and rich cat (0.9) had a better car|(1.06) and he showed her (0.6) his better car|(4.81) The rich cat then (1.08) can smack her|(1.97) and (from 'and' 1.14) (0.69) Tom (1.86) gets disappointed|(1.03) and he tries to heal (0.94) his broken heart (1.45) with milk|(0.73) and (0.54) he (0.5) gets drunk (1.67) with milk|

Int5 - |The history tells about Tom the cat :: (0.68) {who is falling in love (0.6) with a} who is falling in love (1.53) in a cat a beautiful cat :: (1.41) who (0.97) he makes everything :: to make her happy|(0.7) but (0.97) in a day he's found out :: she's {af} (0.5) already (0.51) dating another cat|(1.16) so (1.58) {he} (1.63) {he} (1.36) {is suprised} (1.03) {he} he are suprised :: to discover that|(0.97) and (1.87) {she} {he nee} (0.68) he (0.71) thinks :: (0.94) {she cheat on (0.41) her} (0.9) she cheat on his|(0.73) so (0.94) in the end (0.4) {Tom's} (2.21) Tom (0.83) {went to cry (0.53) with her} (1.74) went to cry to your (0.7) friend Jerry|

Int6 - |At first, (0.66) {eh} {there was} {there were} (0.53) there was this cat (0.46) Tom|(1.08) and so he sees a pretty lady cat|(1.48) then he tries to (0.8) impress her|(1.27) and (0.75) there's always a {better ca} better cat :: doing better things to her|(1.24) like when he tries to get her {in} {a} :: to {a} ride {in} in his car|(1.15) and (0.65) the other cat has {a better ca} a better car|(2.41) so at the end, (0.6) he quits and get really disappointed|(0.5) That's it|

Int7 - |{Tom} {cough} (0.41) Tom felt in love with Mary a {pretty white} (0.88) pretty white cat|(1.98) so he decided :: {to} to did something nice :: to impress her and have fun times with her|(0.85) but at the same time (0.52) another black cat (0.52) was also in love for Mary|(0.56) He used to smoke|(0.51) and this fact impressed her|(1.52)

Tom got so nervous, so desperate :: because (0.56) he thought :: that (1.0) Mary was (0.91) his love|(2.04) So (2.9) he rent a car :: (0.54) to sightseeing with Mary|(0.8) but Mary was already waiting for the black cat|(2.29) so (0.72) Tom got (0.48) his heart broken|(0.84) and went back home :: to drink a lot of milk :: to try to forget Mary|(1.07) and open (0.64) his heart with (0.67) his best friend Jerry|

Int8 - |Tom sees a cat (0.57) a beautiful one|(1.71) and he falls in love for|(1.95) but (0.59) he wasn't so rich as Ben|(1.16) so in the end (2.0) he stayed alone and sad|

Int9 - |The history is about a gray cat :: who fall in love with a white cat a white pretty cat|(0.85) And they start to play each other|(1.6) {eh} after that the gray cat (0.5) finds :: that there is a black cat :: who also (0.73) is trying to date the white one|(0.66) and it pisses him off|(1.44) {Eh} The gray cat {eh} (1.65) invites the white cat {to} :: to go out| and comes {wi} with a poor (0.95) and old car|(0.83) and the white cat {hn} even notice him|(1.75) and after that {the} (0.48) the black (0.9) {eh} arrives with the fancy and big car|(1.21) and the white cat (1.06) choses him (0.47) over the poor and lonely guy|

Int10 - |Tom is falling in love (2.54) for a beautiful (1.09) cat|(2.67) He gives for her a {day} (1.23) bucolic day|(3.16) but she doesn't give (0.4) your heart for him|(2.9) after this (0.67) a (1.64) rich cat appears|(0.56) and offers (1.26) a {expensive} (0.44) {expending day} (0.47) expending money day (0.54) for her|(2.13) She (1.12) and he {stay} (1.04) {in a} (2.48) stay {drink} drinking a lot|(1.76) drinking (2.6) in a swimming pool|(1.72) and travel with a expensive car|(1.37) and she (0.85) give her (1.18) heart for him|(4.38) At the end, the Tom (0.97) stay sad in home (0.53) with a hat|

Int11 - |So (0.64) Tom was a cat :: who fall in love for a neighbor|(1.48) He don't much (0.74) :: to offer her (1.0) but only your true love|(1.79) so someday (0.64) he came (0.82) to your home and see (0.78) his (0.55) love :: (0.63) talking and smiling with another cat|(0.4) but he don't give up|(0.58) {he still} {he still} {no} he even (0.59) buy a new car|(1.29) {he} not new but used, awful|(1.5) and {it} it's a car|(0.96) so (1.37) {your rival} {eh} (0.4) your rival car {is} {is} was shinny and new| and (2.61) have a beautiful car| so he stolen the girl from the poor {Jerry} (0.42) {jerr}, {eh} Tom| and (1.79) the end|

Iso1 - |So, {there wa} there were {a cat} (0.53) {tw} three cats: (0.62) one a female and two males|(1.1) and (0.87) one cat (0.83) was playing with the other cat|(0.73) and they were like happy|(1.28) but then arrive another cat|(1.34) and (1.69) the first cat :: who was playing with the girl :: (1.64) {ah} (0.81) was angry :: (1.35) because he arrived (0.63) late after|(1.33) and (1.13) then (1.82) one cat (0.4) arrived with (0.46) a (0.73) car a big car|(0.89) and the other cat arrived (0.43) with another car :: in a biggest and more beautiful|(0.91) and guess (0.4) :: with who (0.56) the female (0.86) went with|(1.4) {uh} (0.44) {obsv} obsvioully (0.86) she went (1.22) with (0.88) the one :: who (1.27) had {the} (1.36) the biggest car|(1.22) and after this, (1.29) the other cat (1.52) was (1.0) sad (0.94) and a little bit angry|

Iso2 - |Tom was in love|(1.07) but this bad guy come in (0.48) and stole his love|(0.96) the girl that he was in love|(2.0) only because this bad guy was richer {than Tom} than Tom|(1.57) and (1.45) oh poor Tom (0.69) is heartbroken|(1.79) but he still have an good friend|

Iso3 - |{Jerry} (0.65) {oh} (3.04) Jerry {eh} the gray cat (0.6) is walking in the street and sees (0.5) a female white cat :: (0.55) walking and he falls for her|(1.14) {and tries to make everything for her to} (0.46) and tries to make everything :: (0.5) to make her (0.56) fall for him too as well|(1.24) so (1.0) {oh gosh} (1.51) she's not interested in feelings| she's interested in money|(1.0) and it is :: when the richer cat appears|(0.5) and (0.77) she wants to stay with him not with Jerry :: because Jerry is poor| and she's just interested in money|(1.46) That's it| so she dates the richer cat|(0.78) and Jerry stays alone (0.47) and :: crying (0.79) and sad :: (0.44) because he doesn't have money|

Iso4 - |There are two cats; (0.84) Tom and a black cat|(1.75) {Hmm} They are trying to get the attention of a girl|(0.7) That girl is a (0.9) female cat|(1.07) so (2.17) everything that (0.47) Tom does :: the black cat does it better|(2.24) {hmm} (3.32) Tom appears with a car|(1.12) {so} (0.65) but the black cat appears with a better and more ex expensive car|(1.48) and after all the (0.87) girl stays with the black cat|(1.68) and (2.26) Tom get sad|(2.16) {and} (7.37) and he (1.48) are crying and drinking milk :: (2.55) cuz the the girl (0.48) doesn't want to stay with {h} him|

Iso5 - |There was this white cat| She was very sexy|(0.58) and the gray cat liked her very much|(0.61) and he tried to (1.04) make her :: fall in

love with him|(0.74) but he was not {ar} as charming as a black cat|(0.7) and the black cat was around|(0.82) {ah} (2.61) {the} the gray cat tried|(0.61) but he couldn't afford (0.4) the white cat's love|(1.04) so the cat's love (0.43) decided :: to go out with the black cat|(0.41) and the gray cat (0.59) was very sad and drink a lot of beer| or I don't know|(0.9) something with alcohol|(0.52) and he end his night very very drunk|

Iso6 - |Tom had a friend|(0.87) He loved Mary so much|(1.61) He found (0.44) Mary in a beach with other catch|(0.4) and {it} it was terrible|(1.34) so (0.78) he thought :: {that} (1.48) {if he} (1.18) that she will love :: (2.03) if he had a car|(0.6) so he bought a car| and show (0.44) it to her|(1.15) {ah} but (0.56) the (1.21) car of the other cat (0.86) was (0.41) bigger than {the Tom's cat} (0.85) the Tom's car|(1.21) and (1.45) it was too late|(0.77) because (1.91) {she} (1.61) she was in love with the other cat|(0.93) and Tom was crying|

Iso7 - |The cat met {a} (0.72) a (0.84) beautiful cat one day|(1.07) so they started to play and go out| and they (0.8) became (0.42) very good friends|(1.19) but (1.23) in one day (1.0) this cat :: (0.7) that (1.34) Tom (1.24) was in love (1.7) met another cat :: (0.78) who was very rich|(1.61) and then (1.17) she (2.02) {started to} (2.06) started a relationship with him|(2.35) {s} {so} and go out and (1.68) started to be just with (0.46) this cat|(1.51) so (0.73) Tom lose (1.57) {his} the love of his life|(1.62) and (2.23) was very upset|(1.49) and {the} {s} so {she think} (0.57) she thought :: (1.53) if I don't have that cat :: I'll stay at home|(0.96) and think about my life| and (2.3) I'll tell this history for (0.5) a friend of mine|(1.55) {eh} so he thought about {the} the mouse (1.98) {he wa} :: that he was (1.09) some kind of enemy|(0.91) but in time like this (1.74) {they} (1.35) this enemy can be (0.56) good too|(0.54) so she stayed at home (1.01) some long days :: (0.96) telling the history for this mouse :: waiting for (0.57) this (0.82) bad feeling (1.42) past through his mind|(1.22) so was this|

Iso8 - |There was (0.61) two cats: (0.63) a poor cat and a rich cat|(0.93) {ah} the poor cat (0.86) {eh} fall in love (0.9) {eh} to a very beautiful girl|(1.7) and (0.85) he fall in love (0.5) {for} (1.0) for she|(1.29) but (0.4) that girl (0.89) prefer (0.7) the other (0.69) cat|(0.59) because (0.81) he had (1.0) {eh} more (0.55) money (0.74) than the poor (0.82) cat|(1.27) {ah} the poor cat (0.72) offer (0.86) {eh} (0.4) a lot of gifts (0.74) for she|(0.89) but she (0.71) prefer (0.8) the (0.48) gifts :: (0.84) that the rich car (1.46) {the} gave (0.54) {f} for she|(1.46) {hmm}

(3.25) {and} (5.51) {the} and {a} one day, (2.04) the (0.53) poor cat go to (0.8) {eh} (0.78) way (1.03) with {her} his car|(1.38) but (1.08) he was very (1.0) {eh} (7.6) {hmm} {no} (1.88) {she wasn't} (6.4) {I don't know the words to I can} (1.01) {to I can say now}|(0.69) but to finish :: (1.48) the (1.84) poor cat (0.87) {eh} (2.34) was with her (2.18) better (0.47) friend|

Iso9 - |Tom went to the park :: to have fun|(0.86) and then he see {a} a cat a beautiful cat|(0.52) and he falled in love with her|(0.79) and (0.6) {he} he went to talk to her| (0.6) and {he} (0.91) he start to do much things fun|(0.76) and {they} they was happy together|(1.03) then {a} arrived another cat|(0.65) and he (0.57) started {to} (1.6) to talk with Mary too|(0.82) and he was very very rich|(0.43) and he started to talk (0.6) for her (0.45) the things :: that he could buy for her|(0.74) And He had a car and much more things than Tom|(1.11) {Ah} (0.42) after some time (0.67) {ah} Mary forget about Tom| (1.01) and went away with the other cat| and at the end, Tom was very depressed :: (0.4) drinking a lot of milk and talk with his friend Jerry|

Iso10 - |Kitty was a beautiful cat :: that appears at a city :: that Tom and his friend (0.67) were living|(1.09) {She} (0.63) she show herself {eh} (0.89) interested (0.68) at Tom |and she fastly get in love with her| (1.32) but {she} she was {eh} so so much egotistical :: (0.58) because she think {eh} just about herself and money|(1.0) and (0.4) {Tom} (1.8) {eh} Tom just had (0.6) {the} the love (0.8) {for} {eh} :: to offer (0.64) {to} to her|(0.71) and she {don't} don't want {it} (0.44) it|(1.15) {hm} (1.02) Frank (0.5) was a bad cat :: that {Tom} Tom (0.46) didn't like (0.88) {eh} :: because (0.95) {eh} {she} (0.79) {eh} he was not good|(3.0) {Eh} {Kitty} (0.48) Kitty liked (1.0) Frank :: because {he} {he wa} (0.48) he had (0.42) money for her|(0.75) {and she} and Kitty {eh} stopped to talk with Tom|(0.86) and Tom get very sad about it|(0.74) {and} (0.79) {and} (0.81) {she} and he talked (0.4) {to} to (0.91) {him friend} (0.69) {her} {he} (0.84) him friend (3.44) {eh} Jerry| and Jerry helped Tom :: {to} (0.45) to get (0.57) happy again|

Iso11 - |It's a story about {T} Tom and Jerry|(0.69) {ah} One day Tom is walking down the street|and (0.89) he saw Laura|(0.75) Laura is a beautiful cat| She's white and very glamorous|(1.93) {Tom} (1.4) {eh} {Tom} (0.75) Tom (1.29) {eh} {feel} (1.33) {fe} feel in love suddenly|(1.16) and (1.85) he (0.53) asks Laura :: {to} (0.88) {to} (1.59) to go (1.43) {for} for a walk|(0.92) and (1.31) {they} (2.70) they went

(1.75) at a playground and {talk} talk a lot| and (1.65) see each other about {her} (0.97) her interests and (0.51) your family, {your} (1.71) your favorite things|(2.4) So (1.12) {Tom} {eh} (1.82) Tom is very in love {for} {eh} for Laura|(0.99) but there is other cat :: very interested in Laura too|(1.44) The other cat is black and very (0.64) rich|(1.84) so (0.98) Julio (0.55) {eh} invites (0.44) Laura {for} :: (1.05) to stay {with} with him {in a} (1.29) at a pool|(2.56) {uh} and she accept {invite} (0.84) {eh} {Julio} (0.43) Julio (0.54) invite|(2.04) but (1.06) {Tom it's} (0.87) Tom {it's} (0.8) is passing (0.73) {for} {eh} (0.44) near the pool and saw the scene|(1.0) And (0.55) {cough} (1.05) {he} he became very upset (1.46) about this|(2.19) so (1.1) {he} (0.8) {he} (0.96) he think in other strategy :: to (1.46) conquer {Laura} (1.41) Laura's love|(1.1) and (0.49) {he} (0.7) {he} (1.19) {he go} (0.77) {he go} he go to Laura's house (0.89) with a {car} carriage, (0.46) a old car, very romantic car|(1.36) but (1.51) when he (1.5) arrive (1.73) Laura's home (1.14) {in the same} :: (0.56) in the same moment (0.59) Julio (1.06) arrive too with a big and modern and power (1.2) car|(1.62) Laura (1.39) {ah} :: obviously (0.79) or not :: (1.48) {uh} decides :: {to} (1.66) to go out with Julio|(1.16) so Tom (1.44) became very upset| (0.63) and (0.69) go home|(1.95) He drunk a lot of milk with your friend and enemy (0.79) Jerry the mouse|(1.1) and (1.64) {tol} tell (0.71) Jerry about his sad and depressive history (1.86) of love| {or} (1.69) or (0.5) I don't know|(1.33) {hm} (2.0) Ok it's this|

Iso12 - |The blue cat saw the white cat walking|(0.63) and fell in love|(0.51) {The} They even play together, but the white cat has a boyfriend the (0.85) black cat| and {eh} when the blue cat saw their kissing :: (0.63) he want to impress the white {cas} (0.81) cat| and (0.74) no matter how (0.46) cool was the car :: (0.49) {she even} (0.62) she didn't go with the blue| she went away with the (0.48) white cat| and (0.7) in the end the blue cat was pretty pretty sad|

Appendix N – Summary of participants’ answers in the post-task questionnaires

POST-TASK QUESTIONNAIRE A							
PARTICIPANT	LEVEL OF DIFFICULTY OF THE TASK	DID PLANNING ASSIST YOU? HOW?	DO YOU DO DURING PLANNING?	ASPECTS YOU WERE CONCERNED WHILE PERFORMING THE TASK	OPINION ON THE LACK OF INTERLOCUTOR	EVALUATION OF THE PRODUCED TASK	PROCESSES YOU WENT THROUGH WHILE TELLING THE STORY
Con1	Reasonable	Yes, organizing the ideas	Wrote keywords and defined the sequences of the facts	Verbs and sentence structures. Didn't want to make mistakes	Indifferent	Contemplate the figures and respect the sequences. Could have had more details	Problems with verbs and sentences
Con2	Reasonable	Yes, planning and organizing sentences	Wrote the entire story and kept telling it to myself	Didn't want to make mistakes and mispronounce	Good. Felt less ashamed	Told what understood, didn't put extra details to make it more interesting	Thought about the images and what was written
Con3	Reasonable – first narrative task ever	Yes, thought about the narration	Wrote, deleted unnecessary words, formulated the narrative, rehearsed the story mentally	Word pronunciation and audio clarity	Positive	It was satisfactory	X
Con4	Reasonable	Yes, but not enough to make feel safe with the planning	Wrote keywords and tried to elaborate sentences from them	mistakes	positive	reasonable	Tried to remember what was written, problems with past tense
Con5	Reasonable	X	thought	Avoided thinking too much	No difference	X	X
Con6	Reasonable	The time was enough	Wrote the story	Pronunciation, verb tense, and sentence formulation	Indifferent	Not very elaborated, simple	Tried to tell the story clearly
Con7	Reasonable	Yes, but even with the planning had difficulties	Thought about vocabulary and situations and	Tried to use simple vocabulary and structures to	Positive, felt less ashamed	A silly story	Created repetitive structures which was good to

ContB	Reasonable	Yes	verbs	remember	indifferent	A simple but good story	remember, but lacked complexity
ContC	Reasonable	Yes, organized the sentences and picked the vocabulary	Wrote the story	Avoid mistakes, but it was difficult due to difficulty in speaking	Positive	Reasonable, could have been better	Difficulty in formulating sentences with the verb tenses
ContD	Reasonable	Yes, gets too anxious when speaking, so planning diminished this pressure	Thought about each cue and wrote sentences	Be straightforward and not make mistakes	Positive, less pressure	It was straightforward, but wanted to use different vocabulary	Was able to tell what had planned but couldn't remember some vocabulary
ContE	Reasonable	Yes, helped organizing thoughts	Wrote the story	Avoid mistakes	Indifferent	Good	Organized the thoughts
Int1	Easy	Yes, helped elaborating the story	Described each cue and a general context of the story	Worried about telling the general context of the story	Positive, Didn't worry about the mistakes	Told what had planned, but lacked details	Lack of vocabulary
Int2	Easy	Yes	Imagined the situation to simulate the story	Avoid mistakes, had to think fast	Indifferent	x	x
Int3	Reasonable	Yes	Wrote everything fast so that could reread and memorize	Avoid mistakes and mispronunciations and speak fast	Negative	Coherent but too short	Searched the words related to the figures, translating, substituting words didn't know
Int4	Reasonable	Yes, thought about the vocabulary and reviewed what would be told	Tried to use precise vocabulary	Avoid making mistakes, but didn't worry about speaking fast	Negative	satisfied	Wrote keywords, but didn't worry about the unknown words,

INT5	Hard	Maybe, I didn't remember what I had written	Wrote thinking about the verbal tenses	Avoid mistakes regarding verbal tenses	Negative	Complicated to understand	reorganized the story thru reading; told what remembered worrying about the correct pronunciation
INT6	Reasonable	Yes, prepared the story	Wrote a story based on the figures	Tried to remember the correct vocabularies and verb tenses	Negative, unnatural	Liked it, but wanted to bring some humor element	Interpreted the cartoon;
INT7	Reasonable	Yes	Observed the figures and the characters	Complex language and remember the details	Positive, felt more at ease	Interesting, but had problems remembering what had planned	concentration
INT8	Difficult	No. Forgot everything I had planned	Thought about the figures, characters, made up a continuation	Didn't remember what I had planned	Indifferent	Horrible, made mistakes, got confused	Tried to remember what was planned, got distracted, confusing speech
INT9	Easy	Yes, wrote the entire story rapidly	wrote what I would tell, objects	Worried about saying what I had planned clearly, avoiding mistakes	Indifferent	Fast, without development, shallow	Tried to use words and expressions easy to remember
INT10	Difficult	Think so, helped organized the ideas	Thought about the words, wrote the text	In telling the main idea	Indifferent	x	Remember the figures; formulate sentences; bring extra details; synthesize the story
INT11	Reasonable	Yes, without this time the task would be much more difficult	Tried to remember the words I knew and use them in the story	Understand the story and tell it with the proper words	Positive, diminished the anxiety	x	Forgot some words and words
IS01	Easy	Yes, a job; organized the	wrote the story and read it over	Worried about the verbal tenses and	Positive, felt more at ease	Simple	Tell the story coherently, using

1502	Reasonable	Ideas Yes, a lot, thinking on what will be Said makes more sense good/better	the time left Thought about the sentences in Portuguese and translated using my knowledge	not to pause Worried about speaking slowly and clearly	Positive	Weak, confusing	The correct verbs Felt anxious, didn't want to make mistakes, speak slow
1503	Reasonable	Yes, it was possible to remember the words	wrote the narrative and tried to memorize it	Tried to make a simple story with the correct verb tenses	Indifferent	Simple and straightforward	Spontaneous; told what remembered
1504	Difficult	Not much, spent time trying to remember what was planned	wrote a small text without many details	Tried to tell the story without pausing; simple, but with more details	Positive	Bad	Tried to remember what was planned, couldn't and got nervous; skipped a part of the story, so in the end tried to sum up
1505	Reasonable	Yes, gave me ideas of what to say	Tried to remember the images to write a small text	Tried to remember the text I had written, but it was not okay, because it got kind of confused; tried to avoid mistakes	Negative; I'd rather talk to someone	Poor in details and vocabulary	Tried to make up a story which I would tell a friend; I got embarrassed in talking to the recorder
1506	Difficult	Not much, because I couldn't use what I had planned	wrote the story in sentences	Not to pause much and make mistakes	Indifferent	Not very good	Tried to remember what I had written but had a lot of difficulty
1507	Easy	No, everything I told was in my mind when I visualized the story	wrote to the paper what I had in mind	Tried to formulate the sentences avoiding mistakes and pausing	Positive; it would make it more difficult if I told someone the story	Cool, easy subject	Tried to memorize parts of the story and describe it chronologically
1508	Difficult	Yes, I need time to do any English task	Tried to create a brief story so I could remember it	Tried to think and speak rapidly, but made a lot of mistakes due to the lack of vocabulary and	x	Really bad	Tried to remember each sentence I wrote, but I forgot, so I skipped a lot of things.

ISO9	Easy	Yes, could think about the words would use	Thought of words I knew and described the situation	Worried about writing the right things in the right time	Indifferent	It was a not very detailed description	Tried to remember what I had written, it was confusing at first but then it came naturally
ISO10	Reasonable	Yes, because I can handle writing better	Thought of the words I knew and had problems with some specific words	Tried to avoid making mistakes, but as I was not reading the text I think I made some mistakes	Positive, made me less anxious	Basic	X
ISO11	Reasonable	Yes, but didn't have enough time to correct grammar mistakes	Wrote the story	Organized the story in a correct manner, but not very complex	Positive	Very simple, but with many mistakes	Tried to organize the story thru writing it
ISO12	Reasonable	Yes	Looking to the images and memorizing them and then writing a text	Tried to avoid making mistakes and remembering the words in English	Indifferent	Funny	Tried to follow the order I wrote in the draft, but I added up more information

POST-TASK QUESTIONNAIRE B

PARTICIPANT	LEVEL OF DIFFICULTY OF THE TASK	DID MAKING A SIMILAR TASK ASSIST IN DOING THIS ONE?	ASPECTS YOU WERE CONCERNED WHILE PERFORMING THE TASK	DID PLANNING HELP YOU?	EVALUATION OF THE PRODUCED TASK	WHAT DID YOU DO WHILE PLANNING?	ASPECTS THAT WERE MOST IMPACTED BY PLANNING
Cont1	Reasonable	Yes, easier than the first time, because I knew what to do, but gave less details	x	Yes, planned the vocabulary	Little detailed	Structured the story	Order of what was said
Cont2	Reasonable	A little, felt the same difficulties	Not to stutter, making mistakes pausing in the middle of the sentences	Yes, have difficulties to speak without planning first	Simple, confusing in the end, could be more creative	Wrote the story and kept reading it to memorize it	x
Cont3	Reasonable	Yes, the first helped me understand the second better	Tried to pronounce the sentences properly and not to pause for a long time	Yes, helped me organize and think of the words and sentences	Interesting	Wrote a text and read it 3 times to memorize it	The use of the verbs and name of the characters
Cont4	Reasonable	A little, lack of fast thinking	Avoid mistakes	Yes, planned a development	Reasonable, it was short and difficult to understand	Thought of the story, wrote some sentences, and memorize what was written	Planned names and words I used to tell the story
Cont5	Easy	Yes, it was easier because of that	Not to pause too much	No, not much time	x	Thought how to write what happened	Spoke faster
Cont6	Reasonable	Yes, knew how to do the task	Tried to speak coherently and according to the story	Yes, could create a story more elaborated	Interesting	I wrote my description of the story	Helped me a lot to elaborate everything
Cont7	Reasonable	Yes, as I knew what had to do, I could organize	Using a simple language that I could use at the	Yes, it was enough time to plan everything	Simple	Wrote a story basing on the images	As the last time, the speaking got stuck and paused

CONG	Reasonable	Better	speaking time	Yes, because could raise the ideas	Simple and not difficult to understand	Analized the images, scenarios, characters and write a coherent story	Flu of the story and pronunciation	
CONG	Reasonable	Yes, I knew the procedures	Not to make mistakes and pronunciation	Yes, I could plan in Portuguese first and I could memorize the story	The sentences could be more elaborated if I had more time and I didn't have to worry about my speaking	Thought about the story in English and wrote it in the draft and read twice to memorize	The organization of thought	
CONDO	Reasonable	Yes, because I felt more comfortable and I knew what to do	Thought about the main idea in a simple way and not to make mistakes	As in the first task	Could be better, as the first time I forgot some words	The same as the first task	Didn't keep a long time thinking about a word I didn't remember, diminish the anxiety.	
CONLI	Reasonable	No, the anxiety was the same	Not thinking too much and not making mistakes	Maybe, helped me organize the thoughts, but I couldn't remember what I had written	Reasonable	Just wrote and organized my thoughts	Don't know	
PARTICIPANT	LEVEL OF DIFFICULTY OF THE TASK	DID MAKING A SIMILAR TASK ASSIST IN DOING THIS ONE?	ASPECTS YOU WERE CONCERNED WHILE PERFORMING THE TASK	THE STRATEGIES LEARNED IN THE CLASSES	DID PLANNING HELP YOU?	EVALUATION OF THE PRODUCED TASK	WHAT DID YOU DO WHILE PLANNING?	ASPECTS THAT WERE MOST IMPACTED BY PLANNING
Inti	Difficult	Yes, I felt more prepared	Not to think too much and not make mistakes; but it was not good, because	Yes, because could organize the story better and think more about what to	Sort of, when telling the story, it didn't come out as planned; had to change	Not very good; confusing	Wrote a text but it didn't come out as planned	None, because I didn't follow the planning

Int2	Easy	Yes, it wasn't a surprise	did not focus on telling the story	say	some things	An illustrated story, easy to understand	Order of the images so I could tell the story	Memorizing the story first
Int3	Easy	Yes, was calmer	Trying to get calmer so I could remember the story; it worked out	Yes, I searched for the words, substitute words I didn't know	Yes, to organize the story so it can be better connected	Not very elaborated but explain what happened generally	Connect the topics, write it simpler so I could remember	Fluency. Used the planning on my favor
Int4	Reasonable	No, each story is different	Not making mistakes	Yes, felt more organized	Yes, I could use the vocabulary I remember during the planning time	Didn't like it	Lexical search and memorization, but I didn't memorize very well, so when I had to tell it, I had to create a new story	I didn't keep thinking about what word to use
Int5	Reasonable	Yes, were much aware about the procedures	Use a more complex language and the right procedures	Yes, mainly rehearsal	Yes, because I could organize my thoughts	Reasonable	Wrote everything and then I made a planning	Connections and contributes
Int6	Difficult, I got worried not to write a text and I didn't relax very well	Yes, but I'm still shy	Didn't pause much	Yes, but maybe I didn't use the time well as in the lessons	Yes, but it didn't be the same as the first time	poor	Wrote some sentences	I didn't pause much but made a lot of mistakes
Int7	Easy	Yes, were much more aware about the procedures	Didn't want to pause and think	Helped me to remember the keywords	Yes, helps not to make mistakes	Short but could tell what was planned	Thought about the keywords and some connections	Concentration
Int8	Difficult	Yes, could correct mistakes	Created something short	Somewhat, thought about	Yes, used the strategies while	Extremely simple, but if it	Wrote in Portuguese,	Order of thoughts,

IM9	Easy	Yes, we were much more aware about the procedures	Worried about remembering the draft	Helped me not using much writing and memorizing the words	Yes, used lexical search and found better words for the content	Basic	Brainstorm not to forget, but I was distracted today	The use of appropriate vocabulary
IM10	Difficult	Yes, could use more words and organize better	Felt more confident	Yes, could organize better. Could use the strategies	Yes, but I made a more complex story this time and it made me anxious	x	Listed the vocabulary; searched for new words; organized the thought and sequence of the speech, but did not have time to rehearse it.	My anxiety made the complex bad
IM11	Reasonable	Yes, the experience but the vocabulary was short	Writing and telling the story without the draft	Yes, didn't get all dependent of the draft	Yes, could organize the ideas	Poor	Organized the words and tried to formulate the story	x
IS01	Reasonable	Maybe, this story was more complicated- all the characters were cats and we have to differentiate them	Not make mistakes	Yes, first I wrote topics and then I wrote a small text	Yes, organizing the ideas	confusing	Wrote topics and then a small text	Worse than the first one; planning helped me a lot remembering what to say
IS02	Easy	Yes, I had practiced before	Using simple language speaking slowly and clearly	Not very useful because I have facility in this type of task	Yes, I don't have to worry much about what to say but how to say it	Simple and fast	Wrote short sentences; drew; underlined keywords	Tranquility, pausing, safety

1303	Difficult	Yes, I could keep calmer and I could deal with planning in a way that helped me indeed	x	They may be useful, but for me, they made my speaking more mechanical	Planning is necessary, but for me at this moment wasn't good	Awful, but I guess it was because I got distracted by the other students speaking	Wrote the sentences and made topics	Verbal tense
1304	Easy	Yes, I knew how it was and I planned in a different way	Write speaking! kept thinking if I said something incorrectly and I got confused, tried to use more complex language but I for got things	It helped a lot, making topics and drawing helped more than writing a text	Yes, I organized what I wanted to say. I guess I was able to remember all the topics I wrote	Reasonable, better than the first one	Wrote topics, brought some details, then I read twice not to forget	I was able to tell the story better
1305	Easy	Yes, new things are more difficult	Tried to visualize the images and remember some words	They did! This time I decided to write topics and it was better	Yes, I could remember some words	Straightforward and short	Wrote the topics and pretended I told the story to someone	Maybe the rationale I used to tell the story
1306	Easy	Yes, the task was similar	Not make mistakes	I think so, I used the same strategies I used before, but I included a new one and it was easier	Yes, while speaking I could remember the things I had planned	Not very good, but better than the first one	Wrote some sentences as a basis, then selected some topics and keywords	Formulating the sentences more easily and not pausing much as in the first task
1307	Easy	Yes, I could use some words I used in the first task	Not making mistakes with the verbal phrases and not repeating words	Yes, while planning I tried to find new words in order not to repeat	Yes, it is easier when you think about the story	Simple, I could have given names to the characters	Wrote a small paragraph and read it some times	Describing the characters' actions
1308	Difficult		Using simple language that I could remember	The planning time is short so I couldn't write everything	x	Wrote a story but didn't have time to complete it and got nervous	Didn't have much time	Improvising

1509	Reasonable	Yes, I could work out things I had problem in the first task	Not thinking too much and making mistakes	Yes, the story was more natural and more well planned	Yes, could organized	Could have been better	Tried to formulate sentences for each image and then connect them	Spoke in a more natural manner
15010	Easy	No difference	Speaking correctly	It was easier to work with topics and not writing the entire story	Yes, but not much, because I created new things while doing the task	More complete and long	Thought about the cues, wrote simple topics with names, keywords, characteristics	Didn't pause too much trying to remember things: it was more natural
15011	Easy	Yes, the strategies used made it easier to organize	Telling a coherent story with beginning, middle and end regardless the complexity of language	Yes, helped me to organize the ideas	Yes, to search words and organize the story	Simple	Wrote the images with a lot of details, trying to remember the vocabulary and verbal tenses	Made me more comfortable and also memorization
15012	Reasonable	In parts	Not making mistakes, remembering the correct order of the story and details	Yes, wrote topics and it got easier to do the task, but I don't remember all the strategies	Yes, I could organize the story better	More details and connections	Write topics and then a small text with details and corrected the mistakes	Remember the order of the story