FACULTY OF EDUCATION

TESOL PROGRAM

The effects of "pre-" and "within-task" planning on L2 written accuracy: A longitudinal Study in the context of ADEC's English Continuous Rich Tasks (ECART)

آثار التخطيط المتاني و تكرار المهمة علي الدقة اللغوية في الكتابة: دراسة طولية في سياق المهمات الغنية للتقويم المستمر المطبقة في مادة اللغة الأنجليزية

By
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Dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Masters of Education, TESOL Program

The British University in Dubai
Faculty of Education
Program: Teaching English for Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)

Dissertation Supervisor: Dr. Yasemin Yildiz
April-2013

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Abstract

The present study investigated the effects of two types of task planning; "task rehearsal" and "unpressured within-task" planning on Arabic-speaking learners' written accuracy in English. The research adopted a longitudinal mixed methods approach to collect detailed descriptive data from a sample of 4 students in grade seven in one of ADEC's schools in Abu Dhabi. The objectives of the research were to measure the effects of repeating the same task along with implementing the process of the "English Continuous Assessment Rich Task" (ECART) which represented the "unpressured within-task" planning. The data analyses of both "repeated" and "unpressured" written production were conducted by means of measuring the changes in the participants' written accuracy in English. Data analysis was done by comparing the numbers and percentages of linguistic errors across all writing tasks. The results of both the "repeated" task and the "unpressured task" showed a significant improvement in the students' written accuracy in English.

ملخص الدراسة

الدراسة الحالية تدرس آثار نوعين من تخطيط المهام علي دقة الكتابة في اللغة الانجليزية لطلاب؛ العربية لغتهم الأم . النوع الأول من التخطيط هو "التدريب" علي المهمة قبل ادائها و النوع الثانى هو "التخطيط المتأنى للمهمة اثناء ادائها". تم تطبيق دراسة طولية لجمع بيانات تفصيلية من عينة من أربعة طلاب في الصف السابع في احدي مدارس مجلس أبوظبي للتعليم في أبوظبى. كانت أهداف البحث هي قياس الآثار المترتبة على تكرار نفس المهمة جنبا إلى جنب مع تنفيذ مراحل "المهمة الغنية" و ذلك من خلال مقارنة مدى التغير في مستوي الدقة في كتابة الطلاب المترتبة علي تكرار نفس المهمة من ناحية، و أثر التخطيط المتأني من ناحية أخرى. تم تحليل البيانات عن طريق حساب نسبة الأخطاء اللغوية في كل مرة يؤدي فيها الطالب كل مهمة علي حدة' ثم مقارنة تلك النسب مع بعضها لمعرفة مدى التقدم في مستوي الدقة في الكتابة. أظهرت النتائج أن تكرار نفس النهمة أدي إلي تحسن ملحوظ في مستوي الدقة اللغوية لدي الطلاب، في حين أظهرت نتائج "المهمة الغنية " أن "التخطيط المتأني" للمهمة أدي إلي تحسن أكبر في الدقة اللغوية فى كتابة الطلاب.

Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to those who I love most, my family, who went through hard times with me; especially my beloved wife and children. I also dedicate this Degree to my grandmother, may God rest her soul, who passed away before I had the chance to say goodbye. She always encouraged and supported me by all means.

Acknowledgment

Most importantly, I must praise Allah who gave me the ability and strength to carry on in spite of all the obstacles on my path.

Thanks and gratitude to Dr. Yasemin Yildiz who was always ready to provide help and support, and whose advices and guidance helped me to take the right decisions in my research.

Special thanks to those who gave me support and guidance to raise my academic awareness, and to accomplish my Masters; Dr. Amanda Howard, Dr. Marion Engin, Dr. Sufian Forawi, Dr. Naz Awan, and Dr. Clifton Chadwick.

I also acknowledge the role of the staff of the British University in Dubai in providing help, not just for me but, for all students.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter will focus on introducing a background to this study. It discusses the relation between the study variables; task planning, and accuracy. In addition, it clarifies the rationale behind conducting the study. Also, it reveals the research questions which will be investigated. Furthermore, it outlines both the scope of the study and the structure of the current dissertation.

1.1. Background of the study

This research investigates the effects of two types of task-planning on the linguistic accuracy of L2 written production in the context of the framework of Abu Dhabi Education Council (ADEC)'s version of Task-Based Language Learning (TBLT) which adopts English Continuous Assessment Rich Tasks (ECART).

'Task-planning' has become a fundamental variable in both theory and practice of second language acquisition (SLA) and task-based performance because of its positive effects on language production (Ellis, 2005). Theoretically, investigating 'task-planning' provides insights into how SLA is affected by attention because it provides opportunities for learners to attend to "form-in-meaning" (Ortega, 2004). In addition, 'task planning' provides opportunities for SLA researchers to investigate the relation between how learners use the language and how they acquire it (Ellis, 2005). Moreover, 'task-planning' could be seen as a pedagogical tool to lessen or even remove the communicative stress away from the shoulders of the learners (Sangarun, 2001). 'Task-planning' also provides learners with opportunities to redirect their "attentional resources" from attending to semantics to attend to syntactic (Van Patten, 1990, 1996). Consequently, learners attend to meaning and form simultaneously (Wendel, 1997). Empirical evidence (e.g. Skehan, 1996; Wendel, 1997; Skehan & Foster, 1999; Yuan, 2001; Sangarun, 2001; Yuan & Ellis, 2003; Ellis &Yuan, 2004) indicates that different types of task planning yielded positive indicators that show improvements in the learners' language performance.

Pedagogically, language teachers can employ 'task-planning' to influence the linguistic production of their students. Therefore, 'task planning' could be regarded as an indirect pedagogical tool that could be employed effectively to "intervene in interlanguage development" (Ellis 2005: VII-2). Moreover, 'task-planning' could be effectively employed to prompt learners

to "integrate prior knowledge into performance" and help them to "identify new knowledge needed for their development" (Bygate and Samuda 2005: 38). Bygate and Samuda's assumptions are in correlation with the constructivist perspective that recognizes learning as a process that involves restructuring (Mclaughlin 1990; Skehan 1998b) which requires cognitive processes such as 'noticing', 'comparing' and 'integrating' (Ellis 1990). Hence, in order to learn, learners should notice and process the new elements in the input and compare them with what they already know (prior knowledge) which, consequently, will be followed by the integration of the prior knowledge with the new knowledge (Bygate and Samuda 2005).

Different types of 'task-planning' have proved beneficial effects on task performance. For example, Bygate and Samuda (2005) suggest that task rehearsal enables students to employ a comprehensive collection of resources. Moreover, task repetition lessens the pressure of the task demands in the first time as also depicted below:

> In the first encounter with a task, the learner has to decide how to do the task, what messages to produce, and how to produce them. In comparison, on repeating a task, the learner has already internalized the information content, organized it into communication units, found relevant language to convey the meanings, and pronounced it.
>
> Bygate and Samuda (2005:37)

Other types of 'task planning' such as "unpressured within-task" planning provide opportunities for learners to "attend to the content of their performance" (Ellis and Yuan, 2005:167). Moreover, in the "unpressured within-task" planning, "learners will be better able to attend to the full range of processes, including those that are more demanding on working memory". (Ellis and Yuan 2005:167). In writing, "unpressured within-task" planning plays an important role because

> writing, by its very nature, provides greater opportunity for unpressured "within-task planning because writers have more time for text production and thereby greater control over the processes involved
> (Ellis and Yuan 2005: 168).

This research will review the literature of both TBLT and SLA and investigate the role of planning in the learners' performance in light of cognition models. A separate chapter is

dedicated to review the ECART as an innovative version of the TBLT. Rich tasks were introduced because they are the main units of the ECART.

1.2. Rationale

ECART is considered an innovative version of TBLT which has not been investigated within a national level in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). This research aims at filling this research gap and providing both theoretical basis and practical evidence of the effects of the implementation of ECART. Furthermore, the findings will point to future theoretical and pedagogical recommendations.

Furthermore, the investigation of the effect of the pre and within task planning jointly is significant as there is a lack of research in this area. This lack is evident in the following statement provided by Ellis:

> It would also be helpful to investigate the joint effects of pre-task and within-task planning. No study has done this to date.
>
> (Ellis, 2009a: 505)

In the last five years, only few studies responded to Ellis' recommendations, and attempted to investigate more than one type of planning jointly (e.g. Ahmadian, *et al.*, 2010; Piri, *et al.*, 2012). Moreover, this study adopts a longitudinal research design in response to Ellis' identification of this matter (Ellis, 2009b:505).

1.3. Research questions

Based on the aforementioned rationale, this study seeks to address the following questions:

1- Does the "rehearsal" of an Integrated Strand Task (IST) develop L2 accuracy?
2- Does the "unpressured within-task" planning of a rich task develop L2 accuracy?

1.4. Scope of the study

This research is limited to four male participants in grade 7 (11-12 years old) in one public school in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi, the UAE. The study is carried out through three phases: the first phase includes a compare-and-contrast writing task, the second phase involves repeating the

compare-and-contrast task after three weeks interval, and the third task requires participants to provide unpressured writing task after six weeks. The objective is to measure the joined effects of repeating the same task and the unpressured planning on the development in the students' written accuracy. A detailed description about the adopted method will be provided later in Chapter five.

1.5. Structure of the Dissertation

This dissertation consists of eight chapters. The subsequent chapter introduces the TBLT, and investigates its relation to SLA from a theoretical and practical background. It also traces the concept of a 'task' starting with providing operational definition, and identifying the types of task. Then, task features are presented in correlation with the provided definitions. Chapter 2 continues to explore the development of 'tasks' and rich tasks. Moreover, three TBLT pedagogical frameworks were introduced: Willis', Skehan's, and the ECART. Both Willis' and Skehan's frameworks were explored in a nutshells, whereas, the ECART was investigated in more depth. Chapter 3 presents the theoretical framework of both TBLT and SLA. It attempts to provide theoretical assumptions that posit for the relation between tasks and the process of SLA. Then, it provides cognitive models that are seen necessary for SLA, and relate them to task planning. Chapter 4 explores the variables of the study. It provides definitions of the different aspects of language performance with emphasis on accuracy, as it is the focus here. It defines task planning with its three types. In addition, it reviews Kellog's model of writing to explain the processes involved in writing. Chapter 5 presents the methods employed in the study and research ethics. Chapter 6 reveals the results and analyzes the collected data to answer the research questions. Chapter 7 discusses the findings in the light of the reviewed theoretical models. Chapter 8 summarizes the research, presents the limitations, and introduces recommendations for future research and pedagogical practices.

Chapter 2: Theoretical Positions for SLA and TBLT

Richards and Rodgers (2001: 223-244) argue that tasks provide intensive and authentic input, and at the same time, require producing comprehensive output. The input-output process is mediated by cognitive processes that are necessary for learning. All these processes are activated through interaction. Thus, it was demanding to shed light on; the interaction hypothesis, the input hypothesis, the output hypothesis, and cognitive models that underpin the role of tasks in SLA. It was also important to investigate the relation between all these theories and how they interact and interfere, or integrate with each other while performing a task.

2.1. The Input Hypothesis

Krashen (1982, 1985, and 1998) proposes theoretical connections between the input and SLA by differentiating between 'acquisitions' and 'learning'. Krashen hypothesizes that 'learning' is a conscious explicit mental process while 'acquisition' is a subconscious implicit mental process (Nunan, 1999: 43). Krashen (1998) suggests that the acquisition of a second language depends mainly on providing a comprehensive input that involves authentic communication (Howatt, 1984). To achieve comprehensibility, the input should motivate and challenge the L2 learners concurrently. To this end, the input should be presented, either by hearing or reading, in an 'i + 1' level, but not in an 'i + 2' level (Krashen, 1981: 100). The 'i' represents the L2 learner's linguistic prior or existing knowledge, while '1' represents the new language in the input. Krashen explains that providing an input with (i + 1) will enhance L2 acquisition provided that the new items in (i+1) are not too challenging (i +2) for the L2 learner. Krashen, also, emphasizes that the input should not be too easy (i+0); otherwise the learner will not acquire any new language items.

2.2. The Output Hypothesis

All suggested TBLT frameworks (e.g. Willis, 1996; Skehan, 1996; Long, 1998 and ADEC, 2012) put a salient emphasis on task completion, and require the learners to provide an output or a final product. Swain (1995, 1998, 2000, and 2005) provides theoretical assumptions supported by empirical evidence that explain the significant role of providing comprehensive output in SLA. Swain proposes that pushing the students to provide comprehensive output will prompt

them to attend to and employ target-like language items so that they can deliver the message as it should be (Swain, 1985:249). Swain posits that when L2 learners are pushed to produce comprehensive output, they develop language automaticity because they are stimulated to notice the differences between the target-like language and their own language production. Furthermore, they reflect on and compare between their language production and the language produced by others (Robinson, 2011). Moreover, when pushed to provide a comprehensive output, learners adopt a 'trial' and 'error' method in which they try to produce target-like language and receive corrective feedback from the teacher (Swain, 2005: 474). Swain's suggestions are compatible with Schmidt's hypothesis regarding the noticing function of the comprehensive output. Swain argues that attention to output facilitates SLA as depicted below:

> in producing the target language. . . learners may notice a gap between what they want to say and what they can say, leading them to recognize what they do not know, or know only partially
>
> (Swain, 1995: 125–126)

2.3. Interaction, SLA and TBLT

Drawing on Long's hypothesis (1983, 1989), Robinson (2011) argues that the interaction generated within a 'task' work has the power to make the input comprehensible and to constitute a 'context' for the L2 Learner to realize the problematic areas especially in 'forms' in both the input and output. Then, noticing the forms during communicative interaction and negotiation for meaning help promote the L2 learner's ability to build 'form-meaning relations' and accelerate L2 acquisition.

Tasks engage learners in collaborative interactional group work. Moreover, it generates a considerable amount of social interaction between the dyads, small groups and the teacher as well. A large body of research indicates that interactional feedback promotes SLA (e.g. Mackey, 2006; Mackey and Silver, 2005; McDonough, 2005; Ishida, 2004; Song, 2004; Iwashita, 2003; Leeman, 2003; Philp, 2003; Mackey and Oliver, 2002; Izumi, 2002; Silver, 2000; Mackey, 1999; Mackey and Philp, 1998; Ellis and He, 1999; Ellis *et al*., 1994; Loschky, 1994; Long et al., 1998). Moreover, other studies differentiate between different types of interactional strategies and their effects on SLA (e.g. Mackey, 2006:407; Pica et al. 1989; Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998a, 1998b). Furthermore, experimental and quasi studies (e.g. Mackey *et al*., 2003;

Ellis *et al*., 2001a, 2001b; Oliver, 2000) indicated a strong relationship between interactional feedback and comprehension.

2.3.1. The Interaction Hypothesis

In its early form, the Oral Interaction Hypothesis (1985) offered two major arguments of the role of oral interaction in L2 acquisition. Long proposes that:

> (1) comprehensible input is necessary for L2. (2) Modifications to the interactional structure of conversations which take place in the process of negotiating a communication problem help to make input comprehensible to an L2 learner
>
> (Long in Ellis, 1991:3-4)

The early version gave input a primary importance in L2 acquisition (Ellis, 2003:72-102) and put a salient attention to the linguistic modifications in the 'conversational structures' when the more fluent interlocutor responds to the 'less competent speaker'. Later on, Long (1985) developed the hypothesis to stress the importance of the linguistic adjustments made by both the less and the more competent interlocutors in addition to the learners' production as well. Long deduces an indirect relationship between 'conversational adjustments' and 'acquisition'. First, he hypothesizes that the 'conversational adjustments' (a) promote 'comprehensive input' (b) which, in its turn, promotes 'acquisition' (c), and consequently, Long deduces that 'conversational adjustments' (a) promotes 'acquisition' (c) (Long 1985:378).

The indirect approach applied in the later form of the Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1989), indicates that Long extended the focus of the comprehensive input by suggesting that the input enables the L2 learner to break down and analyze communication in order to reach or negotiate for meaning. Furthermore, the late form suggests that the applied interaction strategies, especially feedback, form a 'communicative stress' that pushes the L2 learners to attend to form and produce a comprehensive output (Schmidt, 1990). Long hypothesizes that:

> …negotiation for meaning … triggers interactional adjustments by the NS or more competent interlocutor facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways.
>
> (Long, 1996: 451–2)

Proponents of the 'Interaction Hypothesis' propose that L2 learners bump into various linguistic hindrances during a conversation. This may be attributed to a defectiveness in the Le learner's

'interlanguage' or the presence of a 'linguistic gap' or a 'mismatch' between the L2 learner's language and 'target-like' language which creates a communication 'misunderstanding'. At this point emerges the importance of employing the interaction strategies to negotiate meaning (Ellis, 2003:69-75) which gives the oral interaction a significant value in SLA (Ellis, 1991:3-4).

2.3.2. Interaction strategies

Interaction strategies can be defined as a set of strategies employed by interlocutors in a conversation in order to reach comprehension through meaning negotiation (Long, 1981). The more competent speaker may employ strategies such as modifying both the uttered grammar and vocabulary to ease the communicative stress on the less competent speaker. Additionally, the less proficient speaker may ask for clarifications in order to apprehend the input. Finally, to check comprehension, the more fluent speaker or the teacher employs 'comprehension checks' to confirm comprehensibility.

Long (1996) explains that ineractional strategies represent an immediate feedback for the L2 learner. Consequently, they promote L2 acquisition because they link "input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways" (Long, 1996: 451–2). Long (1983b) puts the interaction strategies under two major sets; one set includes those strategies that endeavor to prevent or avoid, in advance, any potential conversational hindrances. The other set of strategies, also called 'tactics for repairing' (Long, 1983b) are employed in case comprehension problems occur. These tactics include; (a) "clarification requests, (b) comprehension confirmations, and (c) disregard ambiguity" (Varonis and Gass, 1985 in Ellis, 2003: 70-102).

2.4. Cognition, SLA and planning in TBLT

In addition to the aforementioned theoretical underpinnings, the investigation of task planning within TBLT and SLA research has been informed by three main theoretical underpinnings; "(1) Tarone's (1983) account of stylistic variation, (2) models of speech production and writing, and (3) cognitive models of L2 performance and language learning" (Ellis, 2004: 1-34). These theories revolve around three fundamental concepts; "attention and noticing, a limited working memory capacity, and focus-on-form" (Ellis, 2004: 1-34). These theoretical models can provide propositions that connect between task planning, task performance, and SLA.

2.4.1. The Noticing Hypothesis

Schmidt (1990) and Frota (1986) claim that L2 acquisition requires the learners to attend to and notice the aspects of the "surface structure of utterances". 'Attention' and 'Noticing' could be facilitated by focusing on form through rich communicative pedagogy. Long suggests that "focus on form" will "overtly draw students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication" (Long, 1991: 45–46). Tomasello (1999) claims that interaction and attention help accelerate the process of SLA. Robison (2011) argues that "both the cognitive processing and interactive consequences of task sequencing decisions are mutually responsible for subsequent task-based language development" (Robison, 2011).

Schmidt (1990) proposes that 'attention' plays a significant role in each phase of the process of SLA starting from noticing the new language in the input, interaction, meaning negotiations, and the output. Schmidt (1990) assumes that:

> …one of the basic arguments that what is learned is what is noticed...The information committed to memory is essentially the information that must be heeded in order to carry out a task.
>
> (Schmidt 1990: 143)

Mackey, (2006), Schmidt (1995, 2001), and Robison, (1995, 2001, 2003) suggest that 'noticing' has a significant role in SLA as it turns the input into intake. Long (1983) proposes that when the L2 learners employ interaction strategies, their attention is directed to the problematic areas in their utterances, and consequently they attempt to change their utterance to resemble the target-like language to achieve comprehensibility. From this perspective, noticing can be regarded as a mediator between the comprehensive input and pushed comprehensive output.

2.4.2. Skehan's Cognitive Approach

Peter Skehan (1998) argues that the process of SLA is controlled by one linguistic system which acts in two different modes; a rule-based mode, and a ready-made exemplar one. Sheehan's Approach provides a psycholinguistic and cognitive basis for SLA with an emphasis on the mechanics of language processing, and individual cognitive differences. Skehan (1998) suggests that activating the rule-based mode enables learners to develop linguistic forms. On the contrary,

employing the exemplar-based mode promotes the speed of retrieving the already internalized linguistic models from memory.

Skehan (1998) proposes that information go through three stages of processing; "input, central processing, and output" (Morita, 2000: 130). Simultaneously, Skehan posits that learners possess three abilities that match up with the three processing stages. These stages include "Phonemic coding ability", Language analytic ability", and "Memory," (Morita, 2000: 130). For example, the "Phonemic coding ability" breaks down the auditory materials for input processing. In this stage, learners prioritize "meaning", thus they activate their exemplar-based mode to retrieve the appropriate semantics. To process output, learners have to focus on only one aspect of language; accuracy, complexity, and fluency.

According to Skehan's (1998) approach, planning in task performance reduces the learners' reliance on their ready-made exemplar system by allowing them to control their rule-based system. In addition, planning encourages learners to try to employ the recently constructed, but incomplete interlanguage that they formed recently instead of depending on the existing language features (ready-made chunks) that they have acquired earlier.

2.4.3. The Limited Capacity Hypothesis

Skehan (1998) was the first 'psycholinguistic' to offer a rationale that elucidates how specific aspects of task demands affect attention (noticing) and speech production (Robinson, 2011). Skehan's rationale emphasized the role of planning time on the development of language proficiency (accuracy, fluency, and complexity). Skehan suggests that complex tasks "consume more attentional resources", and consequently, they will have less attentional resources for focus on form (Skehan, 1998: 97). Skehan considers 'task design' as a tool for developing a 'balanced language'. From this perspective, task design (particularly task planning) can be employed to prompt students to redirect their attention to focus on accuracy (Skehan, 1998:112). Nevertheless, Skehan argues that tasks can improve only one aspect of language (either accuracy or fluency). Skehan attributes this malfunction to the "limitations in attention resources" in which learners find themselves forced to prioritize one aspect of production over the others. Consequently, this trade-off" negatively affects the other aspects of language performance

(Skehan, 1996). For example, in case learners focus on 'fluency' their 'complexity' and 'accuracy' will deteriorate.

2.4.4. Limited Working Memory Capacity

Baddeley & Hitch (1974) and Baddeley & Logie (1999) divided working (or short-term) memory into three components; (1) "central executive or supervisory attentional system", (2) "the phonological loop", and (3) "the visual spatial sketchpad" (Ellis, 2004: 1-34). The "central executive system" controls the link between working memory and long-term memory. Baddeley argues that the 'central executive system' has a limited capacity which indicates that the learners' rang of attention will be affected by the degree of the automatization of other systems. So, if a learner consumes his/her 'processing space' in attending to vocabulary, s/he will suffer in attending to language rules. Thus, pre-task planning or/and unpressured within-task planning provide learners with the opportunity to attend for both the content and the form of their tasks at the same time. This is done by removing the time burden from the learners' shoulders (Ellis, 2004: 1-34).

Task planning is closely related to the component of 'phonological loop' of the working memory which includes two sub-components; the 'phonological store' which momentarily summons materials from the input or from the long term memory; and a 'mechanism' for 'articulatory rehearsal' which helps sustain and retrieve decayed materials from working memory. Thus planning enables learners to preserve one set of material while working on another set to modify or refine it. Ellis (2004) considers planning as a tool that supports learners to find solutions of their limited capacities of their working memory.

2.4.5. Focus-on-form

'Focus-on-form' is realized from different perspectives in TBLT (Ellis, 2009a). For example, from a pedagogical view, 'focus-on-form' indicates to the inclusion, implicitly or explicitly, of drawing the learners' attention to form. Whereas, discourse researchers consider 'focus-on-form' as an 'anticipatory' and 'reactive tool' such as 'queries', or a "corrective feedback tool" such as 'recasts'. From a psycholinguistic perspective, 'focus-on-form' is regarded as a number of 'mental processes' tangled with "selective attention to linguistic form". Despite the differences among the three perspectives, they share a common ground which is that focus-on-form should

be employed while learners are engaged in meaning negotiation, delivering the message or communicating (Ellis, 2009a).

There are two central rationales for 'focus-on-form'. The first rationale draws on the limitations of attentional resources that result in 'trade-offs' of one aspect of language performance on the determent of the other aspects. This 'trade-off' forces learners to prioritize meaning and neglect form, particularly the non-salient, redundant or those forms that do not contribute to meaning (Ellis, 2009a). Secondly, L2 learners need to use the appropriate forms to deliver the needed message correctly (Doughty and Williams, 1998).

Ellis (2009b) considers task planning as a suitable tool of implementing 'focus-on-form' inside the classrooms because it creates a 40-seconds 'cognitive window 'which helps reduce the limitations of the learners' working memory by enabling them to focus on form and meaning simultaneously (Doughty and Williams, 1998).

Chapter 3: Literature Review

3. 1. TBLT

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) is also referred to as Task-Based Language Teaching and Learning (TBLTL), Task-based Language Learning (TBLL) and Task-Based Instruction (TBI). In this research, it will be referred to as TBLT which is defined as "an approach based on the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching" (Richards &Rodgers, 2001:223), and can be adopted into many different frameworks, because it "has the power to speak to different people in different ways" (Nunan, 2004: 14). In the last decade, the TBLT has turned into a new orthodoxy (Littlewood, 2004 in Andon, 2010) to the degree that curriculum leaders worldwide choose to implement the TBLT in their disciplines. Moreover, an increasing number of publishers claim that their new textbooks depend on TBLT (Littlewood, 2004: 319).

The TBLT is characterized by focusing upon communication through interaction, and authenticity. The TBLT emphasizes the developments of both language and learning. Moreover, it supports the learners' experience, and prepares them to practice the language outside the classroom (Nunan, 1991: 279). The TBLT is adopted worldwide because of its positive benefits on improving all aspects of SLA. The objectives and benefits of TBLT are evident as the Curriculum Development Council (CDC) in Hong Kong Ministry of Education states that:

> The task-based approach…aims at providing opportunities for learners to experiment with and explore both spoken and written language through learning activities that are designed to engage learners in the authentic, practical and functional use of language for meaningful purposes
>
> (CDC, 1999: 41 in Nunan, 2004: 12)

3.1. 1. TBLT: Research and Theory

The TBLT has gained significant attention of both cognitive and sociocultural paradigms (Ellis, 2003: 213-215). The TBLT is a prevailing approach to language learning and teaching which is strongly implemented worldwide (Van den Branden et al, 2009: 1). Furthermore, "TBLT is rooted in both cognitive and interactionist SLA theory and research findings" (Doughty and Long, 2003: 51). Moreover, there is a very close relationship between communicative Language

Teaching (CLT) and the TBLT (Nunan, 2004:1-18). In addition, the TBLT and other analytical approaches to language teaching (for example, 'content-based instruction' (Brinton, 2003), 'text-based syllabuses' (Feez, 1998), 'problem-based learning', and 'immersion education' (Johnston and Swain, 1997) are considered different apprehensions of the CLT.

Ellis (2009) draws distinctions between task-based language teaching and task-supported language teaching. Ellis suggests that the TBLT is a strong form of CLT which involves 'focus on form'. That means that learners attend to form while performing the task. On the other hand, Task-supported language teaching is considered a week form of CLT that involves 'focus-on-forms'. That means that linguistic forms are pre-taught or taught explicitly.

3. 1. 2. TBLT and SLA

It is evident in the literature and research of the TBLT that there is an enormous endeavor of how to best "utilize tasks for successful language learning and acquisition" (Nunan, 2004: 76). Research has shown that tasks have the ability to engage L2 learners in negotiations for meaning and eliciting comprehensible input (see Foster and Otha, 2005; Gass and Varonis, 1985; Doughty 1986; Rulon and McCreary, 1986; Pica et al., 1989; and Pica, 1994) and prompt them to produce a comprehensive output (Swain, 1985). Tasks, also, can be designed to enhance "noticing" and "focus on form" (Mackey, 2005). Moreover, tasks can drive learners to construct and create new knowledge (Andon, 2010).

A large body of research has interconnected between the TBLT and the development of SLA (Robinson, 2011). Foster and Otha (2005), for example, propose that "Negotiation for meaning" plays a significant role in SLA. "Negotiation for meaning" is a ubiquitous concept in SLA which is rooted in Krashen's "Input Hypothesis" (1981, 1982, and 1985) and Long's "Interaction Hypothesis" (1985, 1996). Krashen (1981) proposes that a comprehensive input helps develop SLA, and the best way to make this input more comprehensive is via negotiation for problematic incomprehensible meaning (Long, 1985) which is beyond the L2 learner's linguistic knowledge (i+1) (Krashen, 1981). Thus negotiation for meaning helps the L2 learner to turn the input from fully or partially incomprehensible into fully or partially comprehensible.

Andon (2010) suggests that the "comprehensive input" paves the way for the "uptake of corrective feedback"**.** In the field of SLA, 'uptake' refers to the "language items" that the L2

learner has learnt (Allwright, 1984 in Yaghoubi-Notash et al., 2011). Moreover, it is claimed that 'uptake' enhances noticing (Lightbown, 1998), develops fluency (Swain, 1995), and drives a comprehensive output (Swain, 1985). In addition, sociocultural researchers (e.g., Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Negueruela & Lantolf, 2006; Swain, 2000; Swain et al., 2010; Swain & Lapkin, 1995) pinpoint the strong relation between the TBLT and SLA. Gibbons (2009) proposes that engaging the students in performing a task, sets the context for "interactional scaffolding".

3. 1. 3. TBLT and Pedagogy

The TBLT holds a common ground for both teachers and researchers (e.g. Bruton 2002a, 2002b; Sheen 1994; Swan 2005). The TBLT has a diversity of versions and principles that can suit a wide range of pedagogical demands and educational requirements (Ellis, 2000). Andon (2010) argues that when students are engaged in doing a task, they gain confidence to use their own linguistic resources through natural interaction with more competent speakers (Willis, 1996). This interaction enhances their noticing of how other interlocutors convey the same message in different ways. Moreover, the interaction within task context promotes certain discourse skills and operationalizes the "communication strategies" (Willis, 1996).

Robinson (2011) suggests that developing taxonomic models based on task complexity can illuminate the path for taking the appropriate pedagogical decisions. These decisions should be substantial for the L2 learners (Garcia-Mayo, 2007; Robinson, 2007b; Robinson & Gilabert, 2007). In addition, taxonomies of task characteristics are thought to have a crucial role in identifying which task to be introduced, when, and the manner of its validation (Clark & Elen, 2007; Merrill, 2007; Reigeluth, 1999; Reigeluth & Carr-Chellman, 2009). Consequently, pedagogical tasks should be designed according to the taxonomies of task characteristics (see Pica *et al*. 1993; Prabhu, 1987; Robinson, 2007b; Skehan, 1998) to enhance "interaction, accuracy, fluency, complexity, language development, and uptake of corrective feedback" (Robinson, 2011).

3. 1. 4. Limitations of TBLT

There have been some critical responses to the TBLT. For example, Seedhouse (1999) argues that tasks generate poor interaction which may cause fossilization. In addition, during task performance (i.e. the "task-as-process"), the emerging interaction may affect the validity of

"task-as-work plan". This is because interaction may lead to outcomes that are different form the intended ones (Seedhouse, 2005). If this claim is substantial, that means that it would be impossible to cover the objectives of a TBLT course (Ellis, 2009b).

Another accusation was set against the TBLT is that the TBLT does not provide for "grammar syllabus" and TBLT course designers provide only "a brief list of suggestions regarding the selection and presentation of new language" (Sheen, 2003). In other words, the TBLT "outlaws the grammar syllabus" (Swan, 2005). For example, Long's and Skehan's version of TBLT do not support grammar syllabus (Ellis, 2009b). Alternatively, Ellis provides for a grammar syllabus that is applied in parallel with the TBLT syllabus in the form of focused tasks. Moreover, Ellis (2009b) suggests that the majority of the TBLT versions cater for "attention" to syntax through "remedial" grammar.

In a related context, Sheen (2003) claims that, in the TBLT, grammar is taught implicitly by giving snap shots of "corrective feedback". Moreover, it is presented as "grammar-problem solving" tasks. In response to Sheen's claims, Ellis (2009b) proposes that Skehan (1996) illustrates that the implementation of "focus-on-form" is an option that starts from the task design phase up to the task implementation phase. That means that the task designer can emphasize focus-on-form in any stage of the task, especially in "pre-task planning", as in Skehan's version. Otherwise focus on form can be introduced explicitly as in Ellis's version.

Another limitation is represented in Swan's (2005) arguments that the TBLT has focused on the acquisition of grammar, and totally ignored vocabulary and phonology. Ellis (2009b) responds to this allegation by illustrating that there have been a number of studies that investigated the acquisition of vocabulary (e.g. Ellis *et al*., 1994) and the acquisition of phonology (e.g. Loewen, 2005) in addition to the acquisition of grammar (e.g. Mackey, 1999). Furthermore, Swan (2005) assumes that the TBLT focuses only on output and provides less input as depicted below:

> It remains true that TBLT provides learners with substantially less new language than "traditional" approaches.' 'In the tiny corpus of a year's task-based input, even some basic structures may not occur often, much core vocabulary is likely to be absent, and many other lexical items will appear only once or twice.
>
> (Swan 2005: 376)

In response to Swans' criticism, Ellis (2009b) clarifies that tasks can provide much more input when they are "input-based" (i.e. involve listening or reading). Also "extensive reading" tasks provide opportunities to substantial input in the target language. Additionally, Swan (2005) proposes that the TBLT is only effective in "acquisition-rich contexts". That is because beginners lack the sufficient grammar to produce discourse and shift their attention to from. This assumption is based on Swan's view that the TBLT is only "output-based". However, most versions of TBLT are input-based (Ellis, Skehan, Willis and Long). Moreover, the TBLT for beginners are designed with a great emphasis on input in order to promote initial proficiency (see Prabhu, 1987). In addition, communicating can be initiated without grammar (see Ellis 2009b for review).

3.2. Tasks

3.2.1. Task Definition

Since tasks constitute the basic units upon which the TBLT is constructed, providing a clear definition and identified features are required. Ellis (2003: 1-5) proposes that these definitions can be classified according to multiple dimensions of a 'Task'. These dimensions include 'scope', 'perspective', 'authenticity', 'language skills', 'cognitive processes', and 'outcome'. Most of the proposed definitions of a 'Task' cover, mostly, all dimensions of a 'Task'. Some definitions adopt broad perspectives to include all kinds of activities to cover any activity that requires the use of language and those that do not. Whereas, the narrow definitions assert that the task should require the use of language **(**Ellis, 2003:1-34).

Most definitions perceive a 'Task' either as an 'activity', 'exercise', a 'process' or a 'work plan'. For examples, Breen (1987:23) defines a 'Task' as "a brief practice exercise" or a "work plan that requires spontaneous communication of meaning". Richards, Platt, and Weber (1985) define a 'Task' as an "activity or an action" in which learners demonstrate understanding of language either by responding to commands or producing language. They illustrate that performing a task does not necessarily result in language production, and the standards of success are identified only by the task designers and/or teachers (Richards, Platt, and Weber, 1985). Crookes (1986) proposes that a 'Task' can be either an "activity or a piece of work" that has preset objectives and carried out in the context of "education, work, or research". Prabhu (1987) regards a 'Task'

as an activity in which learners are required to accomplish an outcome by applying a process of thought. Lee (2000) suggests that a 'task' can be either an activity or an exercise. In Lee's view, a task involves the students in interactive activities and in the same time provides clear information on how the students will perform these interactive activities through an emphasis on meaning. Moreover, the definition focuses on cognitive skills that should be embedded within the task design.

Skehan (1998) offers a definition that involves a process within the activity as depicted below:

> A task is an activity in which meaning is primary; there is some sort of communication problem to solve; there is some sort of relationship to comparable real-world activities; task completion has some priority; and assessment of the task is in terms of outcome
>
> (Skehan, 1998: 95)

3.2.2. Task types

Nunan (2004:1) suggests that tasks fall under two main types; 'real-world' / 'target' tasks and 'pedagogical' tasks. The objective of 'real-world' tasks is to help learners acquire the required linguistic skills that will help them accomplish different tasks in their life outside school. These tasks may include a "telephone conversation, applying for a job, booking a ticket, or choosing a hotel" (Nunan 2004: 1). In the meantime, the main purpose of 'pedagogical tasks' is to enhance the development of SLA. Examples of pedagogic tasks are "Information-gap tasks, opinion exchanging tasks, jigsaw tasks, and opinion-exchanging tasks" (Nunan, 2004: 1). Nunan defines a 'pedagogical task' as:

> a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right with a beginning, middle and an end
>
> (Nunan, 2004:4)

Nunan's definition considers a 'Task' as a communicative tool applied inside the classroom, and asserts the 'cognitive' skills (such as 'comprehending', 'manipulating', and 'producing') and 'social' skills (such as interacting) that are embedded in a 'Task'. Nunan refers to the use of

grammar as a means to convey meaning not as an end. Furthermore, the definition focuses on the completion of the task as a substantial requirement.

Ellis (2003:3) differentiates between the definition of a 'Task' and that of an 'Activity'. He proposes that a 'Task' should focus on meaning whereas 'Exercises' should focus on form. However, he emphasizes that the ultimate objective of using both tasks and exercises is learning a language. Ellis defines a 'Task' from the perspective of a task designer. He considers a 'Task' as a "workplan that is intended to engage the learners in meaning-focused language use" (Ellis 2003: 5). Ellis proposes that a 'Task' is:

> … a work plan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of whether the correct or appropriate propositional content has been conveyed. To this end, it requires them to give primary attention to meaning and to make use of their own linguistic resources, although the design of the task may predispose them to choose particular forms. A task is intended to result in language use that bears a resemblance, direct or indirect, to the way language is used in the real world. Like other language activities, a task can engage productive or receptive, and oral or written skills and also various cognitive processes
>
> **(**Ellis, 2003:16)

Richards, *et al. (*1986: 289) provides another definition of a pedagogical task:

> … an activity or action which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding language (i.e. as a response). For example, drawing a map while listening to a tape, listening to an instruction and performing a command may be referred to as tasks. Tasks may or may not involve the production of language. A task usually requires the teacher to specify what will be regarded as successful completion of the task. The use of a variety of different kinds of tasks in language teaching is said to make language teaching more communicative . . . since it provides a purpose for a classroom activity which goes beyond the practice of language for its own sake.
>
> (Richards, *et al.,* 1986: 289 in Nunan, 2004: 2)

Richards, *et al* regard any activity as a task, whether it includes the production of language or not. This definition is similar to Bygate, Skehan, and Swain's (2001) in regard to the preset objectives of the task and it is the teacher is the one who defines the criteria of success. Breen propose that a 'pedagogical task' is:

> . . . any structured language learning endeavor which has a particular objective, appropriate content, a specified working procedure, and a range of outcomes for those who undertake the task. 'Task' is therefore assumed to refer to a range of work-plans which have the overall purposes of facilitating language learning – from the simple

> and brief exercise type, to more complex and lengthy activities such as group problem-solving or simulations and decision-making.
>
> (Breen, 1987: 23)

3.2.3. Task features

Based on the aforementioned definitions, a 'Task' should hold some critical features. A 'Task' should be a 'workplan' that involves a 'primary focus on meaning', and 'real-world processes of language use' by "involving any of the four language skills" through 'cognitive processes' that should lead to a "clearly defined communicative outcome" (Ellis, 2003: 9-10). Skehan (1998) operationalizes the term 'task characteristics' instead of 'task features'. He suggests that in a 'Task' "meaning is primary", "learners are not given other people's meaning to regurgitate", "there is some sort of relationship to comparable real-world activities", "task completion has some priority, and "the assessment of the task is in terms of outcome" (Skehan, 1998 in Nunan, 2004:3).

In spite of that dispute over defining a 'Task', most definitions of a 'Task' share a common ground that differentiates between a 'Task' and an 'Activity' by giving two main characteristics to identify a 'Task' (Skehan, 2003: 96). They agreed on that a 'Task' should "avoid explicit structures and engagement of worthwhile meanings". In addition, a 'Task' has a "clear pedagogic relationship to real-world language needs". Consequently, a task design should target how language is used in the real world, but applied inside the classroom (Long and Crookes, 1991).

3.2.4. Task generations

Ribe and Vidal (1993) argue that the terms 'Task' and 'Project' are used interchangeably. They claim that the evolution of tasks/projects underwent three generations. The 'First-generation tasks' emphasized the "development of communicative ability" (e.g. problem-solving tasks). In addition to focusing on the "development of the communicative ability", the "Second-generation tasks" integrated a trend to develop the L2 learners' "cognitive aspects" and "learning strategies" such as developing "thinking skills and "cognitive strategies" that are required for processing information (Ribe and Vidal, 1993: 2 in Nunan, 2004:133-135). The 'Third-generation' tasks

occurred with the objective to motivate the development of learners' personality by means of SLA in addition to 'communicative competence' and 'cognitive development'.

3.3. Rich tasks

In addition to the objectives of the 'Third-generation' tasks, 'Rich Tasks' were developed with an emphasis on extending the planning time and focus on the students' performance. According to Education Queensland's "New Basics" project, "Rich Tasks" are:

> … the assessable and reportable outcomes of a curriculum plan that prepares students for the challenges of life in 'new times'…The Rich Task is a reconceptualization of the notion of outcome as demonstration or display of mastery; that is, students display their understandings, knowledge and skills through performance on trans-disciplinary activities that have an obvious connection to the wide world.
>
> (Education Queensland, 2001a: 3)

Queensland (2001a) proposes that "Rich Tasks" are "extended performance tasks" that require students to demonstrate a product with significance to the real-world. In the process of doing the "Rich Tasks", students will be assessed according to what degree they validate their mastery of certain important "skills". Rich tasks engage students in problem-based activities that require them to think critically to find proper solutions with pragmatic relevance to the real world (Education Queensland, 2001a: 6)

3.3.1. Characteristics of rich tasks

The 'American Art Education Practices' sets some essentials characteristics of "Rich Tasks" (Beatie, 2006). It emphasizes that "Rich Tasks" should demonstrate an inquiry-based and problem-based learning that bears connections to the students' real world. They should be designed by the teacher and reviewed by another colleague teacher in order to ensure the validity of the task. Moreover, success in "Rich Tasks" requires students to possess the enough knowledge to complete the task. In the same time a "Rich Task" should regard the students' 'diversity'. The most significant feature that characterizes a rich task is that it entails an extended time to enable the students to seek multiple solutions and deep understanding. Complexity embedded in "Rich Tasks' pushes students to demonstrate that they constructed multiple aspects of knowledge (e.g. 'content knowledge', 'procedural knowledge', 'conditional knowledge',

'meta-cognitive knowledge', 'affective knowledge', and 'motor knowledge'). Students' performance assessment should regard the sub-skills identified by the teacher (see Beatie, 2006).

Rich tasks include a process that leads to a product presented to an audience. It is encouraged that the product may have some significance to the community and culture. The students' performance and product are assessed according to predetermined rubrics to ensure objectivity. Evidence on students' work is documented in portfolios and journals. Finally, if a student was unable to successfully submit his/her task, s/he should have another chance to complete their work (Education Queensland, 2000).

There are a number of considerations that should be followed when designing "Rich Tasks". A 'Rich Task" should be an "open-ended" task in a "problem-based" context in which students follow an "inquiry-based" model of learning that gives emphasis on the "process-product" assessment within collaboration mode and takes into consideration the "wide/narrow" curriculum (Thought Control, 2009). The significance of an "open-ended" task lies in its consideration of the students' diversity and their varied abilities by setting "multiple possible outcomes". Moreover, "Open-ended" tasks give the students the opportunity to decide on the way they will collect the information and how they will present their final products. These considerations give the students the feeling of being responsible and of ownership of their learning (Thought Control, 2009).

Problem-based learning (PBL) is an "instructional method characterized by the use of 'real world' problems" (Duch, 1995). Duch proposes that PBL encourages the students to acquire the ability to think critically and apply the required skills to solve a problem. The effort exerted to solve a problem, along with having the opportunity to choose and the feeling of being responsible provide a suitable "context for both creative and critical thinking" (Thought Control, 2009). Albanese and Mitchell (1993) indicate that PBL involves a process that resembles the process embedded in inquiry-based learning. The process starts with the students posing an existing problem. Then, in groups, they try to comprehend and identify the nature of that problem and reflect upon what they already know and what they need to know about the problem. Then, collaboratively, the students set and record their questions about the vague aspects of the problem ("learning issues"). In the following step, the students start to arrange the recorded "learning issues" according to their importance, and distribute roles and responsibilities

on the group members. Subsequently, members of the group gather again and integrate the knowledge that each member explored individually. Collaboratively, the students connect the new explored knowledge to what they already have, and then set new "learning issues" to find answers for them (Engel, 1991).

A "Rich Task" is also a representation of 'Inquiry-Based" learning that follows 'Bloom's Taxonomy'. A "Rich Task" involves posing a problem for students to solve. Consequently, students start their task by "gathering information, and then processing this information for comprehension, then applying the processed information to solve the posed problem, and finally evaluate the results". The pattern of 'Bloom's Taxonomy' enables learners to construct, develops, apply and create skills and content knowledge. Turkman defines 'Inquiry' as follows:

> the intentional process of diagnosing problems, critiquing experiments, and distinguishing alternatives, planning investigations, researching conjectures, searching for information, constructing models, debating with peers, and forming coherent arguments
>
> (Turkman, 2009:2)

There have been many associations between "Inquiry-based teaching and problem-solving, laboratory instruction, project-based learning, cooperative learning and discovery instruction" (Turkman, 2009). The common objective of applying these methods is guiding students to "learn how to learn" (see Bodner, 1986; Bybee, 2000; Hancer, 2006; Türkmen & Pedersen, 2003). Colbum (2000) proposes that inquiry-based models can be classified under three main categories; "structured inquiry, guided inquiry and open inquiry".

Wilkinson (2005) suggests that a 'Rich Task' involves a process of "learning and discovery in addition to challenging trials that are embedded within the task. This process entails presenting a final product". 'Rich Tasks' provide opportunities for students to:

> learn broad concepts, with broad examples from the broader world, while also having opportunities to ensure that they comprehend important details and key skills and concepts through targeted teaching and learning.

A 'Rich Task' should hold some significance to students as individuals. Additionally, "Rich Tasks" should include an element of community interaction. 'Rich tasks' should be designed to engage students in activities that resemble these in real life. This can be achieved through a well-

planned series of tasks covering a high degree of content and providing challenges for the learners (Wilkinson, 2005).

3.4. TBLT Frameworks: From research to pedagogy

Nunan (2005: 19-25) indicates that the TBLT has numerous and different perceptions which results in multiple versions and frameworks for implementation. In a nutshell, two frameworks will be given as examples: Willis' (1996) and Skehan's (1996). In addition, ECART will be investigated as an innovative framework that implements 'process-product' tasks, and requires longer planning time by employing 'Rich Tasks'.

3.4.1. Willis's Framework

Willis (1996)'s pedagogical framework to implement the TBLT involves three stages; 'Pre-task', 'Task Cycle' and 'Language focus'. The objective of 'pre-task' is to prepare the students and to perform the task. This objective can be achieved by presenting the topic of the task to the learners and explaining the task by giving them clear instructions of what they have to accomplish. It may also involve recalling some relevant language items that the students may employ in performing the task.

Stage two (Task Cycle) consists of three components (Task, Planning and Report). 'Task' involves the real performance of the task in which learners form dyads or small groups to engage in doing the task collaboratively. The teacher's role in this stage is to provide support and encouragement without interfering in the task. In 'planning', the students engage in organizing either a written or an oral report, while the teacher plays the role of a linguistic adviser by providing feedback. In 'Report', the teacher is a 'chairperson' who selects some groups to present their reports orally or in writing.

Stage three (Language focus) includes 'Analysis', and 'Practice'. 'Analysis' involves planned activities that focus on certain language items. Furthermore, the students are given opportunities to discuss the forms that they have noticed in the task. It is also helpful if the teacher discusses language items that the students used in their reports. 'Practice' comprises of a number of exercises or activities that engage the students in practicing and recording the language features that occurred in all stages (Willis, in Nunan 2005: 19-25).

3.4.2. Skehan's Framework

Similarly, Skehan (1996) presents a three-stage framework which includes a 'Preemptive', or 'pre-task' stage, a 'during the task' stage and a 'post-task' stage. Moreover, he provided suggestions and examples for how to implement each stage in order to achieve its main purpose. Skehan (1996) proposes that the main purpose of the 'Preemptive' or 'pre-task' stage is to provide opportunities for the appearance of 'restructuring' of prior knowledge and 'incorporating' of new elements. Consequently, the activities of the 'preemptive' stage aim particularly to; (1) 'teach', 'mobilize', or 'stress' the language that is relevant to the task. This can be achieved by either pre-teaching the relevant language items or by giving the pre-task first, then providing the students with the language (Prabhu, 1987; Willis and Willis, 1988 in Skehan, 1996); **(**2) Reduce the 'cognitive complexity' so that the learners dedicate more attention to the task's real language (Van Patten, 1994), and provide for the development of accuracy (Skehan and Foster, 1996) and complexity (Crookes, 1989). To achieve this aim, learners should participate in "pre-task activation sessions" in which they are prompted to "recall the task-relevant schematic knowledge" (Skehan, 1996).

In the 'during' task stage, Skehan (1996) suggests that the "tasks should not be so difficult nor too easy". On one hand, if the task is so difficult, it will generate a mental processing load in order to communicate meaning. Consequently, this will undermine the pedagogic value of the task because it will push the learners to depend on 'ellipsis', 'context', 'strategies', and 'lexicalization'. On the other hand, if the task is too easy, the learners will lose their interest in the task and no development will occur in the learners' interlanguage (Swain, 1985 in Skehan, 1996).

The third stage (post 1 and post 2), helps the learners to redirect their attention while doing the task (Willis and Willis, 1988). The activities within this stage should draw the learners' attention to accuracy along with fluency (Skehan, 1996). 'Post 1' may include activities such as "public performance, analysis, or tests". These activities have potential pedagogical gains, for example 'public performance', has the benefits of pushing the learners to "allocate attention to the goals of restructuring and accuracy" (Skehan, 1996). In 'Post 2', a consideration of presenting tasks in 'task families'. That is, task selection should be on the basis of "similar language or cognitive demands" (Candlin, 1987). This will give the learners clearer ideas regarding the goals of these

tasks. That will result in constructing a common ground between learners and teachers on what is required from these tasks (Skehan, 1996).

In addition to the frameworks provided by Willis, Skehan, Long, Ellis and others, more recent pedagogical frameworks were introduced to the field of education. The following chapter is dedicated to investigate ADEC's Framework which employs English Continuous Assessment Rich Tasks (ECART).

3.5. ECART

3.5.1. ADEC's new curriculum

Abu Dhabi Education Council (ADEC)'s new curriculum was developed to reform education in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi, the capital city of the United Arab Emirates (UAE). Al Shamesi, Director General of ADEC, announced that a new curriculum would be implemented in both Public Private Partnership (PPP) Schools and Model Schools in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi (ADEC standards, 2007:5). Subsequently, the new curriculum for the subject English (ECART) started as a pilot study to be generalized to the public mainstream later on.

As a point of departure, ADEC has defined a set of detailed learning expectations (Standards) for each subject. These 'Standards' are expected to be achieved by implementing 'Inquiry-Based' learning in the "New School Model" and across the governmental mainstream (ADEC's Policy Manual, 2012: 52). In the 'New Model School', English, Mathematics and Science are taught and assessed through an English Medium. Inquiry-based learning is implemented in the English Medium subjects. The new curriculum adopts the concept of 'experiential learning" or "learning by doing" (ADEC's Policy Manual, 2012: 52). Teachers will have the responsibility of developing authentic tasks to achieve ADEC's 'Curriculum Standards' and 'Learning Outcomes' (Indicators).

To make sure that these Standards are met, ADEC has developed a pedagogical approach to "Continuous Assessment" (CA) that includes applying a selection of techniques to assess students' learning. This approach may include, 'student assignments, research, presentations, reports, quizzes, tests, and practical activities'. ADEC's CA 'frameworks' are embedded in the form of a set of CA 'Rich Tasks'. These tasks should be designed to measure students'

performance against the pre-defined 'Indicators' and to illuminate the way for teachers to set fruitful planning for their future classes. ADEC's policy on assessment indicates that ADEC's Curriculum will implement CA to effectively measure students' outcomes and reveals the areas where improvement is needed. Moreover, CA is seen essential to 'inform teaching' and 'facilitate learning' (ADEC's Policy Manual, 2012: 62).

ADEC has set three content organizers (Strands) for the 'English Language Curriculum'; 'Talking and listening', 'Reading' and 'Writing'. Each strand has predefined 'indicators' and 'content'. These Strands constitute the basic knowledge for English (ADEC's standards, 2007:11). The 'Indicators' refer to specific learning outcomes that are planned to be achieved through teaching specific sets of contents. Indicators describe in detail the "knowledge, skills and understanding" that the student will achieve (ADEC's standards, 2007:11). For example; ADEC's indicators for the 'Writing' strand (which is the focus of this research) indicates that by the end of each grade, students will be able to;

> ...communicate in a range of familiar formal and informal situations in order to gather and interpret information, and to express ideas and opinions in clear and interesting ways; listen attentively and adapt spoken language in response to a wider range of purposes, audiences and contexts.
>
> (6–9 English language Curriculum, 2007:8)

In order to achieve the desired indicators for each strand, ADEC has set certain content points to be covered. Each Strand Content defines 'what students learn about and learn to do'. (ADEC's standards, 2007:11). In the new curriculum, teachers are required to plan their programs in correlation with the constructivism perspective. Teachers gather information about the students' prior knowledge, and consequently, planned programming should construct on this existing knowledge to build new knowledge and skills congruent with the students' strengths and weaknesses. This should be done by addressing all ADEC's 'Standards', 'Strands', 'Indicators' and 'Contents' as specified in the English Language Curriculum document. Planning is a collaborative effort of all the English Department teachers in order to develop a 'scope' and 'sequence' plan across Grades in order to develop the program and individual 'units of work'. Each 'unit of work' revolves around a key concept or theme for each trimester. The teachers' role is to introduce the theme and pinpoint main ideas and concepts according to the indicators.

Moreover, they select the appropriate 'Content', identify resources, and set plans for assessment. To attempt to achieve consistency in assessment, ADEC provided sample assessment strategies and rubrics which are available in 'English Language Teacher Resource' document.

3.5.2. ECART: The beginning

ECART was first introduced in 2009 as a pilot project within the new English Curriculum that was applied only in the Private Public Partnership (PPP) schools and Model Schools in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi. In the academic year 2011/2012, the ECART was generalized in the mainstream of Abu Dhabi governmental schools. In the following academic year, 2012/2013, ECART became the main framework of teaching the English Subject.

3.5.3. ECART: Definition

The English Continuous Assessment Rich Tasks (ECART) is a pedagogical framework to implement the subject English. It was developed in line with ADEC's new strands and indicators to be the overall umbrella that covers all learning and teaching activities within the subject English. Figure one demonstrates all learning and teaching activities under the ECART framework. ADEC's official Curriculum document defines the ECART as:

> …a framework to implement the subject English. It includes a process of inquiry that should be engaging and relevant to the cohort of students. Language and 21st century skills are woven throughout the process at the appropriate points.
>
> (ADEC' English Framework, 2012: 5)

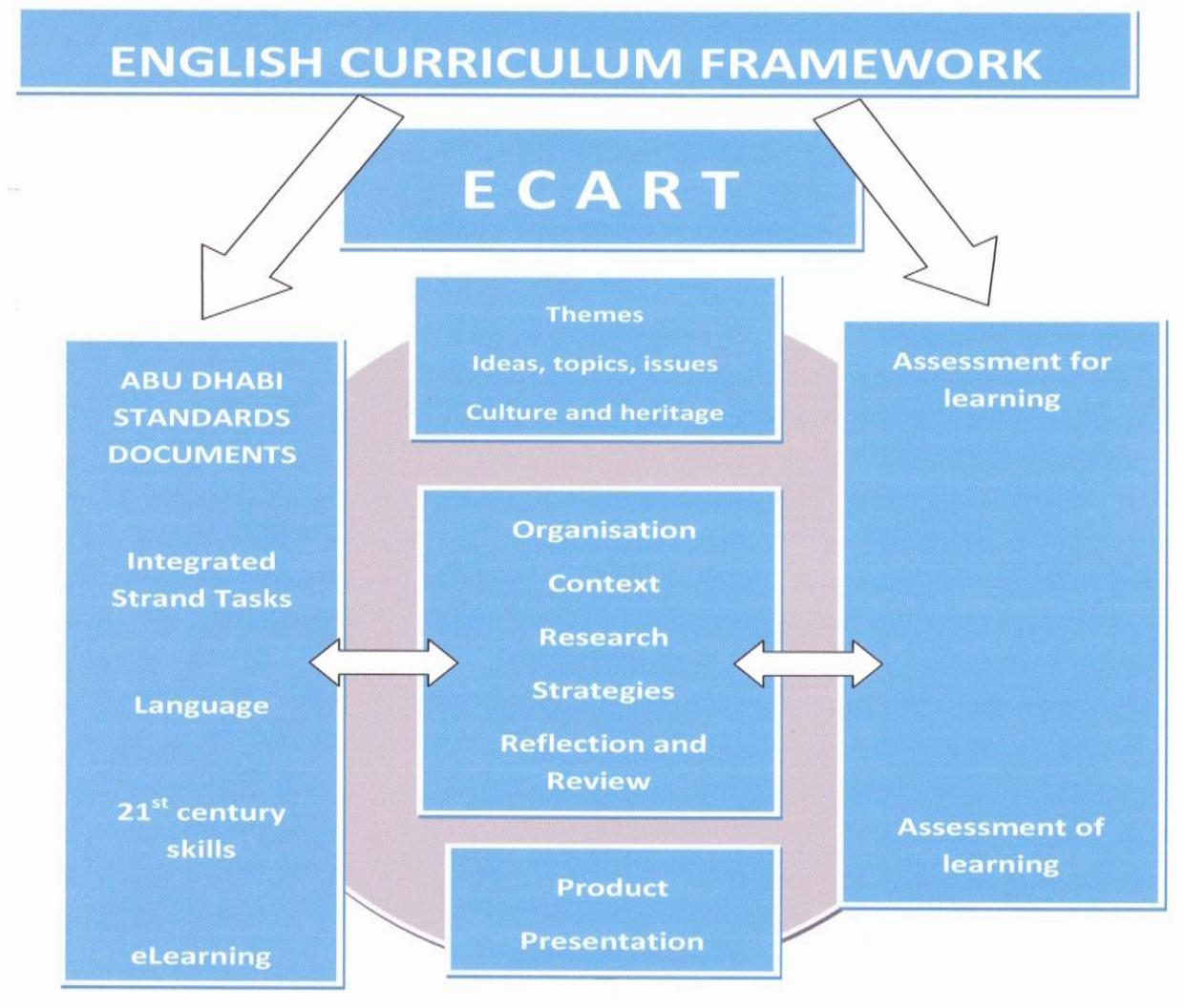

Figure 1: ADEC's English Curriculum Framework (ADEC's English Curriculum Framework, 2012: 7)

The above definition demonstrates that ECART holds promises to improve the students' English Language by engaging them in doing "Rich Tasks" that will promote their 'Higher Order Thinking' (HOT) skills. ECART is designed to provide opportunities for students to think critically and creatively and to solve problems by working in groups or with peers. The process of ECART requires students to "learn how to learn" and take responsibility of their learning.

ECART is a "model of inquiry-based learning" which requires students to engage in and develop new and or different understandings (ADEC Support Documents 2011: 4). ECART entails students to "make connections to their Emirati culture and heritage and the wider world". Figure two illustrates the inquiry process embedded within the ECART.

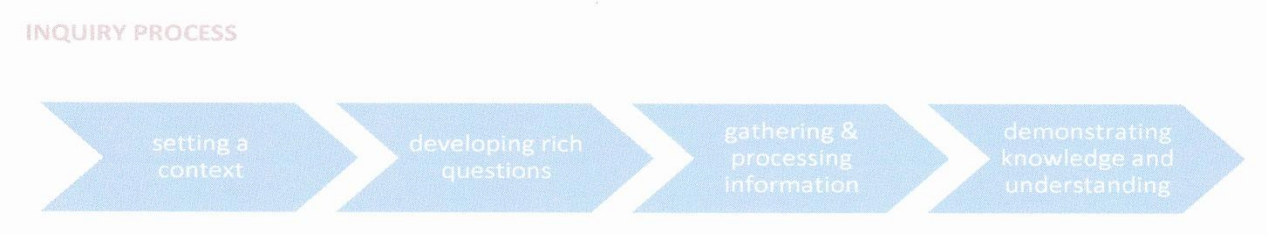

Figure 2: ECART Inquiry Process (ADEC's English Curriculum Framework 2012: 5)

3.5.4. The objectives of ECART

ECART was introduced to be the framework for implementing the English Curriculum because of its expected benefits in providing the students with the twenty first century skills. The twenty first century skills are categorized under four categories as depicted below:

> (1) Ways of thinking" which includes creativity, critical thinking, problem-solving, decision-making and learning. (2) Ways of working which includes communication and collaboration. (3) Tools for working that include information and communications technology (ICT) and information literacy. (4) Skills for living in the world which include citizenship, life and career, and personal and social responsibility
>
> (ATC21S, 2013)

The twenty first century skills are internationally recognized and desired. They also are in correlation with Abu Dhabi Economic Vision 2030 that aims at generating a 'highly skilled' and 'highly productive' National Workforce to compete in a growing and open economy. This vision mandated an 'Education Reform' to guarantee that the young generations are equipped with the required skills to achieve that vision. ADEC has established an "education reform sector" to lead the development of education (Abu Dhabi Economic Vision 2030, 2009:91-94).

Consequently, ADEC began a new era with new standards and a new curriculum. Dr. Mugheer Khamis Al Khaili, ADEC's Director General, states that the essential objective of education reform is to prepare the students to succeed in their higher education and future careers (ADEC 2011:2). In order to achieve this, new curriculum should be designed to promote and enhance the students' skills to think independently and critically, analyze and syntheses so that they can eventually create, innovate, and support the social and economic progression of Abu Dhabi.

3.5.5. Integrated Strand Tasks (ISTs)

As a genuine part of ECART, at least two strands (see 3.1 above) should be integrated together to form one task. These pedagogical rich tasks focus on developing certain aspects of the language that have been set in the program plan. They should be designed according to the preset theme and the chosen 'final products' (ADEC English Framework 2012: 24-32). ADEC's Curriculum Document provides a straight forward definition of ISTs as follows:

> ISTs are rich tasks that develop specific skills. Relevant content points from the Abu Dhabi Standards across the strands of talking, listening, reading, viewing, and writing are integrated to create one task
>
> (ADEC English Framework 2012: 24-32)

Twelve different ISTs were designed to be integrated within the ECART process. In Cycle two, Grades 6-9, the twelve ISTs must be completed in four years' time span. That means students should complete only one different unrepeated IST per trimester. These ISTs include "'Compare and contrast', 'Description – creative writing ', 'Reading and /or listening for meaning', 'Analyse language and structure', 'Writing for purpose', 'Editing', 'Telling stories', 'Adapt spoken language', 'A narrative study', 'Persuasive speaking', 'Synthesis – write and graphically represent' and an 'Electronic task'" (ADEC English Framework 2012: 24-32).

In Cycle three, Grades 10 and 11, the twelve ISTs are once again introduced to the pedagogy to be completed over a two years' time span. Students have to take two different and unrepeated ISTs each trimester. As for twelve graders, they have to complete only two optional ISTs each trimester (ADEC English Framework 2012: 24-32).

3.5.6. Steps of the ECART inquiry Process

Figure three illustrates the steps involved in implementing the ECART. These steps follow the task cycle introduced by Skehan (see 2.4.2 above) and Bloom's taxonomy (see 2.3.1 above) as well. In the process of inquiry, teachers are facilitators who provide the guidance to students and consultants when help is needed. Students begin their inquiry process by gathering and collecting information about a topic chosen related to the theme for each trimester. Students learn how to organize and process the new information with scaffolding from their teacher. Students then synthesize their findings and present the analysis of these findings to the class. Finally, in

teacher-students conferences, teachers along with students think about and evaluate these findings.

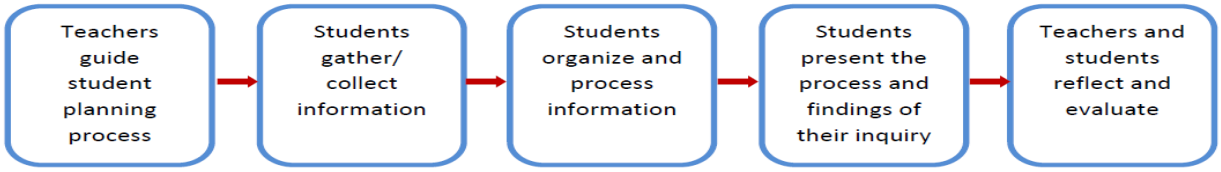

Figure 3: Steps involved in the process of ECART

3.5.7. ECART as a framework for the English Curriculum

In the 2012/2013 academic year, ECART became the general framework that included all teaching and learning activities. ECART framework includes the implementation of two types of rich tasks; process-product rich tasks that focus on developing students' cognitive skills, and integrated strand tasks (ISTs) that focus on developing certain language features. Theoretically and from the TBLT perspective, the process-product rich task is considered as a real-world task whereas the IST is seen as a pedagogical task (see 2.2.2 above). ECART implementation process consists of eleven steps (see figure 4) in each trimester. The school year is divided into three trimesters. The first and third trimester have prescribed themes identified in the learning plan section for each grade (see figure 5). The second trimester is free theme. The teachers are free to teach any theme of their choice, mostly, the chosen theme is embedded in teaching poetry and intended to develop students' personal critical response. The sections of ECART are not arranged in a sequential order and will need to be included at more than one point or more than one time within the teaching, learning and assessment cycle.

Figure 4: Steps to implement the English Curriculum Framework (ADEC's English Curriculum Framework 2012: 8)

In step one, text types, genres and Integrated Strand Tasks (ISTs) are chosen by the school's English Department staff. Then in Step two, teachers determine the theme for each grade, the guiding focus questions, and core vocabulary for all three trimesters with visual literacy in the teaching, learning and assessing cycle. This step also includes planning teaching, learning and assessment. In Step 3, teachers decide on a theme-related text type and genre for each trimester putting into consideration that there should be a balance of genre over Cycle 2 and Cycle 3. Step 4 indicates that the English Department teachers agree on which of the twelve Integrated Strand Tasks (IST's) can support/be supported by the focus text type. ISTs are tasks that provide opportunities for students to achieve the learning outcomes that are designed according to certain criteria in the light of the Abu Dhabi Standards and embedded in the ECART Teaching, Learning and Assessment process. Skills required for each chosen task should be taught explicitly through modeled and guided learning activities collaborative and independent learning situations. Students are made aware of the assessment and success criteria and what is expected from them to achieve by providing them with the assessment rubric. Teachers should consider where the

ISTs will fit within the ECART Framework and how they will support different sections of the ECART. In Step 5: for each trimester, teachers focus on teaching of no less than three 'language features' out of the following language features: "nouns, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, verbs, connectives, phrases and clauses or tenses". Step 6: Collaboratively, the English department teachers and the ICT teachers plan how to integrate ICT within the ECART process. Step 7: Teachers negotiate with the students about their final products and provide scaffolds to help students develop their final products. Step 8: teachers think about continuous assessment. Step 9: Map curriculum coverage against the Abu Dhabi Standards. Step 10: teachers identify an appropriate rich, focus text to build the context for the trimester. Step 11: teachers use the ECART map to plan and map the next unit of work for the trimester.

LEARNING PLANS 2012 – 2013

Grade	Trimester	Theme and guiding focus questions	Text type focus
6	1	**People and places** **Guiding focus questions to consider and explore:** • Who am I? • What do I have in common with others? • Differences and similarities between people/places? • What are my goals?	**Visual Literacy** **Plus** **School English Department collaboration when choosing the text type and the genres** **Narrative** **OR** **Information** **OR** **Critical response** **Cover all three text types over the year** **Choose different genres over the cycle so that students cover a range**
6	2	**Free theme and guiding focus questions choice**	
6	3	**My Imaginary World** **Guiding focus questions to consider and explore:** • What do composers do to create texts and performances? • Why do composers use imagination? • How do I use imagination?	
7	1	**Healthy lifestyle** **Guiding focus questions to consider and explore:** • What does a healthy lifestyle look like? • Why is a healthy lifestyle important? • Why do we need to make healthy choices?	
7	2	**Free theme and guiding focus questions choice**	
7	3	**Looking back** **Guiding focus questions to consider and explore:** • Why is the past important? • How do we learn from our own history? • How do we learn from the history of others?	

Figure 5: ADEC's English Curriculum Learning Plan (ADEC's English Curriculum Framework 2012: 12)

3.5.8. Similar models of ECART

The instruction methods embedded in the ECART, such as inquiry-based or problem-based models of learning or even the process-product models of learning are common, but mostly, in teaching science and Math. Most modern curriculums are designed according to these models of

learning that encourage constructivist methodology. The application of rich tasks is a means of continuous measurement of students' performance and cognitive skills (such as Higher Order Thinking skills). This study attempts to investigate the effects of different types of task planning in the context of ECART on the students' task performance. As there are no previous studies that evaluated the ECART at local level, the following section will shed some light on similar models of ECART. For example, Education Queensland's "New Basics" project and "The Arts Curriculum" of the state of Pennsylvania, the USA will be respectively evaluated in the next section.

3.5.8.1. Education Queensland's "New Basics" project

Macdonald *et al.*, (2007) indicate that the Education Queensland's 'New Basics' project established '20 transdisciplinary learning and assessment tasks for Years 1 to 9, called rich tasks'. The objectives of implementing these rich tasks were to assess and report the students' outcome in a nine years' time span (Bernstein, 1996; EQ, 2000b in Macdonald *et al.*, 2007). In addition to the rich tasks, the "New Basics" project included two main fragments; "four curriculum organizers (new basics), and pedagogical reform (productive pedagogies)" (Macdonald and Tinning, 2007).

Education Queensland set the same objectives of those stated by ADEC for implementing "Rich Tasks". The stated objectives indicate that the rich tasks have the ability to prepare the students to participate in the active workforce by raising their levels of attainment and developing their multiliteracies. Moreover, rich tasks are thought to develop the students' communication skills and their abilities to think critically and solve problems (EQ, 2000b: 10). Queensland proposes that "Rich Tasks" are "extended performance tasks" that require students to demonstrate a product with significance to the real-world. In the process of doing the "Rich Tasks", students will be assessed according to what degree they can validate their mastery of certain important "skills".

3.5.8.2. The state of Pennsylvania, the USA, Arts Curriculum

The second example of the application of "Rich Tasks" is the curriculum of the arts discipline in the state of Pennsylvania, the USA. The state's Governor's Institutes for Arts Educators set a professional development workshop for arts teachers from different schools across the state of Pennsylvania. Beth Cornell, the State Fine Arts and Humanities Advisor, worked collaboratively

with teams of arts teachers to develop “Rich tasks” as a means for internal assessment. The state, then, was responsible for collecting the developed “Rich Tasks” to constitute a rich tasks bank. (Cornell, 2006 in Beatie, 2006)

Chapter 4: Task Planning and Accuracy

4.1. Complexity, Accuracy and Fluency (CAF)

Skehan (1996 and 1998) indicates that language performance include three main aspects; 'fluency', 'complexity', and 'accuracy'. 'Complexity' and 'accuracy' are mainly concerned with form. On the other hand, 'fluency' is meaning-centered (Foster & Skehan, 1996). Accuracy is the "learner's capacity to handle whatever level of interlanguage complexity s/he has currently attained" (Skehan, 1996: 46). Both 'accuracy' and 'complexity' necessitate that the learners process grammar. Consequently, learners depend on their "rule-based system". Accuracy is embodied in the learner's capability to avoid grammatical errors by controlling his/her existing resources. 'Complexity' develops when learners take the risk to 'restructure'. On the other hand, to achieve 'fluency', interlocutors resort to their 'ready-made chunks' of language. In case they faced any understanding problems, they employ communication strategies to solve these problems. Table one presents operational definitions of complexity, accuracy and fluency (CAF).

Table 1: Operational definitions of CAF

Aspect	Definition
Complexity/Range	The capacity to use more advanced language, with the possibility that such language may not be controlled so effectively. This may also involve a greater willingness to take risks, and use fewer controlled language subsystems. This area is also taken to correlate with a greater likelihood of restructuring, that is, change and development in the interlanguage system.
Accuracy	The ability to avoid error in performance, possibly reflecting higher levels of control in the language as well as a conservative orientation, that is, avoidance of challenging structures that might provoke error.
Fluency	The capacity to use language in real time, to emphasize meanings, possibly drawing on more lexicalized systems.

Based on Skehan and Foster (1999: 96–97)

4.2. Task Planning

Ellis defines planning as a "problem solving activity" in which L2 learners select and employ appropriate linguistic devices that will help them deliver their intended message to the audience (Ellis, 2004: 3). Ellis (2009a) claims that the different types of task planning have an important role in the pedagogical implementation of TBLT. Investigating planning provides insights into allocating the right type and time of planning in performing a required task. Meraji (2011) claims that planning time in TBLT has gained a vital role as a task design variable which holds significance to both language production and language pedagogy. In a study by Robinson, Ting and Urwin (1996), the results indicate that the learners who performed a writing and speaking task under unpressured planning conditions (no time limit) demonstrated better performance (in the oral task only) than those learners who performed the same task under 3-minutes pressured planning time. Piri *et al.,* (2012) propose that 'planning' has a considerable role in consistence with other strategies applied in the written output such as; 'monitoring, revising, and evaluating'. Ellis (2004: 3) illustrates that:

4.2.1. Types of planning

Ellis (2005b) divides planning into 'pre-task' planning and within task planning. Ellis uses the term 'pre-task planning' to refer to "the planning that is done before learners perform a task". 'Within-task planning' covers all types of planning that "occur while learners are actually performing a task" (Ellis, 2005:4). Moreover, Ellis (2005b) puts the 'Pre-task planning' into 'rehearsal' and 'strategic' planning'. 'Rehearsal' planning is embodied in providing the learners with the opportunities to "perform the complete task once before performing it a second time", while 'strategic planning' is providing an opportunity for the learners to plan "what content to express and what language to use" without rehearsing the complete task. 'Within-task planning' may be 'pressured' or 'unpressured/careful'. In 'pressured planning', the learners are confined with limited time to perform the task. But, in 'unpressured/careful planning', the learners have unlimited and extended time to perform the task. (See figure 6 for illustration)

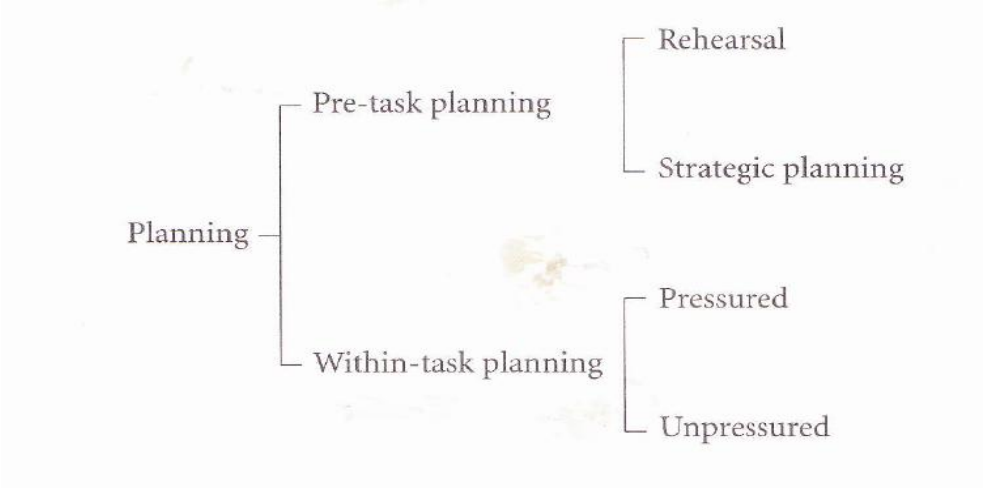

Figure 6: Types of planning (from Ellis, 2005: 4)

4.2.2. Task rehearsal and accuracy

Gass *et al.,* (1999) and Bygate (1996, 2001) have provided evidence which proved that the "rehearsal of a task has a beneficial effect on learners' subsequent performance of the same task" (see Ellis, 2009a for review). The studies indicated that task repetition resulted in development in both 'fluency' and 'complexity'. As for 'accuracy', task rehearsal showed mixed results; in Bygate (2001) task rehearsal had less effect on accuracy (Bygate, 2001). On contrary, Gass *et al.* (1999) provided evidence that task rehearsal resulted in 'improvement in the use of one linguistic feature'.

When learners repeat the same task, they demonstrate a distinction between attention and commitment. That is because the learners redirect their attention from processing information to focus on the linguistic aspects (Plough & Gass, 1993 in Lynch and Maclean, 2000). Birjandi and Ahangari (2008) emphasize that learners' L2 performance was improved as a result to repeating the same task. That is because the learners' attention is directed to "message content" during the first rehearsal of the task Bygate (1999). Consequently, they had the opportunity to focus on selecting and applying the right language while performing the real task.

4.2.3. Unpressured within-task planning and accuracy

Ellis (2004) defined 'within-task' planning as 'the on-line' planning that happens simultaneously when performing a task. 'Within-task' planning is different from the pre-task planning which

happens before carrying out a task (Ellis & Yuan 2003). Ellis argued that providing 'within-task' planning with no specified allocated time for planners, yields more opportunities for planners to cautiously "conceptualize, formulate and articulate their messages" (Ellis 2004: 165-192). Ellis & Yuan (2003) explains that within-task planning can be 'pressured' or 'unpressured'. In 'unpressured within-task' planning, the learners are provided with extended time to plan their task. Consequently, they take advantage of this prolonged time to attend to both meaning and form of their production. On contrary, in 'pressured' within-task planning, the learners are told to produce language quickly. Consequently, as a consequences of their limited capacity (Baddeley, 1986), the learners concentrate on delivering the message with no attention to form. From this perspective, careful/unpressured within-task planning provides more opportunities for learners to attend to the "full range of processes" which is thought to develop both the "quantity and quality" of language production (Ellis & Yuan 2003).

Ellis and Yuan (2003) provided evidence that 'planning' has positive effects on the learners' performance in both written and oral production. Moreover, they propose that learners, who performed oral and written tasks under the within-task planning, produced more complex and accurate language. Ellis and Yuan (2003) & Skehan and Foster (2004) provided suggestions of how to best apply 'within-task' planning to promote the learners' performance and to get them ready for real-life circumstances.

Extensive research has investigated the processes embedded in 'within-task' planning while performing a writing task (Ellis and Yuan 2003). For example, (Hayes and Gradwohl Nash, 1996: 53) noted that in L1 writing tasks, planning was intertwined with the action of writing. The next section will focus on Kellog's (1996) model of writing which explains the cognitive processes involved in writing. Moreover, it links these cognitive processes with aspects from working memory which underpins the importance of planning in task performance.

4.3. Kellog's model of writing

Ellis (2009) proposes that levelt's model inspired most of the theorist who attempted to put theoretical models for writing (e.g. Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987; Hayes & Flower, 1980; Grabe, 2001; Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Kellog, 1996; Zimmerman, 2000). In the following section, Kellog's model of writing will be reviewed along with its interrelation with working memory.

Kellog's (1996) model proposes that the process of producing written language employs three different systems: 'Formulation', 'Execution', and 'Monitoring'. Each of these systems is made up of two components. 'Formulation' involves 'planning' and 'translating'. Planning includes setting the objectives of writing, proposing related ideas, and thinking of how to present these ideas in writing. Whereas the 'translating' component is the process in which the writer transfer the planning phase from being just objectives and ideas into linguistic, phonological and graph-logical items before 'Execution'. 'Execution' involves 'programming' and 'executing'. In the 'programming' phase, the writer converts the 'translating' process into a plan for production to engage the motor system (e.g. handwriting or typing). The 'executing' phase refers to the real 'production of sentences'. Monitoring comprises of 'reading' and 'editing'. 'Reading' occurs only after 'executing' a sentence when writers read the texts that they have produced (Kellog, 1996: 6l). The 'Editing' phase can take place prior and subsequent to the executing of a sentence. Moreover, in 'editing', the writer has the opportunity to attend to micro and/or macro aspects of his/her writing. Thus, the writer pays attention to linguistic errors (micro aspects) and/or organization of the text (macro aspects). Ellis (2009a) argues that the time allocated for the writer to complete his/her written production will affect the range of the writer's monitoring the text to produce a 'polished draft'.

Kellog (1996) suggests that the systems in his model, and their sub-components, work in correlation with working memory. He explains these claims by linking the components of the working memory to the components of his model. For example, he proposes that 'planning' in his model of writing depends on "visuo-spatial sketchpad" in working memory, and 'translating' and 'reading' require the employment of the 'phonological loop' from working memory. Most importantly, Kellog's model suggests that the central executive of the working memory is limited in capacity. This limitation forces the writer, if pressured in time, to prioritize some processes of writing over others. Moreover, writers give more attention to 'formulation' than 'execution' and 'monitoring' because of its critical demands (Ellis, 2009a).

Ellis (2009a) suggests that Kellog's model and other similar models can identify the types of writing mechanisms that are employed by writers while planning. Moreover, they can be employed to investigate how planning strategies can affect the actual production. For example, Ellis (2009a) suggests that task rehearsal has the potentiality to draw the learner's attention to

'conceptualization, formulation and articulation'. Accordingly, task rehearsal is claimed to have beneficial effects on accuracy, complexity and fluency (Bygate, 1996). Whereas unpressured within-task planning can enhance 'formulation' and also provides enough time for 'monitoring' which consequently leads to improvements in accuracy (Ellis, 2009a). Skehan and Foster (1997) emphasize that planning can be employed to "ease the pressure on the learner's limited working memory". This easiness allows students to attend to all aspects of language without tradeoffs.

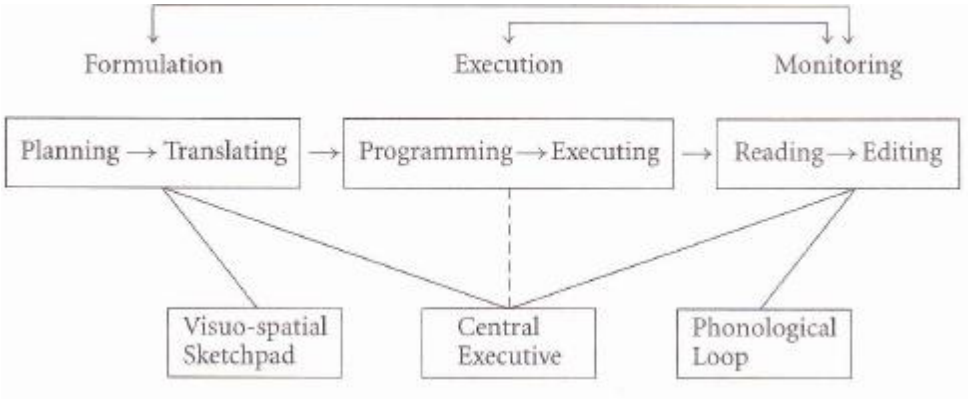

Figure 7: Kellog' Model of writing process (Kellog 1996:59)

Chapter 5: Methodology

5.1. Research Design

This study investigates the effects of task repetition and unpressured within-task planning on the students' accuracy in English writing. To enhance the results, the study employs a mixed methods approach. Qualitative and quantitative methods were combined to collect and analyze data. Quantitatively, the numbers of linguistic errors were collected from three writing tasks of four participants. The numbers of these errors were quantitatively and qualitatively analyzed with employing a longitudinal design to compare the changes in the students' performance in each task.

The mixed methods approach is "a means of combining both quantitative and qualitative methods together in a single study" (Creswell, 2008). The objective of this combination was to support the findings of the study as a whole, and enhance both the validity and reliability of the findings. The quantitative method yielded powerful descriptive statistics (Long 2000) that helped the researcher investigate the research questions in a longitudinal design. These descriptive statistics ended in qualitative analysis and recommendations (Long, 2000).

A 'longitudinal' study is a type of research method that is employed to investigate the changes /developments that occur in "the same group of participants over an extended period of time" (Cherry, 2013). This extended period of time may include two or more 'waves' of measurements (Trochim 2006). Generally, a longitudinal design can employ either 'repeated measures' or 'time series' analysis (Trochim 2006). 'Repeated measures' is applied if the study contains two or more waves of measurement. 'Time series' indicates that the study involves more than twenty waves of measurement.

This study was designed to collect data from the written production from four participants. The same task was repeated at three weeks interval. The participants' final reflection was collected within or after the six weeks deadline (see table 2). The instructions for the participants were to write their reflections after they had finished their rich tasks on the same topic of the repeated IST.

Table 2: Design of the study	
	Task
Time 1	Writing a compare-and-contrast task
Time 2	Writing a compare-and-contrast task + 3 weeks
Time 3	Writing a final reflection + 6 weeks

5.2. Participants

Four participants were randomly selected from seventy-two students in grade seven in one of ADEC's schools. All participants were males with the same age range (12-13 years old). They were all from the UAE with the same educational backgrounds. They all studied in the UAE through their whole educational stages. They all have the same language background as they all speak Arabic as their native language. All participants received the same input from ADEC's curriculum content points for English language. They all have to attend regular school days and study English six classes a week.

5.3. Settings

This study took place in one of ADEC's schools in Abu Dhabi, the UAE. The study was conducted in the context of ADEC's new curriculum which adopts English Continuous Assessment Rich Tasks (ECART) (see chapter 3 above). The school year is divided into three trimesters. Preset themes are defined for both first and third trimesters for each grade, but the second trimester is a free theme, thus the teacher can choose an appropriate theme. The researcher chose 'Animals' as a theme for trimester two. The study was conducted in the second trimester of the 2012/2013 academic year.

ECART is mainly built up of two main types of tasks; the process-product rich task and the Integrated Strand Tasks (ISTs). The effects of task repetition were investigated by the rehearsal of a compare-and-contrast IST. Students were free to write on any two animals they desire. In the IST, two strands of ADEC's Curriculum should be integrated (See 3.5 above). The 'viewing' strand was integrated with the 'writing' strand. Thus, students were given instructions to look at any two animals available on wall charts all over the classroom, then write a compare and contrast text on them.

The effects of unpressured within-task-planning were investigated by analyzing the final draft of the students' reflection stage in the process-product rich task. In the process-product task, the process component starts with the students' choice of two animals that they are interested in. The instructions were to do their research on the same two animals in their 'compare and contrast' IST. Then students begin to search for, collect, analyze and synthesize all the information that they could reach about these animals. Students were told to provide a written report of their research findings. This process represents unpressured within-task-planning because the process starts from the beginning of the trimester and ends by the end of the same trimester which comprises approximately from six to eight weeks of unpressured planning.

5.4. Procedures

The procedures of the study were designed and implemented carefully within the context of ADEC's English Curriculum within the framework of the Rich Continuous Assessment Tasks (ECART). The conditions for each writing task were the same for all of the participants, and on each time. The writing tasks took place in the same English classroom which the participants have a good knowledge of. The classroom was provided by numerous wall charts that provided visual input on animals which the participants can employ in their tasks.

Participants were told to look at the wall charts on animals and use a graph organizer to plan for their writings if they desire. Explicit instructions were given to the students about the text type format which is required for the task. The same procedure was repeated before each time the task was repeated. The students had the opportunity to move freely inside the classroom to reach the wall charts they needed for their task without interrupting the other students. All the tasks were part of the classwork and all students were informed of this. The students did not have prior knowledge of the time of the enactment of the task. To control other variables, participants were not given any feedback.

5.5. Tools & Data coding

To measure the participants' linguistic written accuracy, certain criteria had to be followed. Ellis (2004: 31-32) provided different approaches to measure fluency, complexity and accuracy. For example, an "Error-free clauses" approach was applied to measure the overall grammatical accuracy (see Ellis and Yuan 2004; Elder and Iwashita 2004; Skehan and Foster 2004; Thvakoli

and Skehan 2004; Meraji 2011). Meraji (2011) measured accuracy by calculating the "error-free clauses (EFC), the number of errors per 100 words (NER), and the percentage of target-like use of English articles (TLU)". Meraji employed Polio's (1997) study which considered 'T-units' as the clauses which contained finite verb and overlooked "sentence fragments" and misspellings between 'a' and 'an'. Other attempts (e.g. Ellis and Yuan 2004) measured the System-based grammatical accuracy by quantifying the "correct verb forms". Polio (1997: 104) provided three main approaches too measure linguistic accuracy; a 'Holistic Scales', 'Error-Free Units' and ' Number of errors'. Polio's study compared the three approaches and found that 'Error-Free Units' and 'Number of errors' are more reliable measures than 'Holistic Scales'.

In this study, written linguistic accuracy in English was measured by counting the number of errors in spelling, punctuation, semantics and grammar. The percentage of the total number of the errors was measured in relation to the total word count of each writing task. A tool for measuring written accuracy was based on a study by Zhang (1987) (see Appendix B). The data was coded according to certain guidelines that specify how to code errors and word counts (see Appendix C was operationalized to record the number of errors and their percentage to the total word count of the participants' written production. For data reliability and subjectivity, two raters blindly coded all the data. Pearson correlation was 89% for accuracy measure.

5.6. Ethical Considerations

The researcher obliged himself to take into consideration research ethics in relation to the participants and the research site (Creswell 2008). A formal consent was obtained from ADEC's research office prior to conducting the study. Also the administration of the target school has given their formal consent. The participants were given enough explanations about the study, and their parents have received informative letters. In addition, the identities of the participants were kept anonymous.

Chapter 6: Results and Data Analysis

This chapter will focus on analyzing the results of the study. The descriptive statistics will be analyzed qualitatively in an attempt to provide answers to the research questions. Data will be approached from two views. First, data will be analyzed holistically regarding the participants as one whole group. Then, the linguistic production of individual participants will be analyzed separately to have close investigations and comparisons of the effects of each type of task planning on their linguistic accuracy.

6.1. Holistic Analysis

Table 2 summarizes the results of the written tasks. T1 refers to the first time of performing the task while T2 refers to the second encounter of T1 after the three week interval. T3 refers to the final reflection of the participants' "rich task" which represents "careful within-task" planning. S1, S2, S3 and S4 refer to the participants. The results show an overall decrease of the number of linguistic errors when the participants repeated the same task. There is a general trend shows a significant improvement in the participants' linguistic accuracy in T2 and T3.

Table 3: Summary of the results

	Spelling			Punctuation			Semantics			Grammar			Total errors			Word count			Errors %		
	T1	T2	T3	T1	T2	T3	T1	T2	T3	T1	T2	T3	T1	T2	T3	T1	T2	T3	T1	T2	T3
S1	7	3	4	6	5	4	3	2	3	5	3	3	25	13	14	142	127	210	17.61	10.24	6.67
S2	8	1	1	4	3	3	0	0	2	0	0	3	10	4	8	163	105	327	6.13	3.81	2.45
S3	8	1	4	5	5	5	6	4	0	5	3	5	24	13	14	103	96	127	23.31	13.54	11.02
S4	1	0	2	5	4	2	3	4	5	3	2	3	12	10	12	112	105	235	10.71	9.52	5.11
Total	24	5	11	20	18	14	12	10	10	13	8	14	71	40	48	520	433	899	57.76	37.11	25.34
Mean	6	1.25	2.75	5	4.5	3.5	3	2.5	2.5	3.25	2	3.5	17.75	10	12	130	108.25	224.75	14.44	9.28	6.34

A general description of the data shows that the mean of the percentages of the linguistic errors in the first time of the task (T1) was 11.76% while in the second time of performing the same task, the mean of the percentages of the numbers of errors decreased to 9.26 %. In T2 the participants' written accuracy developed by a 5.16% mean gain. In the unpressured task (T3), the mean of the percentage of the number of errors continued to fall and reached 6.34 with a 2.94% gain in the mean (see table 4).

Table 4: Participants' overall error's percentage in the three tasks

	T1	T2	T3
S1	17.61	10.24	6.67
S2	6.13	3.81	2.45
S3	23.31	13.54	11.02
S4	10.71	9.52	5.11
Totals	57.76	37.11	25.34
Means	14.44	9.28	6.34
Gains in Mean	5.16	2.94	

6.2. Individual Analysis

A close examination of the individuals' language helps to show whether repeating the same task promoted students' written accuracy by investigating and comparing the changes in language production hiding behind the numbers of errors. The following section will analyze the performance of each participant separately.

6.2.1. Individual Analysis: S1'

Table 5: S1's overall profile in repeated (T1 & T2) and unpressured (T3) tasks

S1	Spelling	Punctuation	Semantics	Grammar	Total number of errors	Word count	Percentage of errors to word count
T1	7	6	3	5	25	142	17.61
T2	3	5	2	3	13	127	10.24
T3	4	4	3	3	14	210	6.67

S1's overall statistical profile (in table 5) shows that the total number of linguistic errors in the second enactment of the task decreased significantly. It also indicates that S1's performance was developed greatly in the unpressured task (T3). In spite of the overall development in L2 and L3, participant S1 produced a shorter text in T2 than in T1. It is also noticeable that there was a greater development in spelling than the other linguistic aspects. S1 committed a total number of 25 different linguistic errors with a percentage of 17.61% when he performed the task for the first time. In the second time of performing the same task, S1 committed only 13 linguistic errors with a percentage of 10.24%. In the unpressured task, S1 committed 14 different linguistic errors with a percentage of 6.67%.

6.2.2. Individual Analysis: S2

Table 6: S2's overall profile in repeated (T1 & T2) and unpressured (T3) tasks

S2	Spelling	Punctuation	Semantics	Grammar	Total number of errors	Word count	Percentage of errors to word count
T1	8	4	0	0	10	163	6.13
T2	1	3	0	0	4	105	3.81
T3	1	3	2	3	8	327	2.45

S2's overall profile describes his performance in the repeated tasks and the unpressured task (see table 6). It reflects an overall development in S2's written accuracy. S2 committed a total number of 10 different linguistic errors with a percentage of 6.13% when he performed the task for the first time. In the second time of performing the same task under the same conditions and procedures, S2 committed only 4 linguistic errors with a percentage of 3.81%. In the unpressured task, S1 committed 8 different linguistic errors with a percentage of 2.54%.

6.2.3. Individual Analysis: S3

Table 7: S3's overall profile in repeated (T1 & T2) and unpressured (T3) tasks

S3	Spelling	Punctuation	Semantics	Grammar	Total number of errors	Word count	Percentage of errors to word count
T1	8	5	6	5	24	103	23.31

T2	1	5	4	3	13	96	13.54
T3	4	5	0	5	14	127	11.02

S3's overall performance shows a general development in his written accuracy (see table 7). The results indicate that he committed a total number of 24 different linguistic errors with a percentage of 23.31% in T1. In T2, the errors decreased to only 13 linguistic errors with a percentage of 13.54%. In T3, there is a noticeable improvement as S3 committed 14 different linguistic errors with a percentage of 11.02%.

6.2.4. Individual Analysis: S4

Table 8: S4's overall profile in repeated (T1 & T2) and unpressured (T3) tasks

S4	Spelling	Punctuation	Semantics	Grammar	Total number of errors	Word count	Percentage of errors to word count
T1	1	5	3	3	12	112	10.71
T2	0	4	4	2	10	105	9.52
T3	2	2	5	3	12	235	5.11

S4's results (see table 8) reveal that linguistic errors declined in T2 and T3 if compared to T1. This decrease indicates an improvement in S4's written accuracy. S4 committed a total number of 12 different linguistic errors with a percentage of 10.71% when he performed the task for the first time. In the second time of performing the same task under the same conditions and procedures, S4 committed only 10 linguistic errors with a percentage of 9.52%. In the unpressured task, S4 committed 12 different linguistic errors with a percentage of 5.11%.

Chapter 7: Discussion

7.1. Answering the Research Questions

This section will address each research question respectively.

Research Question 1: **Does the "rehearsal" of an Integrated Strand Task (IST) develop L2 accuracy?**

To answer this question, in depth comparison and analysis of both the first time and the second time of performing the task was seen appropriate tool. The results in table 2 reveal an overall development in the participants' linguistic written accuracy when they repeated the same task. There was a difference by 5.16% decrease in the total number of linguistic errors which gives a significant proof that repeating the same task has a positive effect in developing L2 written accuracy. Thus, the first question could be answered by yes, task repetition develops L2 written accuracy.

Research Question 2: **Does the "unpressured within-task" planning of a rich task develop L2 accuracy?**

The results indicate that when the participants had ample time to write their tasks, they provided not only longer and detailed written texts, but also more accurate written production with fewer numbers of linguistic errors. The total linguistic errors in the unpressured task were 48 errors with a percentage of 25.25% compared to 71 errors with a percentage of 57.05% in the first time and 40 errors with a percentage of 37.02% in the second time. Thus, it could be argued that the "unpressured within-task planning" developed L2 written accuracy.

The results showed that both task repetition and unpressured within-task planning have positive effects in enhancing and improving linguistic written accuracy as the numbers and percentages of the linguistic errors decreased significantly when the same task was repeated and when the students had extended time to perform their tasks.

7.2. Discussion

The findings of this study are compatible with theoretical assumptions of task planning, cognitive theories that posit for the TBLT and SLA (e.g. the Noticing Hypothesis, the Cognitive Approach, the Limited Capacity Hypothesis, Limited Working Memory Capacity and Focus on Form, and Kellog's model of writing). The findings also support previous empirical findings of the effects of both task repetition (e.g. Birjandi & Ahangari; Bygate & Samuda 2005; Lynch and Maclean 2000; Bygate 2001, 1996; Gass et al. 1999; Plough & Gass 1993) and unpressured within-task planning (e.g. Rahimpou & Nariman-Jahan 2011; Ellis & Yuan 2005; Yuan and Ellis 2003; Bygate and Samuda 2005; Skehan & Foster 2004; Yuan 2001; Hayes & Gradwhole Nash 1996). Moreover, the findings of this study are consistent with the researcher's professional knowledge which comprises more than twelve years in teaching English as a second language.

The development in the students' written accuracy when they repeated the same task can be explained in the light of cognition models that relate to working memory, attention, and limited attentional capacity. In the first time of performing the task, the students are burdened with both communicative and cognitive demands. This means that they find themselves required to deliver a meaningful content (meaning) with the correct form (grammar). Yet, due to their limited attentional capacity, their attention is directed to focus either meaning or form. This is evident in the results summary table (see table1) which indicates that the students in their first writing committed more errors in spelling and punctuation than in grammar. This reveals that the students focused in conveying the content of their message even if they could not retrieve the correct spelling of certain words from their memories. In the second time of performing the same task, we find that the total number of errors decreased significantly because the students had a previous experience of the same task, thus in the second time, the students redirect their attentional resources to focus on the target like language and reduce the number of linguistic errors.

The findings of the positive effects of the unpressured within-task planning on accuracy are due to the given ample time to perform the task because the students felt no pressure and employed all their attentional and linguistic resources in their own time. This is also evident in the increased word count of the unpressured rich task and the significant increase in the written accuracy.

The development of written accuracy could be explained also in the light of the context of ECART. The decrease of the linguistic errors may be attributed to the rich input and class interaction that could have promoted the students' performance. Moreover, ECART as a version of the TBLT focuses on the output or the linguistic production especially writing which enhances students' attention and noticing of the new linguistic items and compare them with their inter language. As for the unpressured rich task, ECART requires the students to engage in a process of research on their chosen topic which is evident in the word count of the unpressured task. The process of the ECART provided opportunities for students to analyze and synthesize the new information.

The findings may be explained as benefits of employing rich tasks which are the basic units of the ECART. Rich tasks engage students in a process of inquiry that requires them to provide assessable outcome, and display mastery in students' performance by showing understanding, knowledge, and skills. ECART was designed to promote the learners thinking skills, and cognitive strategies to enable them to process information. In addition, it has the ability to promote students' personalities by engaging them in meaningful communicative tasks.

Chapter 8: Conclusion, Limitations and Recommendations

8.1. Conclusion

In summary, the objective of this study was to investigate the effects of two types of task-planning on the linguistic accuracy of L2 written production in the context of ADEC's version of TBLT which employs English Continuous Assessment Rich Tasks (ECART). The study investigated the most recent theoretical and empirical aspects of task planning, in respect to SLA, and TBLT. It approached how learners' attention to form and meaning can be manipulated through pre-task planning. In addition, the research probed into how students can benefit from both pre-task and unpressured within-task planning to promote the accuracy of their written production.

The findings provided evidence that task planning is an important variable that affects task performance and TBLT implementation. The study attempted to provide strong theoretical basis for task planning (for example; cognition, attention, limited capacity memory, and focus-on-form) in addition to considerable theories that posit for SLA and TBLT (for example; the input hypothesis, the output hypothesis, and the interaction hypothesis). The review of all these theories revealed that the study of task planning is so much related to the field of SLA. Moreover, this research pertain holds a pedagogical significance as both pre-task planning and unpressured within-task planning are variables that can be manipulated on practical basis inside classrooms.

The results showed that the participants' L2 written accuracy increased significantly when they repeated the same task for the second time. These findings proved that task repetition has positive effects on L2 written production. Moreover, the results of the unpressured tasks indicated that when the writers have ample time to perform their tasks, they perform better and produce more accurate writings with fewer linguistic errors. These findings are consistent with previous research (e.g. Birjandi & Ahangari; Bygate & Samuda 2005; Lynch and Maclean 2000; Bygate 2001, 1996; Gass et al. 1999; Plough & Gass 1993) on task repetition, and on unpressured within-task planning (e.g. Rahimpou & Nariman-Jahan 2011; Ellis & Yuan 2005; Yuan and Ellis 2003; Bygate and Samuda 2005; Skehan & Foster 2004; Yuan 2001; Hayes & Gradwhole Nash 1996).

ECART has proved that tasks could be effectively employed as a work plan to include what has been learnt and taught inside the classroom, and simultaneously as a process to enhance the acquisition of L2 and other cognitive and communicative skills. The process of the rich tasks motivates the students to depend on themselves and think critically to find suitable solutions for the problems they face. All the steps of the ECART are based on the latest theoretical assumptions of SLA. ECART provides rich input (the content points of both the 'listening', 'reading', and 'viewing' strands) and requires the students to provide comprehensive output (the content points of the 'writing', and 'talking' strands). All these activities are performed through student-student or student-teacher communication and interaction. Moreover, ECART caters for form by focusing on at least three linguistic forms in each trimester.

8.2. Limitations

Although the collected data provided results on the students' detailed linguistic performance, we need to be cautious about these findings, because the study was based on a limited number of participants of the same gender. In addition, in the literature, there are no unified measures that can be replicated to measure accuracy. ADEC documents provided holistic rubrics to assess the students' performance, though; there is no reference in any of ADEC's documents in how to measure the students' accuracy. Although, the measures of accuracy employed in this study are considered more reliable than other measures (see Polio 1996), there is a need for more standardized measures.

8.3. Recommendations

The recommendations and areas for future research are considered in the following sections.

8.3.1. Theoretical Recommendations

There are multiple cognitive models that account for the effects of planning. Most of the studies that investigated the effects of planning on oral production held account of Levelt's model. This study chose Kellog's model of writing to account for writing processes. Although, Kellog's model illustrates the processes of writing in light of working memory, there is a need to formulate a theory that explains the role of planning integrated with other factors such as individual difference, and task design.

8.3.2. Pedagogical Recommendations

a) Teaching materials

ADEC has provided a step-by-step framework to implement the curriculum, and provided 'Support Documents' to guide teachers to successfully do their jobs inside classrooms. Moreover, the curriculum illustrates the required types of texts and genres for each trimester, and how to utilize them pedagogically. The curriculum also sets different content points to be covered during the academic year. Yet, there are no teaching materials available for teachers in cycle two and cycle three, and teachers have to design their own materials. The task of designing the teaching materials creates a big burden on the shoulders of the teachers. For the future, it is recommended that ADEC recruits a special team who is qualified to design a variety of teaching materials. These materials should meet the different proficiency levels from which the classroom teachers can choose according to the level of their students and consider the students' individual differences in the same time. These teaching materials should be designed by the same team across all cycles to maintain consistency and achieve adequate construction. Otherwise materials from past years can be collected to build a sort of a material bank to be available for the choice of the teachers.

b) Teacher training

Although ADEC provides regular professional training programs for all teachers (for example Irtiqaa program), there should be special training programs for the teachers of English. These programs should focus on how to implement the ECART as most of teachers have not received any formal onsite or offsite training in regard to the implementation of ECART. These future training programs will support teaching practices and pedagogy by providing a comprehensive understanding of both the theory and pedagogy that stand behind ECART.

c) In class practices

For future pedagogical practices, teachers should provide more time for task planning inside the classroom. Providing opportunities for pre-task planning will enhance the accuracy of the students' linguistic production. Also, it will help remove the pressure on the students and provide them with self-confidence and positive attitude towards learning. In the meantime, teachers

should make sure that the students are making good use of the planning time. Each time the teacher provides linguistic assistance, students notice new linguistic items which they will employ in their tasks. The teacher's role, in providing pre-task vocabulary and even new forms that are needed for the task, will help the students to internalize the new input by employing them in their language production. Thus, pre-task planning will enhance the process of turning the input into uptake, develop noticing, and develop language performance by providing comprehensive output.

Because of the nature of the unpressured rich task, some students may copy other students' work, or ask other adults to do it for them outside classroom, or even buy some readymade tasks. To avoid such learning obstacles, ADEC should set strict penalties against plagiarism. Another recommendation is that to allocate more planning time for in class activities to avoid plagiarism. This can be achieved by encouraging students to bring their reading journal' and 'writing journals' into the classroom to do parts of their rich tasks under the teacher's supervision and guidance.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Participant' written production

S1 T1

S1 T1

Date: 4th - Feb - 2013:

1ST: compare and contrast (Tiger - Zebra)

most animals has a lot in commen, today i well talk about the Tiger and the zebra and his characteristics.

similarty:

firsit i well talk about simitarty, the tiger and zebra is live in the forest also this animals is very fast and has the same skin this skin is stripped also he is animal and drink water.

differences:

after the similartys i well talk now about the differwes, first i well talk about the zebra, the zebra is wild animel lives in the grabs and eat plants so it is herbivore it has black strippes, but the tiger use comouflage in the tall grasse to kill the animal and eat him so the tiger is killer and live in african jungles.

finally the tiger and the zebra is has the most in commen characteristics, and also theos animals is very nice and perfect and fast.

S1 T2

Hi, every one (my name is Dhey a I am in grade seven today

i well talk about the tiger and the zebra and his similarties and

diffrenses

Similarties :

The

tiger is and the lion is very fast and these two animals is

strong and they live in the wild also tall and big and

Hairy also they are mammals they live in africans jungle.

Differences:

The lion is predator and carnivore as well the zebra it's eat

grass The lion is brown but the zebra it has stripped

white and blacks stripped aswell the lion he is one

of the big cats on the world The lion is stronger than zebra.

the lion is very strong animal and can eat other animals because he

is a predator but the zebra cant do this because the zebra

eat grass.

S1 T3

today I talk two animals ~~and~~ I choose ~~the~~ The ~~tiger~~ Lion and the ~~elephant~~ Zebra and what I know about these two animals.

~~be~~ Before I do my ~~se~~ research I know about ~~be~~ The ~~tiger~~ Lion is very strong and ~~hunts~~ hunt ~~the~~ other ~~animal~~ animals because the Lion is predator (carnivore) ~~r~~ And I know about the Zebra is eat grass so The Zebra is herbivore and live in groups and cant Live alone ~~but the~~ aswell The Lion Live alone ~~r~~ I want to know why ~~the~~ The Zebra is Living with groups and cant Live ~~alone~~ alone and why The Lion Live alone ~~r~~ I want to ~~Kanow~~ know why ~~the~~ the Lion is carnivore and why The Zebra is herbivore (eat only grass) ~~but w~~ r And I want to know why the Lion and ~~the~~ The Zebre is ~~endang~~ endangered in The U.A.E. This two animals only in The Al-Ain (zoo park) why the lion and the zebra is live in afiran jungle and ~~not just park~~ reservation I Learnt in my search why they live in the ~~res~~ reservation

S1 T3 part 2

they live their to be safety becuse these two animals is ~~en~~ endangered, soo they live their becuse the other ~~people~~ people hunt him and I learn they are mammals and they are very speed than other animals in the reservation soo ~~the~~ they are the faster faster two animls ~~and~~ in the reservation.

S2 T1

many animals Have so many similarities But they also Have So many differences For this essay I chose the Horse and zebra.

similarities:

There are many similarities Between the horse and the zebra. The zebra has hooves the Horse has hooves too. they Both have Beautiful shapes on their skin. the horse is a herbivore the Zebra is also a herbivore. the both are Fast. they are also mammals and they really look alike.

Diferences:

Although they have Beautiful shapes on them the zebra is always striped But the horse has so many shapes. the zebra lives in the savana but the horse lives in a stable. we always see people riding horses but it is hard to see people riding zebras. although they have beautiful colors the horse has many colors as the Zebras always black and white. the zebra is not tall but on the other hand the horse is very large.

although they have many similarities they also have Some Differences which means that nothing is identical

S2 T2

Similarities:

The zebra has hooves and the horse has hooves too. The horse has long hair the zebra ~~has~~ also has long hair. the horse is a herbivore the zebra is also a herbivore. they both ~~are~~ have Beautiful colors. they also have four legs. They Both are vertabrates and of mammals. They are both very fast.

differences: ~~The zebra lives in the savana on the~~

The zebra lives in the savana on the other hand the horse lives in a stable. although they have beautiful colors the horse is colorful but the zebra is always black and white. there are many ~~shapes~~ shapes on his skin ~~.~~ But the zebra is always striped we can ride ~~horses~~ horses but we cant ~~ride~~ ride zebras

S2 T3 part 1

Abu Dhabi Educational Council

Grade 7 ECART Booklet

Student's Name: …….. Class: …….. eSIS No. ……

below and the pages that follow to write your rough draft. Remember to use your own words (Paraphrase).

Start Rough Draft Here:

Hi my name is [redacted] and today I am going to talk about the Horse and zebra. They both have too much differences but they also have too much similarities.

Differences'

they many differences between the horse and zebra like we can tam Horse but we can't tame a zebra and the horse many colours but the zebra is always black and white, the Horse can reach 65 Km ph on the other hand the zebra can only get to 40 km ph witch means that the Horse is faster than the zebra with 25 Km ph, the horse has so many shapes on its skin but the zebra is always striped, the horse lives in a stable but on the other hand the. the zebra has short hair, the horse has long hair, the zebra likes to eat grass, the horse like to eat hay, the horse is tamable but on the other hand the zebra is not tamable because they are usually very stury and nervous, the horse can carry heavy things but the zebra cant carry heavy thing, the Horse can survive more than the zebra without water

S2 T3 part 2

Abu Dhabi Educational Council

Similarities:

as I said there are so many differences between the horse and zebra but there are also so many similarities like the horse has hooves the zebra has hooves too, the horse and zebra are both classified as herbivores and they are both from the mammals, they both can run in long distances and they have beautiful shapes on their skins, the zebra and the horse have hairy skins, they both can't survive for a long time without drinking water, they both walks on four legs, the zebra and the horse both have long tails and they Both can't drink anything except for water, they both can't eat meat Because they are Herbivore.

Conclusion

in conclusion as I told you that these two animals have somany differences and at the same time they have so many similarities.

S3 T1 part 1

1st: compare and
contrast.
the Giraffe And Gorilla.

Introduction
the giraffe and gorilla is very
beautiful, because it have
a many colour, and the gorilla
and giraffe have in common.

similar.
the Giraffe is similar to Gorilla in
a mammal and it eat a
Plant, and Gorilla and giraffe

S3 T3 part 2

~~is~~ ~~are~~ From are a family.

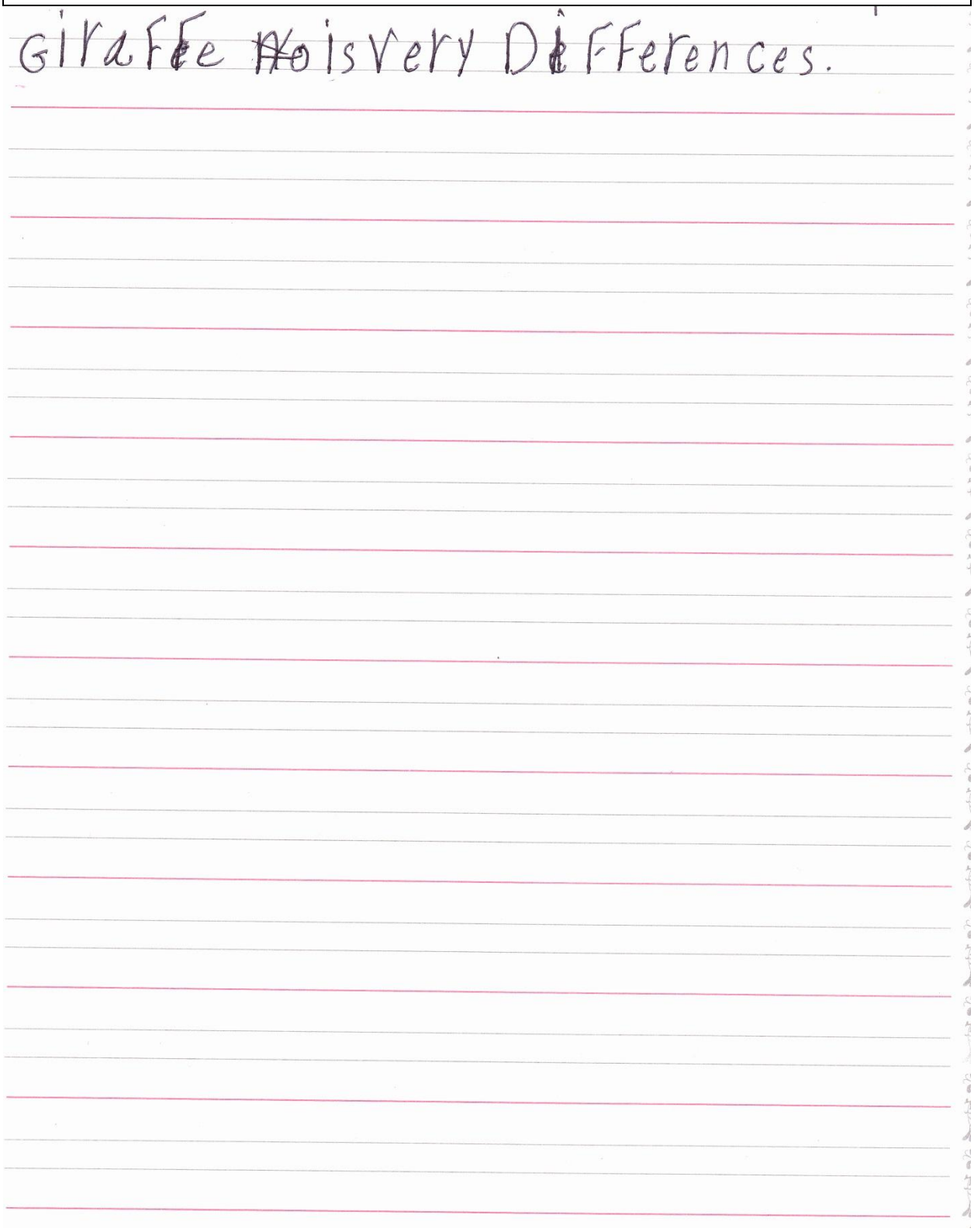
Differences.

the Gorillas ~~and giraff~~ have only two ~~l~~legs but the giraffes have ~~o~~4 legs. the Giraffes have a longe neck but the Gorilla not have longe neck.

conclusion

in the end I want toke a the ~~Bad~~ Giraffe and Gorilla and in thow ~~in~~ ~~F~~of ~~f~~e the Deiferences and similarty, the Gorilla and

S3 T3 part 3



S3 T2 part 1

comparation

giraffe and gorillas

All animals are similar despite the differences there are similar things where other animals and not.

giraffe of mamels and herbivore as well as gorillas and human giraffe is a risk as well as gorillas giraffe not raised in

S3 T2 part 2

the house and also gorillas.

Length of the giraffe is from 4 to 6 meters. For along neck giraffe the gorillas do not have a longe neck. GIRAFF weighs From 550 to 1930 kg and the Wight of the gorillas From 100 to 200 kg.

in the end, I hope that you will be benefited From this subject

S3 T3 part 1

S3 T3 part1

~~topic~~: giraffes and gorillas

~~wa~~what did you know?

1. giraffes and gorillas ~~it~~ are herbivores
2. giraffes and gorillas are live in African
3. giraffes and gorillas are mammals.

I want to ~~k~~know?

1. does giraffes and Gorillas ~~is~~ are amphibins
2. were live gorillas and ~~gorillas~~ giraffes ~~are~~ in African.

My search findings showed that?

S3 T3 part 3

Gorillas are 1.7 m.

in the end I hope that you will be benefited from this topic

S4 T1 part 1

~~Hello My name is Abdulla In~~ most animals have a lot similarities and differences.

Similarities:
Both are animals. The lion stand on 4 legs and the giraffe too. The giraffe lire in the wild and the lion as well. The lion is a mammal also the giraffe.

Differences:
The lion is a carnivore, but the giraffe is a herbivore.
The giraffe walk Howerer, the lion run very fast. The lion is a strong animal In contrast, the giraffe is a weak animal.
The lion is a predator By, contrast, the giraffe is prey.
The giraffe has long neck, yet the lion has not.

conclusion:
In conclusion both animals have so much similarities and differences. No animals only have similarities in this world. Both animals have as peciels things like the lion because the lion ran very fast and the giraffe has the longest neck

S4 T1 part 2

of all animals. The lion can run a long distances ~~with~~ without getting tired

S4 T2

Thursday
28Th-Feb-2013

Introduction:

I want to talk about the lion and the giraffe, they have similarities and differences.

similarities:
Both are animals. The lion stand on 4 legs and the giraffe too. The giraffe live in the wild and the lion as well. The lion are ~~mammals~~ mammals also the giraffe are mammals.

Differences:
The lion is strong but the giraffe is weak. the giraffe is herbivore however the lion is a carnivore. The giraffe has long neck yet the lion has not. The giraffe has long legs although the lion has not. The lion run very fast in contrast the giraffe just walk.

Conclusion:
In conclusion both animals have so much similarities and differences and no animal can have no ~~similarity~~ similarities.

S4 T3 part 1

The lion

The lion is very dangrouse and its predator animals.

The lion eats meat and other animals. and they are so much companies That protect The lion. the lion male male weight exceeding 250kg. the lion Brun very fast. The lion is a carnivore animal.

S4 T3 part 2

The lion are mammals. They are the rare white lion are protected by the whitelion Protection When This company find any white lion it not killing him they put him in a natural habitat or Park or they put a "GPS" on him to they can locate him because this company need to find this

S4 T3 part 3

rare white lion. The lion can run for a long distances. The lion skin it hairy. The lion has sharp teeth. The lion can eats one prey or more. But one prey will work for him. The lion some times attack the humans but allmes it hunt other animals. The lion moves quitly so, it can slightly hear the other animals. The lion is.

S4 T3 part 4

an animal it can stand on 4 legs.

The lion can feels heat when it

run very fast to a long distances.

Now we learned to a lot

of things about the lion. But

this animal has as a lot of spectal

things like: run very fast, has

very sharp claws, has very

sharp teeths. No animal don't

S4 T3 part 5

has similarities. by the way I

Knew this information befor i searched.

Appendix B:
Data collection tool (Based on Zhang, 1987: 473)

Number of errors per 100 words								
Participants	Tasks	Spelling	Punctuation	Semantics	Grammar	Total	Word Count	%
S1	T1							
	T2							
	T3							
S2	T1							
	T2							
	T3							
S3	T1							
	T2							
	T3							
S4	T1							
	T2							
	T3							

Appendix C
i. Error guidelines (from Polio, 1997: 138-141)

a. Don't count spelling errors (including word changes like "their"/there").
b. Be conservative with about counting comma errors: don't count missing commas between clauses or after prepositional phrases. Comma errors related to restrictive/non-restrictive relative clauses should be counted. Extraneous commas should be also considered errors.
c. Base tense/reference errors on preceding discourse: do not look at the sentence in isolation.
d. Don't count British usage as errors, (e.g. "in hospital," "at university,", "collective nouns as plural).
e. Be lenient about article errors from translations of proper nouns.
f. Don't count errors in capitalization.
g. Count errors that could be made by native speakers (e.g. between you and I).
h. Do not count register errors related to lexical choices (e.g. lots, kids).
i. Disregard an unfinished sentence at the end of the essay.

ii. Word count

a. Count contractions as one word whether correct or not.

b. Count numbers as one word.
c. Count proper nouns in English and other languages as they are written.
d. Do not count hyphenated words as single words. (e.g. well-written = 2 words).
e. Do not include essay titles in word count.
f. Count words as they are written, even if they are incorrect. (e.g. a lot = 1 word)