The effectiveness of task-based instruction on third-year secondary students' English speaking performance

فعالية التدريس القائم على المهمة في تطوير أداء التحدث باللغة الانجليزية لطلاب المرحلة الثالثة بالتعليم الثانوي

by

HAYTHAM MORSHED ELSAYED ABDALLA BADR

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN EDUCATION
at
The British University in Dubai

June 2022

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ABSTRACT

This study intended to investigate the impact of task-based instruction (TBI) as a communicative teaching strategy on secondary students' oral production of more fluent, lexically sophisticated, lexically diverse and syntactically complex language as well as exploring teachers' perceptions and opinions towards the possibility of effective and successful use of this strategy to improve secondary students' speaking abilities in the Egyptian classroom context. The underlying hypothesis was the ability of TBI to bring about the necessary outcome in terms of fluency, lexical sophistication, lexical diversity and syntactic complexity as a result of the communicative environment created and the mental process enhanced by TBI.

The mixed-methods research approach was embraced to glean the research data from two different samples using two main research tools: pre-post tests to collect the quantitative data and semi-structured interviews to gather the qualitative data. Five other research tools were utilized in the current research including an Oxford quick placement test to ensure the homogeneity of the research sample in terms of language proficiency level prior to the experiment and four automatic computer-based tools (Praat, TAALES, TAALED and L2SCA) to accurately and objectively score and assess students' oral performance on four fluency measures, three lexical sophistication measures, three lexical diversity measures and four syntactic complexity measures. The quantitative data was deductively collected from ninety two second language students equally and randomly divided into two intact groups, while the qualitative data was inductively gleaned from eight language teachers.

The results from the quantitative data exhibited the positive impact of TBI on students' speaking performance for some of the measures examined, despite the short treatment period which lasted for eleven weeks. Moreover, the results from the qualitative data revealed the conflicting beliefs of teachers towards TBI; namely, the ability of TBI to improve secondary students' speaking skills but with some challenges against its implementation in the Egyptian classroom settings. Based on these results, some pedagogical implications were provided to be considered by language teachers, syllabus designers, administrative officials and researchers in the second language acquisition (SLA) domain and some other recommendations for future potential readers and researchers were made.

ملخص الدراسة

هدفت هذه الدراسة إلى استقصاء أثر استخدام استرتيجية التدريس القائم على المهمة كأحد استراتيجيات النهج التواصلي في تحسين قدرة طلاب المرحلة الثانوية على تحدث اللغة الثانية من حيث الطلاقة اللغوية وتطور وتنوع المفردات والتعقيد النحوي، كما هدفت كذلك إلى استكشاف تصور وآراء المعلمين من امكانية استخدام هذه الاستراتيجية بشكل فعال وناجح في تحسين قدرات التحدث عند الطلاب في الفصول الدراسية في مصر. ونصت فرضية البحث على قدرة هذه الاستراتيجية على احداث الأثر المطلوب من حيث الطلاقة اللغوية وتطور وتنوع المفردات والتعقيد النحوي كنتيجة للبيئة التواصلية التي تم انشاؤها والعمليات العقلية التي تم تعزيزها من خلال هذه الاستراتيجية.

اعتمد الباحث منهاج البحث المختلط في جمع بيانات البحث من عينتين مختلفتين باستخدام اثنتين من أدوات البحث الرئيسية وهما الاختبارات القبلية والبعدية بغرض جمع البيانات الكمية والمقابلات شبه المنظمة بغرض جمع البيانات النوعية. كما قام الباحث باستخدام خمس أدوات بحثية أخرى في البحث الحالي وهي اختبار تحديد مستوى سريع من جامعة اكسفورد للتأكد من تماثل عينة البحث من حيث مستوى الكفاءة اللغوية قبل التجربة وأربعة برامج آلية أخرى وهي (Praat، TAALES، TAALED، L2SCA) من أجل تقييم أداء التحدث عند الطلاب بكل دقة وموضوعية مستخدمين في ذلك أربعة مقاييس لقياس الطلاقة اللغوية وثلاثة مقاييس لقياس تطور المفردات وثلاثة مقاييس لقياس تنوع المفردات وأربعة مقاييس لقياس التعقيد النحوي. وقام الباحث بجمع البيانات الكمية بشكل استنتاجي من عدد اثنان وتسعون طالباً تم تقسيمهم بشكل متساوي وعشوائي على مجموعتين، كما قام بجمع البيانات النوعية بشكل استقرائي من عدد ثمانية معلمين.

أظهرت نتائج تحليل البيانات الكمية التأثير الايجابي لاستراتيجية التدريس القائم على المهمة في تطوير أداء التحدث عند الطلاب في بعض المقاييس المستخدمة وذلك على الرغم من قصر فترة التجربة والتي استمرت لإحدى عشر أسبوعاً. كما أظهرت نتائج تحليل البيانات النوعية موقف المعلمين المتضارب تجاه تطبيق هذه الاستراتيجية حيث أنهم أشاروا إلى قدرة هذه الاستراتيجية على تحسين مهارة التحدث عند الطلاب ولكنهم أعربوا في نفس الوقت عن صعوبة تطبيقها نظرا للتحديات التي تواجه تطبيقها في الفصول الدراسية المصرية. وبناء على نتائج هذه الدراسة، تمت مناقشة بعض التبعات التربوية التي ينبغي مراعاتها من قبل كلا من معلمي اللغة ومصممي المناهج والمسؤولين الاداريين والباحثين في مجال اكتساب اللغة الثانية، وقدمت كذلك مجموعة من التوصيات لكلا من القراء والباحثين المحتملين المستقبليين في هذا المجال.

DEDICATION

(To my family)

To the souls of my grandfathers and grandmothers from both sides, to my father and mother, to my wife and the three little children, to my brother and sisters and to my uncles and aunts

For their love, advice, care and support

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

First and above all, praise be to Allah (Glory to him) for the myriad blessings, which include giving me the patience, tolerance and energy to finish this nail-biting and nerve-racking work, to name only a few. Moreover, I owe a great deal to my supervisor, Dr. Emad A. S. Abu-Ayyash, for his ceaseless and limitless support in addition to his advice, kindness, cooperation and patience throughout the thesis phases and through the module stage of my Ph.D. journey. I thank him for saving no time and effort to provide me with the necessary guidelines and constructive feedback on how to appropriately work on each chapter of the thesis. Indeed, I have to admit that his energy and cooperation have set a good example to be followed during my academic and professional life. I am also indebted to the BUiD faculty members, particularly Prof. Sufian Forawi, Prof. Abdulai Abukari, Dr. Solomon David and Dr. Christopher Hill, for their thoughts and ideas which enriched my knowledge, broadened my horizons and enlarged my understanding of new ways to carry out this research. Furthermore, my deep gratitude goes to all BUiD administrative staff, particularly Christine Salvador, for their positive and cooperative attitudes towards all my administrative issues. Lastly, I am grateful to my two friends Mahmoud Mohamed Elmahdy and Tamer Ahmed Taimour for their chivalrous and noble stances and manners during the turbulent times I have been through while working on my thesis, to the principal and other official representatives of the research site who welcomed me and opened the door before me to conduct the research, and of course, to the research participants who tolerated my presence throughout the implementation stage of my thesis.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

3Ps	Presentation-Practice-Production
ACTFL	American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages
ACTFL OPI	Oral Proficiency Interview of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages
ANCOVA	Analysis of Covariance
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
BNC	British National Corpus
BUiD	British University in Dubai
CAF	Complexity, Accuracy and Fluency
CAPMAS	Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics
CBI	Content-Based Instruction
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for languages
CLL	Cooperative Language Learning
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
COCA	Corpus of Contemporary American English
COVID-19	Coronavirus pandemic
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EIA	English in Action
ESL	English as a Second Language
EU	European Union
FSI	Foreign Service Institute
GTM	Grammar-Translation Method
GUI	Graphical User Interface
ICNALE	International Corpus Network of Asian Learners of English
IELTS	International English Language Testing System
ILR	Interagency Language Roundtable scale
lmerTest	Tests in Linear Mixed Effects Models
IRF	Initiative/ Response/ Feedback structure
L2	Second Language
L2SCA	Second Language Syntactic Complexity Analyzer
LFP	Lexical Frequency Profiles
LLBA	Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts
MANOVA	Multivariate Analysis of Variance
MLA	Modern Language Association
MoE	Ministry of Education
OPI	Oral Proficiency Interview
OQPT	Oxford Quick Placement Test
PET	Cambridge English: Preliminary Test
PTEA	Pearson Test of English Academic
SI	Subordination Index

SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SOPI	Simulated Oral Proficiency Interviews
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
TAALED	Tool for the Automatic Analysis of Lexical Diversity
TAALES	Tool for the Automatic Analysis of Lexical Sophistication
TBI	Task-Based Instruction
TBLT	Task-Based Language Teaching
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
TOEFL iBT	Test of English as a Foreign Language internet Based Test
TOEIC	Test of English for International Communication
TSLT	Task-Supported Language Teaching
UK	United Kingdom
UR	University of Reading
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WB	World Bank
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

LIST OF APPENDICES

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

Over the last three decades and with the rapid development of information and communication technology, the whole world became a small village, a matter which necessitated the need for a common *lingua franca* to facilitate intercultural and interpersonal communication among its individuals, and the English language came to surface as the most common spoken language to serve this goal (e.g., Crystal 2017; Hismanoglu & Hismanoglu 2013; Rao 2019). In view of this, Reddy (2016) asserted that English is the language of business, education, employment, information, media and entertainment, international relations and official communications.

Reddy (2016) also averred that, having no competency in English, an individual is deemed unsuccessful in his/ her life, for seeing English language competency as the passport for success and a precursor to a higher socio-economic class. The result as argued by a host of researchers was that many individuals around the world started to learn the English language in general and how to be native-like speakers of English in particular to be able to engage in comprehensible, meaningful and useful conversations with the world around them (e.g., Balla 2016; Leung & Scarino 2016; McIlwraith & Fortune 2016).

Recognizing its importance in facilitating communication between or among individuals from different nationalities and in improving individuals' socioeconomic status, scholars and researchers in the field of second language (L2) acquisition started to look for effective communicative approaches to L2 teaching that focus primarily on developing students' speaking skills to enable them to properly and effectively engage with others in authentic, meaningful and

spontaneous communication on different topics and for different purposes (e.g., Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei & Thurrell 1997; Ellis 2015; Matamoros-González 2017; Saville-Troike 2006). Together, they believed that the focus in L2 classrooms on communicative language teaching approaches is the most appropriate way to improve students' proficiency level in the four basic language skills in general and the speaking language skill in particular.

Among all effective and recent communicative approaches to L2 teaching, literature showed that the task-based instruction (TBI) approach can effectively be used in the classroom to achieve students' various second language goals and particularly the improvement of students' speaking goals through the organization of language teaching around different communicative activities (e.g., Afifah & Devana 2020; Ahmad 2020; Akalu 2020; Alikahi & Kiany 2021; Anjum, Kayani & Jumani 2019; Aref & Mojavezi 2019; Belda-Medina 2021; Bryfonski & McKay 2019; Bygate 2016; Cai & Lv 2019; Chen & Zhang 2015; Darrashiri & Mazdayasna 2021; East 2021; Ellis et al. 2020; Kirkgöz 2011; Liu & Yao 2019; Lou, Chen & Chen 2016; Medina Fernández 2021; Mulyadi et al. 2021; Namaziandost, Hashemifardnia & Shafiee 2019; Newton & Kennedy 1996; Nychkalo et al. 2020; Ortiz-Neira 2019; Richards & Rodgers 2015; Sukma, Rozimela & Ratmanida 2020; Vercellotti 2017; Wang 2019; Willis 1996; Willis & Willis 2001; Xuyen &ng 2021).

According to Richards and Rodgers (2015), TBI is one of communicative approaches to language teaching which focuses on asking students to complete communicative tasks that are meaningful and authentic using the target language. The present chapter provides a background of the origin of TBI, elaborates on the educational context of the present study, discusses the current research problem, spells out its purpose, articulates its questions and states its

hypotheses. It also expounds why this study is significant and ends with an overview of its organization.

1.2. Background of the Study

Since the 1970s, the field of second language teaching has witnessed a considerable shift in the way language was instructed from the emphasis on language forms to providing students with authentic opportunities to communicate using the target language through two leading theories: Hymes's (1972) theory of communicative competence and Krashen's (1982) theory of L2 acquisition (Brown 2000). Hymes's (1972) theory was a reaction to Chomsky's (1965) distinction between competence (learners' acceptable knowledge of language) and performance (the actual use of language in authentic situations). Chomsky (1965) used the notion of purely linguistic competence as a theoretical framework for language teaching, learning and testing, a notion which received a strong disapproval by exponents of the communicative view of language and language learning and which eventually led to the emergence of Hymes's (1972) theory of communicative competence (Bagarić 2007).

Hymes (1972) propounded that during the course of L2 acquisition, learners acquire some grammatical knowledge; such as phonology, morphology and syntax, in addition to a set of social knowledge about when and how to appropriately use some language patterns in a specific context. The ability of learners to acquire both grammatical and social knowledge was called communicative competence (Hymes 1972). This concept was further defined by Brown (2000, p. 246) as the ability of students to "convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meanings interpersonally within specific contexts". Simply put, the communicative competence

theory placed a premium on the abilities of speakers to speak grammatically correct and socially acceptable language. To encapsulate this, Hymes (1972) incorporated the sociolinguistic aspect into Chomsky's view of linguistic competence by insisting on the need not only to have grammatical competence but also to use it in various communicative situations.

On the other hand, Krashen's (1982) theory of L2 acquisition was a reaction to the audio-lingual L2 teaching method which reached its peak in the 1960s when applied to teaching English as a first language to the American students and as a foreign language to speakers of other languages. This theory remained the mainstream approach in the United States until the early 1980s (Richards & Rodgers 2015). The audio-lingual method defined language as a set of some structural forms and sentence patterns and called for developing the speaking and listening skills before the reading and writing skills as essential to enhance effective language learning. Not only this, it also claimed that language learning transpires through repetition and other habit-formation practices. However, despite its contribution to our understanding of how language was learned, the audio-lingual teaching method started to decline with the escalating criticism to its theoretical and practical foundations.

Theoretically, the audio-lingual method was attacked by Chomsky (1966) and later by Allwright and Bailey (2010) among others for viewing language as just a rigid system containing some structurally-related elements; such as words, sentences, structures, morphemes and phonemes, and these elements, according to them, are not enough to enable students to encode meanings. Practically, it was criticized by an abundant number of researchers, scholars and theoreticians in the second language acquisition (SLA) domain for its inapplicability outside the classroom in real communicative situations (e.g., Cook 2017; Richards & Rodgers 2015; Willis 2004). The harsh criticism to the audio-lingual L2 teaching method eventually led to the

emergence of Krashen's (1982) theory of L2 acquisition in which the focus on instruction shifted from language form to language meaning. The theory of L2 acquisition was fixated on exposing students to much more comprehensible language input, reducing students' anxiety and placing little or no importance on practice, error correction and conscious learning of language structure.

Nevertheless, despite their emphasis on communication, the two theories by Hymes and Krashen were discredited by a host of scholars and researchers in the L2 acquisition domain as being insufficient in enabling students to capitalize on their linguistic knowledge both competently and communicatively, a matter which led to the emergence of communicative language teaching (CLT) paradigm (Richards 2002). For Richards (2002), the CLT paradigm came to operationalize the communicative competence concept and apply it across the three main language syllabus design levels: the theory level, the syllabus design level and the teaching strategies level. Moreover, according to Munby (2004), this new proposed paradigm recognized the close nexus between communication and L2 learning and the importance of speaking in enhancing students' language learning.

In advocating this new view towards language and language learning, several scholars and researchers (e.g., Lightbown & Spada 2018; Nunan 2004; Van den Branden 2006) argued that language is more than a set of structurally-related elements accompanied with some vocabularies, and these elements, according to them, are not enough per se to develop students' linguistic competency. They maintained that students need to practice communication through teacher-student and student-student interaction in the classroom as crucial to develop their competency, describing this practice as a dynamic source for encoding meanings. Moreover, they added that the CLT paradigm does not neglect the importance of learning grammar, but it

emphasizes the superiority of productive language skills over receptive language skills during the language teaching and learning process.

As a consequence, the CLT paradigm has extensively been utilized in the classroom to develop the four main language skills (speaking, writing, reading and listening) through various classroom activities but with much more focus on the speaking and writing skills to enhance students' abilities to communicate properly and effectively using the target language. To recapitulate the two main fundamentals of the CLT paradigm; firstly, it accentuates the rich production of language through teacher-student and student-student interaction using authentic classroom activities related to real-life situations, fulfilling the main function of language; the communicative function of language. Secondly, it emphasizes the minimal explicit teaching of grammar and the maximal teaching of communicative speaking and writing skills.

Given the usefulness of the CLT paradigm, many approaches to L2 teaching have accrued from it to encompass the cooperative language learning (CLL) approach, the content-based instruction (CBI) approach and the TBI approach (Richards & Rodgers 2015). The TBI approach was introduced as one of the most effective and most contemporary communicative approaches to L2 teaching with its origin dating back to the early 1990s. It was also maintained that, the TBI approach has preferably been employed in the classroom to tackle the issues associated with both language meaning and language form.

TBI was defined by Ellis (2018) as an extension of the CLT paradigm which called for the active involvement of learners through learning by doing, in contrast to the traditional teaching methods in which teachers were the center of knowledge and learners were passive players during the language learning process. Ellis (2018) added that the TBI approach was distinct from all other communicative approaches to L2 teaching in that it yielded students with

authentic environments through different communicative tasks to enhance their interaction and then learning. Brown and Lee (2015) added that the TBI approach put the accent on interaction as a medium for language use and for achieving an outcome. According to Willis (1996, p. 53), TBI is "a goal-oriented activity in which learners use language to achieve a real outcome … learners use whatever target language resources they have in order to solve a problem, do a puzzle, play a game, or share and compare experiences". Willis (2004) added that TBI can creatively be utilized in the classroom with different types of curricula to achieve different purposes, and therefore, it is usually typified as a teaching approach not a teaching method.

Another significant division of the CLT paradigm was provided by Howatt (1984, p. 279) who identified two main versions of the CLT paradigm; the weak version and the strong version, and whose distinction of these two versions was quoted as follows:

> There is, in a sense, a 'strong' version of the communicative approach and a 'weak' version. The weak version which has become more or less standard practice in the last ten years, stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes and, characteristically, attempts to integrate such activities into a wider program of language teaching.... The 'strong' version of communicative teaching, on the other hand, advances the claim that language is acquired through communication, so that it is not merely a question of activating an existing but inert knowledge of the language, but of stimulating the development of the language system itself. If the former could be described as 'learning to use' English, the latter entails 'using English to learn it.

Agreeing with this distinction, several scholars and researchers in the field of L2 acquisition (e.g., Ellis 2003; Skehan 1996; Wesche & Skehan 2002; Zhao 2011) maintain that the distinction between the weak and strong versions of CLT parallels the distinction between the task-supported language teaching (TSLT) and the task-based instruction (TBI). According to Zhao (2011), despite having the same objectives, each version has its own assumptions towards L2 learning. That is, the weak version assumes that students' ability to communicate effectively

is highly contingent on the ability of teachers to systematically teach the components of communicative competence while the strong version presupposes that students' communicative competence is basically developed through communication. Additionally, according to Ellis (2003), the tasks in the weak version are necessary to provide a communicative environment to practice the language items already presented in a more traditional way but they are not enough for language learning and are not sufficient for language syllabus design while the tasks in the strong version are the core unit of teaching, and they are enough for language learning and sufficient for language syllabus design.

It should be noted that Ellis (2003) warns against the use of TSLT and the presentation-practice-production (3Ps) strategy interchangeably as many researchers may do. For Ellis (2003), the teaching process in TSLT can start with the production stage and the tasks in this case can play a diagnostic role, while the teaching process in 3Ps has to follow the "presentation-practice-production" sequence. Adding further explanation to the difference between the two teaching strategies employed in the current study (TBI and 3Ps), literature shows that they primarily differ in two ways: the order of focus on both form and meaning and the pedagogical goals. Firstly, according to Willis (1996), the focus on form comes before the focus on meaning during the 3Ps cycle while the order is reversed during the TBI cycle. With regard to the second point of differentiation, Willis (1996) avers that the goal of language learning and teaching in the 3Ps strategy is directed towards developing language accuracy through some explicit instruction, and out of accuracy comes fluency, implying a great deal of language control by language teachers to develop students' language learning. On the other hand, TBI is basically designed to develop language fluency through social interaction, and out of fluency comes accuracy, indicating the great role played by language learners in language

learning process. The researcher of this study intends to investigate TBI through a quasi-experimental research design using two groups with one assigned TBI and the other employed 3Ps to know its impact on students' speaking performance in the context of the current study.

1.3. The Educational Context of the Study

1.3.1. Teaching English as a Second Language in Egypt

English was considered a key element among Egyptians who searched for better social and economic status, those who sought to obtain better jobs at reputable companies or institutions with decent salaries whether inside or outside the country, and those who wanted to catch up with the rapid change in various sectors of science and knowledge, and hence, it was considered substantial for the welfare and prosperity of the Egyptian individuals (e.g., Burns & Richards 2009; Euromonitor 2012; Schaub 2000). In like manner, English has been deemed the corner stone of any economic development by the Egyptian successive governments for its significance in facilitating access to the latest findings of science as revealed by international conferences and other scientific publications, as they all have been using English as the main source of providing information whether in the spoken or written forms (Kozma 2005).

For the above reasons, and with the inception of the reform movement in the field of education in Egypt in the 1970s, tremendous efforts were exerted by the Egyptian Ministry of Education (MoE) in collaboration with different international agencies; such as European Union (EU), United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and World Bank (WB), to improve the qualifications and skills of English language teachers in Egypt and raise their efficacy through specialized training by specialists in the field of L2 teaching and learning

(Darwish 2016). Darwish continued to say that, these efforts also aimed to review the existing English textbooks by qualified syllabus designers and developers. The broader goal of these attempts was to enhance students' abilities in the four language skills in general and the communicative language skills in particular to create a new generation of young individuals capable of dealing with life's challenges and serving the Egyptian community (Darwish 2016).

Thus, with the widespread calls for the use of communicative approaches to second language teaching in the classroom to improve the Egyptian students' speaking abilities, the CLT paradigm in general and particularly the weak version of CLT was deemed the best alternative by MoE to replace the old and long-lasting approaches, particularly the traditional grammar-translation approach (Ibrahim & Ibrahim 2017). In this context, MoE (2005-2006) argued that, English should be treated as the first foreign language in Egypt, and its application in the classroom should be directed towards teaching students how to effectively communicate using English in various situations and for different reasons. Moreover, according to MoE (1994, 2000) and McIlwraith and Fortune (2016), the aim of studying English as a second language in Egypt was to (1) help students use English effectively in various communicative situations, (2) develop students' awareness of the nature of language and language learning, and (3) help students gain the skills essential for their future academic or professional careers. Furthermore, teachers' roles during English language teaching and learning were quoted from MoE (2000, p. 12) as follows:

> In order to help your students become 'learners', you have a varied role: to plan and manage the class; to be knowledgeable about what you are teaching and to provide a good model for pronunciation; to guide your students in the process of learning, helping them to think for themselves; to be ready to help with problems. In a communicative classroom, the aim is active involvement, interaction of teacher with students, and of students with students, where language is used, and where real learning can take place. ….. your role is to help your students to take

responsibility for assessing their own weaknesses and to ask for more practice or remedial help when they need it.

1.3.2. Structure of the Pre-University Education in Egypt

According to McIlwraith and Fortune (2016), there are two parallel structures for the pre-university governmental educational system in Egypt; Al-Azhar religious structure, which is administered by the Ministry of Al-Azhar Affairs, and the non-religious secular structure, which is similar in structure to Al-Azhar religious structure but with less emphasis on Islamic studies and run by MoE. Education in both structures is free for all children, boys and girls, from the age of six until they finish the secondary school educational level. Both educational structures are similar in that the primary school level starts at the age of six and lasts for six years, preceded by a two-year independent educational level; the kindergarten level, and followed by a three-year preparatory school level and another three years of secondary school level. The only difference between the two structures is that, based on students' interests and performance in the final examinations at the end of the preparatory school level, students who follow the non-religious secular structure can join one of four sub-groups; general secondary level, commercial secondary level, technical secondary level and agricultural secondary level, while those who follow the religious structure can join either the science section or the arts section.

Furthermore, according to McIlwraith and Fortune (2016), there is also a parallel education for the above two structure called the private education, which is also supervised by MoE and follows the same structure as the secular structure, but this type of education is not free and demands high tuition fees. They continue to say that there are five categories of private schools; (1) the international schools which offer qualifications such as the international baccalaureate and the American high school diploma, (2) the language schools which focus on

teaching school curricula in English, (3) the religious schools; such as the Islamic and Catholic schools, which focus primarily on teaching religious studies, (4) the national schools which are part of the governmental education system but with high tuition fees, and (5) the ordinary schools which are similar to the governmental schools both in supervision and in curricula but they charge fees. A full picture of the education system in Egypt, including ages of students and number of years for each school level, is illustrated in Figure (1).

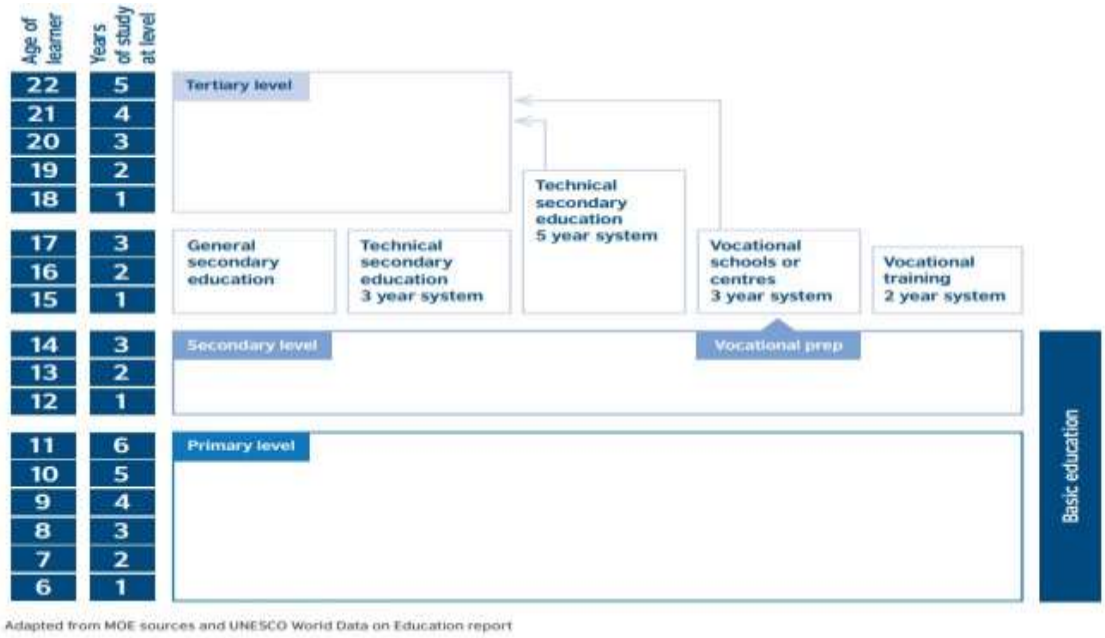

Figure 1: Structure & Organization of the Education System in Egypt

(McIlwraith & Fortune 2016, p. 22)

1.4. Statement of the Problem

According to Leung and Scarino (2016), learning a foreign language is an intricate task as it requires adopting approaches to second language teaching that take into account the diversity of language learning goals. Unfortunately, most of the developing countries, including Egypt, still

use the traditional approaches to second language teaching which proved ineffective in covering the diversity of students' language learning goals including the language communicative competency goal, leading to students' weaknesses in communicating effectively using the intended language. For instance, the results from several studies conducted in the same or similar contexts, cultures and conditions showed that the process of language teaching and learning was teacher-centered, and the traditional grammar-translation method was the dominant teaching style at all general educational levels such as the studies carried out by Fairley and Fathelbab (2011) and Ibrahim and Ibrahim (2017) in Egypt, Abdullah (2015) in Iraq, Coskun (2011) in Turkey, Wyatt (2009) in Sultanate of Oman, Asassfeh et al. (2012) in Jordan, Al-Sohbani (2013) and Bataineh, Bataineh and Thabet (2011) in Yemen, Abukhattala (2016) in Libya in addition to the two studies by Alsowat (2016) and Farooq (2015) in Saudi Arabia. Taken together, these studies concluded that, the adoption of the old teaching style, which emphasized vocabulary memorization, text translation, grammar teaching, much use of native language and minimum use of the target language during the speaking sessions, has resulted in a weakness in students' speaking abilities.

Speaking more specifically about the context of our study, although the development of students' speaking abilities has been considered one of the main goals of the Egyptian Ministry of Education (2014-2030) national strategic plan that sought to increase students' confidence in communicating effectively using English as a communicative tool in order to create a generation playing an active role in the global community and economy (MoE 2014, cited in McIlwraith & Fortune 2016), students still suffer a weakness in communicating properly using English as a second language (e.g., Abdel Latif 2018; El-Fiki 2012; Fairley & Fathelbab 2011; Ibrahim & Ibrahim 2017). This weakness was ascribed by these studies to a number of reasons including

the traditional teaching strategies used by language teachers in their speaking classes, teachers' ill-qualifications, students' low-proficiency levels, teachers and students' lack of motivation, inadequate instructional materials and other environmental-related issues. They also indicated that teachers' unfamiliarity with the new communicative teaching approaches and how to apply them in the classroom setting was a crucial factor for teachers' reluctance to implement them in the Egyptian classroom context.

In view of the researcher's experience as an English teacher for students at different educational levels in Egypt, language teachers were regarded as the main source of information while students' role was confined to receiving the new language knowledge. Moreover, students were rarely offered opportunities to practice the target language, and even when they were given such opportunities; mostly using the question-answer technique, their answers were usually short, incomplete and/ or improper, showing their lack of speaking abilities. Thus, the researcher thought that, enhancing students' speaking skills in Egypt would be a far-fetched goal unless new effective approaches and methods to language teaching stimulating students to actively and effectively communicate using the target language are utilized.

Having reviewed the TBI-related literature, the researcher found a plethora of studies which indicated the positive impact of TBI on students' speaking performance in many foreign contexts (e.g., Afifah & Devana 2020; Akalu 2020; Al-Hirsh 2021; Alikahi & Kiany 2021; Belda-Medina 2021; Darrashiri & Mazdayasna 2021; Hassan et al. 2021; Masuram & Sripada 2020; Medina Fernández 2021; Mulyadi et al. 2021; Namaziandost, Hashemifardnia & Shafiee 2019; Nget, Pansri & Poohongthong 2020; Ortiz-Neira 2019; Safitri, Rafli & Dewanti 2019; Tavakoli, Campbell & McCormack 2016; Trevisol & D'ely 2021; Xuyen & Trang 2021). However, research on the effects of TBI on students' speaking performance in Egypt was very

scanty; only one attempt by Torky (2006) on first-year general secondary students from Giza governorate. The results from this study lent support to the other empirical research in the foreign context regarding the positive influence of TBI on students' speaking performance. It also recommended conducting further research in the same area on students from different educational backgrounds and levels to be able to generalize the results over the whole country.

Accordingly, the researcher found that there is an urgent need to conduct this study to check the effectiveness of TBI in the Egyptian context as a possible solution to the problem of the current research. To add more strength to the current study and enrich it with a much wider variety of outcome measures, the researcher decided to investigate the effects of TBI on students' speaking performance in terms of fluency, lexical sophistication, syntactic complexity and lexical diversity. Besides, to make this study more comprehensive, while at the same time obtaining more tangible evidence on the impact of TBI, the researcher decided to dig into Egyptian teachers' mind to know their feelings, beliefs and thoughts towards the application of TBI as an effective and successful teaching strategy to promote students' speaking abilities in Egypt.

By doing so, the researcher intended to support the quantitative data with more descriptive information about the research phenomenon to obtain more accurate results. Thus, taking into account the recommendations of the previous study carried out in the Egyptian context, the researcher decided to examine the effects of TBI on students' speaking performance in terms of fluency, lexical sophistication, syntactic complexity and lexical diversity, in order to bridge the gap of the literature in the current context.

1.5. Research Purpose, Hypothesis & Questions

The aim of this study is two-fold; firstly, it intends to examine students' speaking performance in terms of fluency, lexical sophistication, syntactic complexity and lexical diversity after the exposure to TBI for eleven weeks over the course of the first semester for the academic year 2020-2021. Secondly, it aims to uncover teachers' beliefs towards the possibility of effective and successful implementation of TBI in the Egyptian classroom context to develop students' speaking skills.

Based on these two research objectives, the researcher brings the following two research questions forward for investigation and hypothesizes the positive impact of TBI on students' oral production of more fluent, lexically sophisticated, syntactically complex, and lexically diverse language since TBI provides students with the necessary communicative context to practice the target language. Not only this, it also yields students with more opportunities and time to notice, test and reflect on their speech, leading to language restructuring and automatization in students' mind and then the production of richer, faster and more structural language over time with the continual use of the target language.

1. What change, if any, does task-based instruction have on third-year general governmental secondary students' speaking performance in terms of fluency, lexical sophistication, lexical diversity and syntactic complexity after eleven weeks of intervention in Egypt?
2. What beliefs do Egyptian's general governmental secondary teachers hold about the task-based instruction?

1.6. Significance of the Study

The following reasons spell out why the present study is important in the way that it develops some new knowledge and makes an innovative contribution to the field. Firstly, research on the effective teaching practices that can be adopted in the classroom to enhance students' language learning and communication is huge (Walls et al. 2002). The results from this research indicate that teachers' instructional practices are the most decisive element among other elements; such as school environment and classroom management, in enhancing students' learning (Mortimore & Sammons 1987). It is, therefore, argued by Mortimore and Sammons (1987) that students' learning is not improved unless teachers' instructional practices are developed. This, as argued by Ibrahim and Ibrahim (2017), elucidates why L2 students in the Egyptian milieu suffer when they try to speak proper English as their teachers still adopt the traditional instructional practices in the speaking classes. Here comes the importance of this study as an attempt to improve teachers' instructional practices and consequently students' learning by investigating the effectiveness of a new communicative teaching strategy to the Egyptian context.

Secondly, the probe into teachers' perceptions and beliefs towards a specific teaching technique or method is considered important by many researchers to understand the teaching process (Borg 2015), to trace teachers' development over time (Johnson & Golombek 2016), and to expect how successful the assigned teaching strategy will be for the close link between teachers' beliefs and their performance in the classroom (e.g., Ponniah & Thamburaj 2017; Sadeghi & Abutorabi 2017; Sun, Wei & Young 2020; Vera & Corzo 2018). Not only this, it is also deemed critical by others to predict students' levels of language proficiency in the four main language skills as a result of the interrelationship between teachers' beliefs and students'

progress, motivation and attainment (e.g., Andrews 2001; Borg 2013; Feryok 2010; Schulz 2001).

Others see that this type of investigation is significant in order to know what happens in the classroom and then the ability to understand the factors affecting the perfect execution of any assigned teaching methodology, which if carefully considered, they will, of course, maximize its applicability and employability in the classroom (e.g., Ahmad, Farid & Hussain 2021; Borg 2015; Gao & Zhou 2021; Richards, Gallo & Renandya 2001). The researcher of the present study explores teachers' beliefs towards TBI not only to get insight into the possibility of effective and successful application of TBI in Egypt and understand the factors affecting its perfect implementation in this particular context but also to link the results of this qualitative exploration to the results of the quantitative investigation to obtain more tangible evidence on the effectiveness of TBI in tackling the current research problem.

Thirdly, this study serves to bridge the gap in the literature with regard to the scarcity of research on the effectiveness of TBI in boosting students' speaking levels taking into consideration the limitations and recommendations of the study conducted in the same context; the study executed by Torky (2006). Fourthly, this study is unique in the way it is the only one conducted in Egypt to focus on four speaking sub-skills (fluency, lexical sophistication, lexical diversity and syntactic complexity) in one study, a matter which adds more strength to the current study and enriches it with a much wider variety of outcome measures. Fifthly, this study is the only one conducted in the Egyptian context to incorporate two major components of research into a TBI-related study; the investigation into the effects of TBI and the exploration of teachers' beliefs towards TBI. This makes the present study significant because the results of

both quantitative and qualitative data can provide more concrete evidence on the impact of TBI in Egypt.

Ultimately, the current study will help the researcher, as a practitioner, who used to teach English as a second language for students at different educational levels for many years, as well as other language teachers whether in the Egyptian context or in any other contexts, acquire a researched pedagogy in the area of teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL). This will enable them to consider the foremost favorable elements of TBI when applying it in the classroom, leading to adequate TBI practices and effective language learning as a consequence.

1.7. Thesis Organization

The current thesis consists of six chapters, the second chapter, which follows this chapter, reviews the literature from two different angles: the conceptual framework and the most relevant empirical studies. This helps the researcher conceptualize the study with regard to the key constructs and show the gap in previous research enabling him to build a good rationale for the current study. The third chapter discusses the decisions made by the researcher regarding the espoused research approach and paradigm as well as those relate to the research design, instruments, sites and participants. It ends with a thorough discussion of all ethical, validity, reliability, credibility and objectivity issues anticipated by the researcher across all research phases.

The fourth chapter presents and analyzes the data collected through the research instruments to answer the two research questions, followed by a critical discussion of the results

in the fifth chapter. The results of the present research are critically discussed in the fifth chapter to help connect the research results to the current teaching practices and to the research objectives. The last chapter, the sixth chapter, encapsulates the main findings, discusses the limitations of the present research and makes recommendations for potential future research in the area. It also provides some pedagogical implications for language teachers, syllabus designers, TBI methodology and researchers in the SLA domain, based on the main research findings.

1.8. Summary of the Chapter

This chapter introduced the task-based instruction strategy as one of the most recent and effective teaching strategies extensively used in many foreign contexts to tackle students' language problems in general and their speaking weaknesses in particular. TBI was defined in this chapter as an effective teaching approach belonging to the CLT paradigm which provides students with a desirable communicative environment to practice the target language through group or pair work on some assigned communicative tasks with the aim of achieving an outcome. This first chapter also showed the gap in the literature regarding the dearth of research on TBI in the Egyptian context. Moreover, it shed light on the purpose of the study; that is, the intention to investigate TBI as an effective teaching strategy and a preferable one by language teachers to improve students' speaking performance.

Adding to this, this chapter numerated the significance of the current study in the way it provides a possible solution to the research problem represented in tackling students' speaking weaknesses when communicating using the target language. Important as it is, the present study

endeavored to obtain more concrete and tangible evidence on the impact of TBI by linking the results of the quantitative data to that of the qualitative data. It also exhibited the weight of this study as it is the only one, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, which incorporates two major components of research into a TBI-related study in Egypt, and the only one to measure four speaking performance areas at the same time. Ultimately, the next chapter reviews the literature from two overarching perspectives: the conceptual framework and the most pertinent studies. The goal is to identify and conceptualize the different variables in the current research showing how they are connected to each other and to help situate this study solidly within previous research.

CHAPTER TWO

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK & RELATED STUDIES

2.1. Introduction

In view of the main aim of the current study; investigating the influence of TBI on third-year secondary students' speaking performance in terms of fluency, lexical sophistication, lexical diversity and syntactic complexity, this chapter is composed of two main sections. The first section provides a conceptual framework for the study which includes a critical review of the different meanings of the key constructs; such as speaking, fluency, lexical sophistication, lexical diversity, syntactic complexity, teachers' beliefs, task and task-based instruction as well as a critical review of the different types of communicative tasks, the development of TBI frameworks and the most influential TBI frameworks, paying particular attention to the espoused Willis's (1996) TBI framework.

The first section also spotlights TBI characteristics and ends with a critical review of some issues taken against TBI and its implementation in the classroom setting. The second section is divided into two sub-sections to review the previous studies that investigate into the influence of TBI on students' speaking performance and those looking into teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards the possibility of effective and successful use of TBI in the classroom context, both in the Egyptian and non-Egyptian contexts, showing the gap in the literature and building a good rationale for the current study.

2.2. Conceptual Framework

2.2.1. Definition of Speaking

A thorough review of literature about the definition of speaking shows that this concept is seen in the literature from two different approaches: the bottom-up approach and the top-down approach. The bottom-up approach defines speaking as the production of auditory signals in the form of some combined sounds systematically arranged in accordance with some specific principles to encourage listeners to produce various verbal responses (Bygate 1998). Based on this definition, speaking is a set of combined sounds arranged in a systematic way to constitute meaningful speech. This approach, as Cornbleet and Carter (2015) argue, inspires teachers in speaking classes to start with the smallest units of language (language sounds), moving through the mastery of words and sentences, and ending with the mastery of language discourse.

However, this approach is criticized by Bygate (2009), Goh and Burns (2012) and Hughes and Reed (2017) among others for neglecting the social and communicative aspects of language, confining it to its psychomotor sense. On the other hand, Bygate (1998) defines the top-down approach as a two-way process in which speakers are involved in real-life communication of information, ideas and feelings. This approach, as maintained by Richards & Schmidt (2014), triggers teachers to start with engaging students in spoken discourses and interactive activities as the best way to acquire the smallest language units. As this latter approach towards speaking is the one considered by the researcher of this study, speaking is clearly defined in the following lines in view of this latter approach.

Believing in the interactive nature of speaking, Thornbury (2019) defines speaking as a real-life activity, through which speakers can covey their ideas, feelings, thoughts and intentions

to listeners. According to Cameron (2019), speaking is the ability of speakers to express meanings so that other people can make sense of it. For her, speaking is about getting people understand the feelings, desires, thoughts and intentions of speakers through communication using language as a means for communication. Supporting this, Linse (2013), Howarth (2001) and Richards et al. (2006) describe speaking as a social behavior in which people interact with each other in a shared physical context and time. Marzona (2017) adds that speaking is an action, and like all other actions, it is driven by motives, and the motives for speaking range from the tendency to just convey a piece of information to impress listeners with the spoken language to produce fluent, accurate, coherent and clear language. For Chaney and Burk (1998), speaking is the process of building, negotiating and sharing meanings through the use of some verbal and non-verbal symbols in different communicative contexts.

Based on this, we can infer that speaking is the act of talking through which people can communicate with others to achieve certain goals. That is, through speaking, people can share feelings, desires, knowledge, attitudes and meanings. This enables listeners to make assumptions about what speakers think and why they think in such a way and also make judgments about speakers' characters as well as their proficiency, intellectual and cognitive levels.

Considering it a social behavior that involves mental processes, Bailey (2012), Burns and Joyce (2002) and Luoma (2011) describe speaking as involving three mental processes: reception, processing and production, and its form and meaning are highly contingent on the purpose it is used for, the interactants themselves and the physical environment in which it occurs. For them, when an individual speaks, the words go from his/her mind and become a behavior as they leave the body and enter the external words and thus they can be observed and

measured. Such spoken words are then received by listeners then processed in the mind so that listeners can understand them, and for listeners to respond to speakers' talk and to become speakers, the information that listeners intend to share should be further processed in the mind before being uttered.

From all above definitions, we can define speaking in this study as a medium through which interpersonal relationships are developed, ideas are shared, meanings are negotiated, and opinions, thoughts and feelings are expressed. Speaking can be typified as being (1) interactive through which interactants provide significant contributions at appropriate moments, (2) spontaneous leaving little time for speakers to organize and plan for their speech, (3) unpredictable as responses rely heavily on previous talks, and (4) indicator of speakers' proficiency levels as high-proficiency language speakers are those who speak more fluent, more accurate and more complex language.

2.2.2. Importance of Speaking

Speaking is one of the main four language skills (speaking, listening, writing and reading), and it is the most important and most frequently used skill when compared to the other three language skills because it is the means by which individuals can convey accurate messages, achieve certain goals and precisely express their standpoints, hopes, sensations, feelings and intentions (Bygate 2009). In this direction, Rivers (2010) argues that speaking is used twice as much as writing and reading in daily communication. Moreover, speaking is a fundamental skill by Hasan (2014) for erupting many different skills, events and situations used in our daily life; such as dialogues, discussions, presentations, TV programs and radio talks; or otherwise stated, it is the most important tool to obtain information and gain knowledge.

Adding to this, mastering this skill is deemed crucial by Gass and Varonis (1994) and Nunan (2008) and a priority by Florez (1999) in learning a new language since individuals' success in learning a language is measured by their ability to communicate using the target language. That is, a proficient language speaker is more likely a good language reader, listener and writer since all these three skills are exhibited during speaking. Following from this, we can conclude that effective speaking teaching can positively influence students' proficiency in the four language skills. To further support this viewpoint from the literature, research shows that effective speaking teaching led to the development of students' listening skill (Saskatchewan Education 1997), their writing skill development **(**Goh & Doyle 2014) and their reading skill (de Gelder & Morais 2018). Not only this, research also indicates that effective speaking teaching enhances students' motivation to learn and makes language classrooms places for fun and social engagement (e.g., Celce-Murcia, Brinton & Snow 2014; Lantolf, Thorne & Poehner 2015; Nunan 2008).

2.2.3. Psycholinguistic Mechanisms & Processes of L1/L2 Speaking

The following lines are meant to answer the question about how L2 speakers produce utterances to enable language practitioners as well as researchers in the SLA and psychology domains to get better insights into how L2 speakers learn and produce the target language. In this respect, literature indicates that there two major approaches to L2 speech production: the psycholinguistic approach and the applied linguistic approach, and each of which has its own theories in elucidating how second language is produced or uttered. According to Kormos (2014), the psycholinguistic approach is concerned with the problems that occur in L1 and their relation to L2 production, and this approach is examined by the same researchers who examine

L1 production. For her, the applied linguistic approach looks into the interactive and social characteristics of language and into the role of mind in L2 production, and this approach is generally investigated by SLA researchers.

To elaborate more on the psycholinguistic approach which is the subject of this section, researchers of this approach agree on the existence of four main components of language production: (1) message conceptualization which is responsible for planning for the message that speakers intend to deliver, during which speakers start to conceptualize the message internally and the result is a preverbal message containing all conceptual characteristics of the message, (2) message formulation through which the message is shaped and framed in terms of lexis, grammar and phonology to make it understandable by message receivers, (3) message articulation which is the motor execution or delivery of the message, and (4) self-monitoring which is important to test if the produced language is correct and understandable by language receivers or not.

Those researchers also agree that one of the main mechanisms by which the above four components of language production can facilitate L2 acquisition and production is the "speech monitoring mechanism". To expound this, Levelt (1989, 1993) postulates that speech monitoring enables L2 learners to match what they intended to say to what has already been said and know their gaps and limitations. For Levelt, this may raise L2 learners' consciousness of the errors made at the time of speaking, resulting in a restructuring of the preverbal message or a generation of a new message during the conceptualization stage. Agreeing with this, Scovel (2014) avers that the speech monitoring mechanism enables L2 learners to assess their success in delivering the intended message and also enables them to match the message specifications with speech outcome, a matter deemed pivotal by Swain (1998) for L2 development. Similarly,

Dörnyei and Kormos (1998) and Kormos (1999, 2000a) argue that the speech monitoring mechanism increases attention to the intended language rules and structures and to the appropriateness of the produced language.

The question now is, what if the produced language does not match the standards created in the mind through the receptive knowledge (input), de Bot (1996) here contends that an internal negative feedback towards the produced language will be received, resulting in a problem in the production process. If it is the case, de Bot (1992), Izumi (2003), Shehadeh (2001) and Swain and Lapkin (2001) among others claim that L2 speakers/ learners may rely on other alternative routes based on the situation and their own preferences. To elucidate this, de Bot (1992) maintains that L2 learners may try to deliver the message again and again as the only way to express their intention. In interactive situations with more knowledgeable individuals, L2 learners may receive immediate negative feedback, and then they can modify their own hypotheses (e.g., Ellis & He 1999; Nobuyoshi & Ellis 1993; Shehadeh 2001). In monologue situations characterized as having no interaction between interlocutors, the problems encountered by L2 speakers during the speech production process may be noticed with a high degree of attention, and possible solutions to the problems may be reflected by L2 speaker themselves (e.g., Kowal & Swain 1994; Swain 1998; Swain & Lapkin 2001).

Another essential psycholinguistic mechanism agreed upon by researchers of the psycholinguistic approach is the “activation spreading” mechanism. This term is taken from the results of research on neurology and the study of nervous system in which neural networks are interconnected nodes and these interconnected nodes feed each other through simple signals called activation (Hebb 1949, cited in Kormos 2014). According to this mechanism, it is postulated that there are three hierarchical phases for speech processing: conceptualization,

formulation and articulation, and the information is conveyed across these phases based on the degree to which the information is linked to each other.

Another assumption is the existence of knowledge stores in the human mind; such as the conceptual memory store and the mental lexicon, within which other related words to the one in process are affected by activation spreading. There is also a claim of the existence of nodes which represent various speech units; such as lexis, structure, lexeme, morphology, phonemes, concepts, word forms and so on, and the selection of these speech units or nodes in the mind is based on their activation level.

Literature identifies two major theories of speech production based on the activation spreading mechanism: modular theories (e.g., Garrett 1976; Laver 1980; Levelt 1989, 1993; Levelt, Roelofs & Meyer 1999) and spreading activation theories (e.g., Dell 1986; Dell & O'Seaghda 1991; Stemberger 1985). The difference between these two major theories is identified by Kormos (2014) in two main points. Regarding the first point of differentiation, the activation in the spreading activation theories can spread forward and backward (from superordinate level to subordinate level and vice versa), while the activation moves or spread forward only in the modular theories. To explain this, according to the spreading activation theories, if an error happens during one particular process, there will be a warning signal of that error in the mind, and then the activation stops moving forward to the subordinate level and moves backward instead to the superordinate level, and the process starts again from the superordinate level. On the other hand, according to the modular theories, the error that happens during one particular process is not noticed immediately but later after the language is phonologically encoded or at the articulation level of the speech production process, and thus,

the part of the message that contains errors has to be encoded again from the very beginning (at the conceptualization level).

The second point of differentiation is related to the view towards syntactic and phonological encoding. The spreading activation theories argue that frames of slots for sentences and phonetic features are built by speakers before selecting the appropriate words and phonetic features that fill the slots in the frame. On the other hand, the modular theories aver that words activate the syntactic features of the message during the planning for the message (at the conceptualization level). They also propose that lexical encoding is processed before syntactic encoding, and the phonological encoding process does not start until the lexico-syntactic processes are ready.

It is worthy of mentioning that Levelt's (1989, 1993, 1995, 1999a, 1999b) model is the most frequently used theoretical framework in L2 speech production research, and therefore, its basic speech processing mechanisms are highlighted in the following lines. According to this model, speech production consists of three separate encoding modules (components): the conceptualizer, the formulator and the articulator, and individuals produce utterances by first conceptualizing the message, then by encoding it and finally by articulating it. Levelt adds that the three encoding modules work incrementally, and each module starts processing only if its characteristic input is received. For example, once the preverbal plan is conceptually encoded, its language representation starts automatically in the formulator, and the conceptualizer starts working on the next chunk without waiting until the previous chunk is completely processed which means that speakers can start talking before the whole message is planned for in the conceptualizer. This indicates the automaticity of speech processing mechanisms and the possibility of parallel processing at different encoding levels.

To further explain Levelt's model, the message, during the conceptual stage, is encoded through two processes of macro-planning and micro-planning. Macro-planning is responsible for generating speakers' speech act intention; such as speakers' willingness to express an opinion, give advice or narrate an event. Micro-planning is responsible for giving the correct propositional shape and informational perspective of the message (the conceptual chunk of the message). For example, if a speaker intends to narrate an event, he or she creates a conceptual chunk for the intended message (e.g., the boy gave the present to the girl, or the present was given to the girl, etc.). The product of macro and microplanning is the preverbal plan, which is the input of the grammatical encoding phase.

In the formulator, the preverbal plan activates the most suitable items in speakers' mental lexicon, and for grammatical encoding to take place, specific information about the activated items should be retrieved from speakers' mental lexicon, and this includes all semantic and syntactic information (lemmas) and morphological and phonological information (lexemes). For example, according to Levelt, the preverbal plan activates a number of lemmas in speakers' mental lexicon and the lemmas that receive the highest activation based on their perfect matching with the conceptual chunk in the preverbal plan will be selected. To illustrate this, if a speaker intends to say "the boy gave the present to the girl", so many lexical items will be activated in the lexicon but only the content words "boy", "gave", "present" and "girl" will receive the highest activation due to their perfect matching to the preverbal plan, and then they will be selected for the next encoding process which is the syntactic encoding, and the same applies to the morphological and phonological encoding leading to the selection of the specific morphological and phonological forms of the intended message, and the final result of the phonological encoding is an articulatory or phonetic plan (internal speech).

In the articulator, the generated phonetic plan is temporarily stored in an articulatory buffer. Chunks of internal speech are retrieved from the buffer then unpacked into sets of motor commands. The articulator then issues commands to the muscles to control the laryngeal, the supralaryngeal and the respiratory systems, and the result is the articulation of the message.

However, the result of the preverbal plan in the conceptualizer is not always a clear message as many L2 speakers encounter problems when speaking. According to Kormos (2014), based on Levelt's model, the problems faced by L2 speakers when speaking are categorized into two main categories: resource deficit related problems (characterized by the lack of L2 sufficient knowledge at different processing levels) and time pressure related problems (based on the assumption that L2 speech processing is linear and thus requires more attentional capacities and time than L1 speech processing). Therefore, to overcome L2 speakers' insufficient knowledge and gain more attention and time during L2 speech processing, various researchers maintain that L2 speakers may resort to other alternative options (e.g., de Bot 1992; Dörnyei & Kormos 1998; Dörnyei & Scott 1997; Færch & Kasper 1983; Kellerman & Bialystok 1997; Newell 2008; Poulisse 1993).

For example, based on the work of Dörnyei and Kormos (1998), if the problem occurs at the lexical encoding level, L2 speakers may choose to leave the message unfinished, replace the message with a new one, leave a gap for the unknown words, translate the unknown words literally or oven create nonexisting L2 words. If the problem occurs as a result of insufficient knowledge of L2 grammar, L2 speakers may change certain grammatical characteristics of the lemma based on their native language or by overgeneralizing L2 rules or they may intentionally use simplified grammar to enhance the chances of understanding the grammatical meaning from the context. If L2 speakers face difficulties at phonological/ articulatory level, they make replace

the words of unknown sounds with those they are familiar with or they may choose to mute such words or make them inaudible. Finally, if the problem happens due to time processing pressure, L2 speakers may choose to remain silent, use filled pauses, use filling words, lengthen a sound in hesitation or even repeat some produced words.

From the above discussion about the activation spreading mechanism involved in L1 and L2 speaking processes, we became aware that the selection of linguistic units; such as concepts, lexis, structure, word forms, phonemes among others, is based on the activation level of these units, but we still need to know if there is any difference between L1 and L2 speaking processes regarding the selection, access and representation of the linguistic units across the three stages of speech production system. For example, there are questions like, if L1 and L2 selection processes work in a similar way across the speech processing system or not, if L1 and L2 units share the same memory stores or not, if there is any competition or overlap between L1 and L2 units at the time of selection and if activated but not selected units have any impact on speakers. All these questions are clearly answered in the following lines in view of the related literature.

Starting with the conceptualization stage, the question is whether both L1 and L2 speakers generate two parallel preverbal messages or they both generate the same preverbal message. Research on this matter exhibits that the idea of creating parallel plans was introduced by de Bot (1992) but this idea did not last for long time as the same researcher abandoned it in the following year in an article with Schreuder (de Bot & Schreuder 1993). The view that is most common among researchers is that there is a single preverbal message with a language tag (Kormos 2014).

With regard to the lexical encoding process, three questions are raised. The first question is whether the conceptual characteristics of the message created by L2 speakers during message

planning activate only L2 words or both L1 and L2 words are activated together. In this respect, various research papers show that L1 words are also activated (e.g., Costa, Caramazza & Sebastian-Gallés 2000; de Bot 1992; Green 1986, 1998; Poulisse 1999; Poulisse & Bongaerts 1994), while some few papers see that the preverbal message activates only the words of the intended language (e.g., Macnamara & Kushnir 1971, Soares & Grosjean 1984), and this latter view was generally abandoned in favor of the first view (Marini & Fabbro 2007). The second question is whether both L1 and L2 words, based on the assumption that they are both activated, are subject for selection for lexical encoding or not. On this matter, few studies demonstrate that despite receiving activation, L1 words are not in competition with L2 words and therefore they are not selected for lexical encoding (e.g., Costa & Caramazza 1999; Costa, Miozzo & Caramazza 1999; Hermans 2000), while the majority of studies indicate that they enter in competition with each other for selection for lexical encoding, and the result could be the occurrence of the code-switching phenomenon which is language alternation (e.g., Costa et al. 2003; Grosjean 1998; Hermans et al. 1998; Lee & Williams 2001). The third question is about the organization of L1 and L2 words; namely, whether there are two lexicons to store L1 and L2 words or they both share a common lexicon. The most popular and accepted view is that both L1 and L2 words share one common lexicon and the selection is based on the activation level (Kroll & Tokowitz 2005).

Concerning with the syntactic encoding process, the main question is whether both L1 and L2 rules are stored together if they both have the same syntactic building procedures, and if so, are they tagged for language or not. The answer for this question is found in the study conducted by Meijer and Fox Tree (2003) in which the researchers maintain that both L1 and L2 with the same syntactic building procedures are stored together and not tagged for language.

As for phonological encoding, the question is whether the L1 words activated through the conceptual stage but not selected for further processing receive the same activation as received by the selected L2 words at the phonological level. On this point, many studies demonstrate the cascading of activation of the non-selected words at the phonological level as well (e.g., Colomé 2001; Costa, Caramazza & Sebastian-Gallés 2000; Hermans 2000). Another question is whether L1 and L2 phonological features are stored together or they have separate memory representations, and if L1 and L2 processing mechanisms at the phonological level are the same or not. The most accurate answer to this question is that both L1 and L2 phonemes share the same memory representation and they both have the same processing mechanism (Roelofs 2003).

With regard to articulation, the question here is whether L2 speakers share the same mental syllabary (stored articulatory chunks) with L1 speakers. The possible answer to this question is provided by de Bot (1992) and Flege and Fletcher (1992) in which less proficient L2 speakers, who are usually late L2 learners, rely on one memory store in their articulation of the target language while more advanced L2 speakers, who are usually early L2 learners, are able to create an independent L2 memory store.

2.2.4. Measuring L2 Speaking Performance

A host of scholars and researchers in the field of second language acquisition agree that L2 speaking performance is best measured in terms of complexity, accuracy and fluency (CAF) triad (e.g., Ellis 2003, 2015; Ellis & Barkhuizen 2014; Housen & Kuiken 2009; Housen, Kuiken & Vedder 2012; Larsen-Freeman 2006; Michel 2017; Norris & Ortega 2009; Skehan 2009). Consequently, those three areas of performance are now considered key research variables and

the focus of an increasing body of literature in the SLA domain to pinpoint students' speaking performance level, to describe how L2 learners' speaking performance changes over time and to examine L2 students' development in both oral and written language assessments (Tavakoli & Wright 2020).

With regard to their meanings, complexity is defined by Ellis (2003, p. 340) as "the extent to which the language produced in performing a task is elaborate and varied" or otherwise, it is the ability to use a wide range of sophisticated lexical items and structures (Housen, Kuiken & Vedder 2012). It relates to students' predisposition to take the risk of using the newly-gained linguistic knowledge in their oral performance, conductive to their ability to notice the gap in their oral performance and then the ability to re-establish and re-organize the obtained language knowledge in the mind (e.g., Ellis 2003, 2015; Ellis & Barkhuizen 2014; Housen & Kuiken 2009; Skehan 1996; Yuan & Ellis 2003). Accuracy is also defined by Housen and Kuiken (2009, p. 461) as "the ability to produce error-free speech". It pertains to students' proneness to control the current linguistic knowledge and avoid grammar mistakes when they speak the intended language (e.g., Ellis 2015; Skehan 1996; Skehan & Foster 1997; Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki & Kim 1998). Fluency is defined by Ellis (2003, p. 42) as "the extent to which the language produced in performing a task manifests pausing, hesitation, or reformulations". It relates to students' tendency to use the target language at an appropriate speech rate without undue pauses or hesitation (e.g., Chambers 1997; Koponen & Riggenbach 2000; Lennon 1990; Segalowitz 2007; Skehan 1996; Skehan & Foster 1997).

To differentiate between the three CAF constructs in terms of cognitive processing, Housen, Kuiken and Vedder (2012) and Skehan (2009) argue that greater accuracy and complexity is linked to a more sophisticated L2 knowledge system which is responsible for

restructuring the “interlanguage”; a language that L2 learners have on their way to reach the proficiency level of the target language, while greater fluency is associated with “language automatization”; namely, the quick access to L2 knowledge.

Connecting those three areas of performance with the investigated TBI, most of empirical studies into tasks show that TBI is used in the classroom to serve three main pedagogical goals of complexity, accuracy and fluency (e.g., Ellis 2003; Ellis & Barkhuizen 2014; Lambert & Kormos 2014; Skehan 1996, 1998, 2014; Skehan & Foster 2012; Wen, Ahmadian & Skehan 2019; Yuan & Ellis 2003). All these studies agree that the three performance areas of complexity, accuracy and fluency constitute a solid foundation for measuring students’ oral language production in any task-based related research. In this regard, Skehan (1998, p. 270) assures that the three pedagogical goals of fluency, accuracy and complexity are “effective indices for measuring performance on a particular task and, in this way, provide a method for assessing the worth of different tasks”.

It is worth mentioning that complexity is a hard to define with an elaborated taxonomy construct because it is a multi-layered and multi-faceted construct, and it is viewed as the most controversial construct among the CAF triad because it can be applied to various SLA facets (Pallotti 2015). For example, there are two main dimensions of complexity: (1) cognitive complexity which refers to the difficulty of a word as it is processed and gained, or otherwise, it is the mental effort required for processing and acquiring a linguistic item during L2 learning, and in this case complexity is a synonym to difficulty (e.g., Housen & Simoens 2016; Michel 2017), and (2) absolute or linguistic complexity which is the “intrinsic formal or semantic-functional properties of L2 elements” and includes forms, meanings and form-meaning mappings (Housen, Kuiken & Vedder, p. 4). Each complexity dimension has its own sub-

dimensions but the latter one is most extensively applied in CAF research (Michel 2017), and for this, it is the one considered by the researcher of this study.

Having reviewed the empirical research on linguistic complexity, we found that it is multidimensional in nature; that is, there are two main sub-dimensions of linguistic complexity: lexical and syntactic (grammatical) complexity. As for lexical complexity, literature suggests several types for this sub-dimension and provides proper measures for each type (e.g., Jarvis 2013; Malvern & Richards 1997; Vermeer 2000). In this respect, the majority part of literature differentiates between three types of lexical complexity: lexical sophistication (the depth of words as measured by, for example, academic or rare words frequency), lexical diversity (the word variation as calculated by, for example, type-token ratio) and lexical density (the richness of content with information as measured by, for example, the ratio of lexical items to the total number of words).

Syntactic complexity, on the other hand, is defined by Ortega (2015, p. 82) as "the range and the sophistication of grammatical resources exhibited in language production". Stated differently, syntactic complexity is the degree to which students' interlanguage is developed based on their ability to use much more elaborated structures. Moreover, according to Lambert and Kormos (2014), syntactic complexity can be measured based on the degree to which subordination is apparent. It is commonly measured by the ratio of finite and non-finite clauses to a sentential unit of analysis; such as speech unit analysis (Foster, Tonkyn & Wigglesworth 2000), communication unit analysis (Bardovi-Harlig 1992) and terminal unit analysis (Hunt 1965).

It should also be remembered that accuracy is deemed the most perspicuous construct of the three CAF constructs by many researchers since it is measured by counting the number of

some units of production (e.g., clauses, sentential units) that are error-free as a percentage of the total number of these units (e.g., Housen & Kuiken 2009; Lambert & Kormos 2014; Pallotti 2009; Skehan & Foster 1997; Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki & Kim 1998). However, since the researcher relies in this study on the automatic tools widely used in the literature to measure students' speaking performance, the accuracy construct is not used in this study as a speaking component to determine students' speaking performance due to the lack of accurate computer-based accuracy programs that can automatically measure and analyze this construct (Michel 2017).

Therefore, for the purpose of this study, four key components/ sub-components as most used in TBI research were selected to identify and determine the speaking performance of the research participants: fluency, lexical diversity, lexical sophistication and syntactic complexity. Also, seeking for more objective ratings and more precise data analysis as mentioned above, the researcher used specific computer-based programs to automatically calculate and analyze the speaking performance of the current students. This encompassed Praat software with a script written by de Jong and Wempe (2009) for fluency, Tool for the Automatic Analysis of Lexical Sophistication (TAALES) software, version 2.2, by Kyle, Crossley and Berger (2018) for lexical sophistication, Tool for the Automatic Analysis of Lexical Diversity (TAALED) software, version 1.3.1, by Kyle, Crossley and Jarvis (2021) for lexical diversity, and L2 Syntactic Complexity Analyzer (L2SCA) by Lu (2010) for syntactic complexity. The following lines review the literature with regard to each of these constructs, provide elaborate information on how they are measured and discuss the criticism directed to their validity and reliability for SLA if any.

2.2.4.1. Oral Fluency

It is not easy to define and measure oral fluency as this term is used in many ways, and some of these definitions add more ambiguity to its meaning than they explain it (Tavakoli & Wright 2020). For instance, the term "oral fluency" is defined by Doe (2021), Harris (1996) and Tavakoli and Hunter (2018) as the effortlessness, flow and speed of speech. However, how fast individuals should speak to consider their speech fluent and what forms "effortlessness" or "flow of speech" are questions that need to be answered. Another issue stems from the close link between oral fluency and other language features such as syntax, word choice and pronunciation and how they affect language oral fluency. Therefore, we need to have a closer look on this construct from qualitative, quantitative and pedagogical perspectives to elucidate its meaning and to answer the associated questions.

Oral fluency is typified by Fillmore (2000) as having four main characteristics; firstly, it is the ability of individuals to talk for a long time without undue pauses and their ability to fill the time with speaking. Fillmore gives examples of radio show announcers and sports announcers as typically showing this type of oral fluency. Secondly, it is the ability of individuals to speak in cohesive and coherent manner using meaningful words and phrases. The individuals who exhibit this kind of oral fluency are proficient in language semantics and syntax and are able to concisely and effectively communicate their ideas and thoughts. Thirdly, it is the ability of individuals to properly communicate with others in different contexts. People who master this sort of oral fluency are able to speak in different expected and unexpected social situations. Lastly, it is the ability of some individuals to use the language in a very creative and imaginative way. People of this type of oral fluency are skilled at manipulating words, yielding novel expressions and telling jokes.

Fillmore's (2000) view of fluency is very balanced in the way it encompasses both the qualitative and quantitative aspects. That is, the above first and third aspects are having more qualitative characteristics while the second and forth aspects largely exhibit more quantitative characteristics of oral fluency. The inference from Fillmore's (2000) work suggests that fluency is analogous to overall competency; that is, fluency has many characteristics and no one is dominant over the others, and they are all necessary to consider a speaker fluent. For example, an individual may speak effectively in proper communicative contexts, yet he or she still speaks so slowly causing listeners' distraction or disengagement.

For Krashen and Terrell (1983), oral fluency is the rapid and smooth flow of speech. They exclude the native-like accuracy from their definition despite being necessary for fluency development as they believe that people gain accuracy naturally when they are exposed to comprehensible input. For them, overusing the "monitor", which is self-checking and repairing of oral production as in Krashen's (1981) monitor hypothesis, leads to disfluent speech production as the over-users always try to correct and apply the newly-learned language forms when they speak, and the result is more pauses and much hesitation.

Brumfit (2000) adopts a learner-centered and pedagogical perspective to L2 oral fluency by defining fluency as the use of language naturally whether it ends in native-like oral production or not. This definition is striking as it focuses on learners and the development of their language system rather than on the impact of the spoken language on listeners. Like Krashen in his comprehensible input hypothesis, Brumfit (2000) emphasizes the maximum exposure to comprehensible input and the minimum use of correction during fluency-building tasks as this will help learners automatize the newly-learned forms in their language system, leading to fluent language speech.

Lennon (1990) and Hanzawa (2021) espouse a pedagogical perspective to oral fluency and distinguish between the broad meaning and narrow meaning of fluency. For them, oral fluency is a synonym to oral proficiency in the broad meaning. In this case, oral fluency is closely linked to other factors such as morphosyntactic accuracy, vocabulary size and pronunciation. According to Lennon (1990, p. 389), the broad meaning can be defined as "the highest point on a scale that measures the spoken command of a foreign language". This definition is also explained by Derwing (2017) who states that oral fluency is analogous to language proficiency in that when somebody is asked about his/her ability to speak the second language, he or she may respond by saying something like, I speak this second language fluently, which means he/she masters the second language. Supporting this view, Cadena-Aguilar, Ortega-Cuellar and Cadena-Aguilar (2019), Gatbonton and Segalowitz (2005) and Velásquez-Hoyos (2021) define oral fluency as the ability of students to communicate in a second language, and they maintain that certain components should be developed for the produced speech to be fluent including speed of speech, smoothness of speech, intonation, vocabulary range, oral class participation and natural pauses.

Therefore, according to this board view of fluency, students are considered fluent if they get the highest score on a scale that measures students' overall speaking skill. Adding to this, this broad definition of fluency reflects the above Fillmore's (2000) view of fluency as being analogous to overall competency, and thus, fluency can be measured using Fillmore's (2000) four points of measures. That is, students are considered fluent if they are (1) able to speak at a good speech rate without undue pauses and hesitation, (2) able to speak coherently, (3) able to speak effectively in proper communicative contexts, and (4) able to speak creatively.

On the other hand, Lennon (1990, p. 391) defines fluency from a narrow perspective by stating that it is "an impression on the listener's part that the psycholinguistic processes of speech planning and speech production are functioning easily and efficiently". Lennon explains this by saying that fluency should be regarded as being a purely performance phenomenon and a distinct component of speech. Therefore, it should not be measured with other speech components; such as lexical, discursive, syntactic, grammatical and phonological components of speech, a matter which requires a separate assessment rubric in oral test settings.

Many researchers (e.g., Doe 2021; Freed 2000; Hanzawa 2021; Kormos & Dénes 2004; Segalowitz 2010) support this narrow view of fluency and argue that this construct should include performative, psycholinguistic and perceived aspects of fluency. Moreover, the advocates of this narrow approach tend to connect oral fluency to temporal factors; such as mean length of runs (number of syllables), filled pauses per minute, silent pauses per minute, mean length of pauses (seconds), phonation time ratio (percentage ratio), articulation rate (syllable/minute), space (ratio of stressed words/total words) and pace (stressed words/minute) (e.g., Bosker et al. 2013; Cucchiarini, Strik & Boves 2000, 2002; Derwing et al. 2009; Doe 2021; Ellis 2003; Hanzawa 2021; Jackson & Suethanapornkul 2013; Kormos 2014; Kormos & Dénes 2004; Lambert, Kormos & Minn 2017; Lennon 1990; Leonard & Shea 2017; Préfontaine & Kormos 2015; Préfontaine, Kormos & Johnson 2016; Rossiter 2009; Saito et al. 2018; Segalowitz 2007; Skehan 1996, Skehan & Foster 1997; Towell, Hawkins & Bazergui 1996; Wolf 2008; Yingjie 2014).

Therefore, fluency from a narrow perspective refers to some certain L2 speech features such as "the degree to which speech flows, and to what extent that flow is interrupted by pauses, hesitations, false starts and so on" (Derwing 2017, p. 246). One of the most cited definitions of

fluency is based on the narrow view of fluency as provided by Tavakoli and Skehan (2005) in that fluency is composed of three sub-categories: (1) silence or breakdown (e.g., number and duration of pauses), (2) speed or rate of speech (e.g., words per minute), and (3) repair (e.g., self-correction, false starts and repetition). Those three fluency sub-categories are investigated in many research papers to measure L2 students' fluency development and to explain how they develop their fluency over time (e.g. Di Silvio, Diao & Donovan 2016; Hanzawa 2021; Lambert, Kormos, & Minn 2017; Leonard & Shea 2017; Saito et al. 2018).

According to de Jong (2018), the discrepancies between these definitions indicate that fluency can be measured from two viewpoints: (1) listeners who judge the speech flow and ease as produced by speakers, and (2) speakers whose speech production processes are assessed to judge their ability to speak. Capturing these two viewpoints towards the measurement of fluency, Segalowitz (2010, p. 165) distinguishes between three types of fluency: (1) perceived fluency which refers to "the inferences listeners make about speakers' cognitive fluency based on their perceptions", (2) cognitive fluency which pertains to "the efficiency of operation of the underlying processes responsible for the production of utterances", and (3) utterance fluency which refers to the temporal factors that "reflect the speakers cognitive fluency". It is worthy of noting that while the cognitive and perceived fluency are not the subject of this study, the utterance fluency is only employed in this study to measure students' oral fluent production of the target language.

Speaking more elaborately on L2 oral fluency rating scales taking into account the two approaches of oral fluency by Lennon (1990): the holistic approach and the distinct approach, literature shows that the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) and the Modern Language Association (MLA) adopt the holistic approach to oral fluency while the

U.S. Foreign Service Institute (FSI) and the University of Reading (UR) embrace the distinct approach to oral fluency.

For example, according to MLA's rating scale, the students with good speaking abilities are those who have sufficient vocabulary and grammar knowledge base to speak with normal speed and proper pronunciation, while the students with superior speaking abilities are native-like speakers who speak fluently with regard to pronunciation, intonation and vocabulary. On the other hand, UR employs the scale created by Weir (1993) which has 4 descriptors with 4 points (from low = 0 to high = 3) to measure the fluency level of the students who study English as a foreign language. This 4-point scale includes hesitation among all descriptors and contains the ability of students to provide fast, lengthy and coherent speech as well as using fillers skillfully as other indicators of students' fluent production of the target language. UR capitalizes on separate scales for grammatical accuracy, sociolinguistic appropriateness, vocabulary and pronunciation.

More recent rubrics are used in L2 speaking assessments to measure fluency; such as the Pearson Test of English Academic (PTEA), the Oral Proficiency Interview of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL OPI), the International English Language Testing System (IELTS), the British Council's Aptis test, and the Test of English as a Foreign Language internet Based Test (TOEFL iBT). To describe the speaking rating scales of these four tests, TOEFL iBT measures three elements in the produced language: language use, delivery and topic development. Fluency is stated in both language use and delivery and measured hand in hand with accuracy and complexity. For example, under "language use" category, students get the highest score of (4) if they use both grammar and vocabulary effectively and exhibit a fairly high degree of automaticity with good control of basic and

complex structures. Under “delivery” category, students get the highest score of (4) if their delivery is characterized with well-paced flow, while they get a low score of (1) if their delivery is choppy, fragmented, or telegraphic; frequent pauses and hesitations.

As for IELTS speaking rubric, fluency is mentioned tightly with coherence, and this rubric gives different descriptors for lexical resources, pronunciation and accuracy. According to this rubric, students get the highest score of (9) on fluency and coherence if their produced language is characterized by speech flow, rare repetition or rare self-correction and use of fully appropriate cohesive features, while they get a low score of (1) in case of no communication possible. It is noticed from this 9-band descriptors that, self-corrections, hesitations and repetitions are used at the higher levels, pauses are used only at the lower levels while speed of speech is only mentioned at band (5).

Aptis regards fluency as a separate component of speech and uses a scale of six points ranging from (5 points = high proficient speaker) when the speech is characterized as spontaneous with little or no sign of effort and without undue hesitation or interruption to (0 point = low proficient speaker) when no or incomprehensible or irrelevant answers given. Aptis is like IELTS in that it sheds light on the importance of paying attention to pausing, hesitation, repair and flow phenomena when assessing fluency, and it focuses particularly on pausing and repair measures by emphasizing self-correction, hesitation and pauses across its descriptors.

In ACTFL OPI, fluency is considered an integral part of oral proficiency in that students are assessed based on five levels of proficiency: distinguished, superior, advanced, intermediate, and novice, and each level includes five speech components collectively considered at the time of measuring students’ oral proficiency: fluency, coherence, pronunciation, vocabulary and

grammar. Fluency is described in these five levels through measures of reformulations, pauses, self-corrections and unnaturally lengthy hesitation.

According to PTEA, fluency is deemed a separate construct and, unlike the above three rubrics, it is scored automatically, leaving no room for subjective interpretation of fluency. It provides separate descriptors for vocabulary, spelling, pronunciation and grammar, and it measures oral fluency through the smooth, effortless and natural-paced delivery of speech. In an attempt to enable human raters to give precise fluency scores, a formula is introduced for the automatic scores. Fluency raters are then encouraged to use a rating scale of six levels and of which specific speech features are considered; such as smooth rhythm, repairs, repetitions, pauses and mean length of runs. According to this rating scale, students at the fifth level (the native-like level) are those who show smooth rhythm with no false starts, repetitions, hesitations or non-native phonological simplifications in their speech, while those, for example, at level one show irregular sentence rhythm, long pauses, false starts, repetitions, hesitations and/ or inappropriate sentence-level word emphasis in their speech.

To summarize the above discussion about fluency rating scales in view of the works of Fulcher (1993, 2014, 2015) and Tavakoli, Nakatsuhara and Hunter (2017) and the recent work by Tavakoli and Wright (2020), the earliest attempt to measure fluency seemed to appear in the 1930s through the College Board's English Competence Examination in which one examiner conducts a conversation with an examinee on different topics and rates the examinee's fluency performance. Many other criteria were also used in this examination besides fluency to assess candidates' speaking abilities to encompass candidates' responsiveness, rapidity, articulation, vocabulary and idioms, use of connectives etc. According to its rating scale, candidates are placed at three proficiency levels: proficient, satisfactory and unsatisfactory.

The following international speaking test was FSI in which the distinct approach to oral fluency was embraced; that is, raters were asked to assess candidates' speaking proficiency based on the criteria of fluency, vocabulary, grammar, comprehension and accent. The FSI rating scale consisted of six points raging from (1 point = unfamiliarity with the language) to (6 points = native speaker proficiency). It was noticed from this rating scale that fluency was a key aspect and it was assessed on the same 6-point levels ranging from uneven to even fluency.

According to the above researchers, this rating scale was followed by a number of rating scales developed by educational institutions and other test providers to measure students' speaking proficiency including PTEA and Aptis rating scales in which fluency was included as an independent criterion to measure speaking proficiency and IELTS and TOEFL iBT in which fluency was included with other criteria such as coherence in IELTS and delivery in TOEFL iBT to measure students' speaking proficiency.

The major shift in the field of speaking proficiency testing was the emergence of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) which is currently used as a reference point to design speaking proficiency descriptors by many international tests. The CEFR descriptors have witnessed a gradual change over time to cope with the latest trends in language teaching, learning and communication. CEFR organized language proficiency in six levels: A1, A2, B1, B2, C1 and C2 (A1 = the lowest proficiency level and C2 = the highest proficiency level). Each level was divided into four kinds of competences (speaking, writing, listening and reading) and it described what a candidate is able to do in the four language skills at that proficiency level.

The last point discussed by Tavakoli and Wright (2020) that is worth mentioning here is the assessment of fluency based on subjective ratings (human ratings) and objective ratings

(machine ratings). On this point, there is a consensus among researchers that subjective ratings are subject to a degree of errors for the strong influence of raters on the assessment of L2 oral fluency performance (e.g., Brown, Iwashita & McNamara 2005; Duijm, Schoonen & Hulstijn 2018; In'nami & Koizumi 2016; Kang, Rubin & Kermad 2019). For them, several factors may influence raters' speaking assessment; such as raters' social attitudes, experience, professional background, knowledge, leniency and academic background among other variables; such as task effects and rating scales. According to Tavakoli and Wright (2020), the expected errors in the subjective rating of fluency stem from the multifaceted and complex nature of fluency and from the unclear definitions of fluency across various rating scales.

On the other hand, it is claimed by Tavakoli and Wright (2020) that the use of objective ratings in the form of automatic computer-based programs may reduce costs, save time and decrease errors in the measurement process while at the same time enhancing the scoring system consistency, resulting in a more accurate and reliable assessment of speaking proficiency in general and fluency in particular.

Based on this, it is expected that automated assessment programs of fluency may soon replace other human rating systems in the area of language testing. For Tavakoli and Wright (2020), temporal measures of fluency such as break-down fluency and speed fluency can accurately and consistently be measured using automated assessment programs when compared to the inconsistent and variable scores usually obtained through subject ratings.

2.2.4.1.1. Current Issues in L2 Oral Fluency Measurements

Although the use of temporal factors as indices of L2 fluency development was not controversial in the literature, the temporal factors that can be used to best measure oral fluency were debated issues (e.g., Ellis 2009; Michel 2017; Segalowitz 2010). For example, the study carried out by Kormos and Dénes (2004) on Hungarian L2 students in which the researchers employed computer technology to help measure students' oral fluency showed that pace, phonation time ratio, mean length of runs and articulation rate are the most indicative measures of fluency. The results also exhibited that filled and unfilled pauses and repair measures have no influence on the perceptions of fluency and indicated that accuracy, as a non-temporal aspect of fluency, plays a vital role in fluency measurement.

Having similar results, the study by Bosker et al. (2013) showed the insignificance of repair measures on the perceptions of fluency. Contrary to the study by Kormos and Dénes (2004), the two studies by Foster and Skehan (1999) and Lennon (1990) found a positive correlation between fluency and the frequency of filled and unfilled pauses. de Jong et al. (2012) suggested the use of phonation time ratio instead of using silence measures as a precursor of L2 fluency.

The results of the study carried out by Cucchiarini, Strik and Boves (2000) on native Dutch speakers were intriguing. They exhibited that; (1) fluency can effectively and reliably be measured through expert listeners, (2) fluency measuring is highly influenced by speech speed and number of pauses, (3) fluency can accurately be measured through a number of automatically calculated measures encompassing number of pauses, articulation rate and mean length of runs, and (4) non-native speakers are less fluent than native speakers and the fluency measures of both are significantly different. In a more recent study by Cucchiarini, Strik and

Boves (2002), it was found that mean length of runs is the more accurate measure of fluency for intermediate students while phonation-time ratio and articulation rate are more indicative of fluency for language beginners.

Using articulation rate and mean length of runs as temporal measures of fluency with the help of native and non-native listeners as raters, Rossiter (2009) revealed that high articulation rate and low number of pauses lead to high fluency scores, whereas slow articulation rate and much use of fillers and self-repetition result in low fluency scores. In agreement with Kormos and Dénes (2004), the study by Rossiter (2009) considered accuracy as a very important non-temporal predictor of fluency among other non-temporal factors; such as vocabulary and pronunciation. However, in disagreement with Kormos and Dénes (2004), the pausing temporal factor by Rossiter (2009) affects evaluators' perception of fluency to a significant degree. Finally, the study by Préfontaine, Kormos & Johnson (2016) examined the temporal measures that affect raters' judgments of fluency. The findings from this study revealed that articulation rate, mean length of runs and length of pauses are the most temporal factors affecting rates' perception of fluency, while frequency of pauses is a less influential factor.

Based on this, we can say that a large range of measures were used in fluency studies and the results of research on the best measures were contradicting, making it difficult to compare the results to have a clear-cut conclusion on some certain measures that can predict oral fluency. Additionally, what made things more complicated was that some fluency measures were calculated in different ways (e.g., speech rate was calculated in two different ways: syllables per minute and words per minute), and thus, it was advised by Hunter (2017) to utilize only empirically-tested measures and to clearly describe how the measures are calculated.

Another issue was connected with the impact of L1 fluency on L2 fluency. On this issue, de Jong et al. (2015), Derwing (2017), Towell and Dewaele (2005) and Towell, Hawkins and Bazergui (1996) agreed with Fillmore's (1979) view on the importance of giving attention to L1 speakers' style, culture and preferences when measuring L2 fluency. An example of this, speakers who are inclined to make a lot of pauses in their first language are more likely to carry this inclination into their L2 oral production, and therefore, the question is about whether it is fair to judge L2 speakers' fluency performance without considering their L1 speaking style. It was then concluded by Lambert and Kormos (2014) that, in order to precisely measure L2 fluency, individual and situational factors should first be controlled.

The last point pertained to the increasing pattern towards the use of computer technology to analyze fluency. On this point, temporal factors were used to be counted in the literature manually, but with the proneness to get more accurate results for a large set of data, specialist software (Praat software) was recently utilized in the literature to automatically analyze temporal fluency (e.g., de Jong, Pacilly & Heeren 2021; Suzuki, Kormos & Uchihara 2021; Tavakoli, Campbell & McCormack 2016; Tavakoli, Nakatsuhara & Hunter 2020; Tavakoli & Uchihara 2019). Yet, to adequately employ this software, the analyzed speech should be clear; that is, it should be produced in a language laboratory away from any noisy environment; such as the classroom environment, otherwise the result may be irregular and/ or unclear recordings and then inaccurate analysis of the recorded data (Hunter 2017). It is worth mentioning that Praat is employed in this study to measure four temporal factors of fluency: pause frequency, average pause time, articulation rate (rate of speech within pauses) and phonation-time ratio (ratio of length of time spent in speaking), but the reasons why these temporal factors are

particularly selected and how they are operationalized are discussed in the following chapter (the methodology chapter).

2.2.4.2. Linguistic Complexity

2.2.4.2.1. Lexical Sophistication

Lexical sophistication is conceptualized by Read (1998) as the number of unusual or advanced words in a text or conversation. It involves the breadth and depth of writers', readers' and speakers' lexical knowledge (Meara 1996, 2005a; Read 1998). Lexical sophistication is considered important in different domains; such as artificial intelligence, cognitive science and educational psychology where text complexity, language production and learning trends are key areas of research (Kyle, Crossley & Berger 2018).

Having reviewed the literature about lexical sophistication, it was noticed that word frequency is the most common measure used to indicate students' word-naming times and lexical responses (Balota et al. 2004). Not only this, it was also used for its strong correlation with other related constructs; such as reading difficulty (Nation 2006) and speaking and writing proficiency (Kyle & Crossley 2015). However, other measures were also suggested in the literature as important indicators of learners' lexical knowledge and development; such as word range, academic language, n-gram frequency and psycholinguistic word properties (e.g., Adelman, Brown & Quesada 2006; Coxhead 2000; Crossley, Salsbury & McNamara 2012; Crossley, Subtirelu & Salsbury 2013; Gries 2008; Kyle & Crossley 2015; Kyle, Crossley & Berger 2018; McNamara, Crossley & McCarthy 2010; Simpson-Vlach & Ellis 2010). For the purpose of this study, three lexical features are used to measure students' performance in terms

of lexical sophistication (work frequency, word range and N-gram frequency), and therefore, they are elaborately discussed in the following lines.

As for word frequency (WF), this term refers to the number of times a word is mentioned in a written or spoken language based on a listed text corpus (Kyle, Crossley & Berger 2018). To explain this, some words are considered more sophisticated if they are less frequent in a text corpus; or in other words, speaking and writing samples that have higher frequency words in a corpus tend to get lower proficiency scores, and this close relationship between word frequency and lexical sophistication is well-established in a wide range of research. For example, research shows a close nexus between less frequent words and high speaking and writing proficiency levels (Kyle & Crossley 2015), between less frequent words and high writing qualities (McNamara et al. 2015) and between less frequent words and more reading difficulties (Crossley et al. 2007).

Literature also indicates that there are two main approaches for word frequency measures: the band-based and count-based approaches. Crossley, Cobb and McNamara (2013, p. 966) define these two approaches by saying that band-based frequency indices are those that "calculate word frequency as a function of frequency bands", while count-based frequency indices are those that "calculate word frequency as a function of word incidences as found in large-scale corpora". For them, the first approach measures word frequency by first grouping words into families and then classifying them into corpus-based frequency bands. The second approach measures word frequency by determining the frequency of words in the target text based on a reference corpus and then giving an average frequency score for the target text.

An example of the indices of the first approach is the Lexical Frequency Profiles (LFP) index, while the Coh-Metrix index is an example of the second approach (Crossley, Cobb &

McNamara 2013). Word frequency is calculated in LFP as follows: word families (e.g., go, goes, going, gone, went) are first rated based on the sum of all word members in a corpus; such as the British National Corpus (BNC), then lists of 1000 such families are categorized into bands based on their frequency (e.g., K-1 for the first 1000 word family list, K-2 for the second 1000 word family list, so on). The percentage of the produced words appearing in a particular band as calculated by a computer program (e.g., the online tool VocabProfile) can be used as an indicator of lexical sophistication. On the other hand, word frequency is measured in the second approach by first determining the frequency of each word in the target text based on a reference corpus (e.g., BNC), then an average score for the target text is established by counting all word frequency scores and dividing them by the number of words in the target text.

However, although both approaches are considered clear and successful measures to predict L2 learners' lexical, speaking and writing proficiency, the latter approach is considered more advantageous (Kyle & Crossley 2015). In this respect, according to Meara (2005b), using count-based approach provides a more accurate measurement of word frequency particularly when used with a large set of data, and thus, it is more preferable to be used to measure learners' vocabulary development. Advocating this, Crossley, Cobb and McNamara (2013) maintain that the count-based approach is more accurate in assessing learners' development of lexical sophistication and language production because there is nothing in this approach such as grouping words into families or splitting frequencies into bands of families of 1000 words. It is, therefore, recommended by Horst and Collins (2006) to use count-based indices to detect any changes in learners' lexical sophistication development because any progress in learners' lexical development over short periods of time should happen only within not between bands, and this latter approach is the one embraced by the researcher of this study to measure word frequency.

Concerning with word range (WR), this term is defined by Kyle, Crossley and Berger (2018, p. 1031) as “the number of texts in a corpus in which a particular item occurs”. For Kyle and Crossley (2015, p. 760), it measures “how widely a word or word family is used, usually by providing a count of the number of documents in which that word occurs”. They give an example of the words “four”, “next” and “cent” and say that these words occur in the written BNC corpus as follows (34.290, 34.590, and 34.367 respectively), showing almost the same number of occurrences and then similar significance. Notwithstanding, these words do not have the same word range values; the words “four” and “next” appear almost in 90% of BNC documents, while the word “cent” appears in about half of BNC documents, indicating the popularity of both “four” and “next” words across texts and then less sophisticated than the word “cent”.

Explaining its importance, it is argued by many researchers (e.g., Adelman, Brown & Quesada 2006; Johns & Jones 2008; Kyle & Crossley 2015) that word frequency may not be, by itself, a good indicator of lexical sophistication since some technical words may appear frequently in a given corpus and not in another especially if the spoken or written discourse requires general language use which may lead to the inflation of word frequency values in that given corpus. According to Kyle, Crossley and Berger (2018), here comes the significance of word range to control this inflation.

Word range is recently used in the literature to measure speaking and lexical proficiency levels (Kyle & Crossley 2015), to model the quality of writing (Kyle & Crossley 2016) and to explicate the variance in word frequency across different corpora (Adelman, Brown & Quesada 2006). It is also used in the literature to make a distinction between the frequent verbs produced by both L1 and L2 speakers of English (Crossley, Subtirelu & Salsbury 2013). Again, the

general view from all these studies is that the production of less common words across texts is an indication of more sophisticated lexical performance.

With regard to N-gram frequency, this term is defined by Shaoul, Westbury and Baayen (2013, p. 497) as "any combination of two or more words, and are not restricted to complete, compositional phrases (both *the red hat* and *give the red* are considered n-grams)". It represents a shift in the way lexical items are measured from the focus on single words to the focus on larger units (Biber, Conrad & Cortes 2004).

N-gram frequency is lately used in the literature to measure both speaking and lexical proficiency levels (Kyle & Crossley 2015), to check the quality of writing (e.g., Crossley, Cai & McNamara 2012; Kyle & Crossley 2016) and to identify first language authors based on their L2 writings and the impact of L1 on L2 production (e.g., Jarvis & Crossley 2012; Kyle et al. 2013). Literature also exhibits that N-gram frequencies positively correlate with proficiency/quality scores (Crossley, Cai & McNamara 2012), revealing that the ability to combine words is an indication of linguistic complexity development, and particularly it is an indication of lexical sophistication. According to Crossley, Salsbury & McNamara (2010) and Kyle, Crossley and Berger (2018), some certain bigrams (e.g., in conclusion, to be) and trigrams (e.g., a lot of, the end of, some of the) are combinations that appear frequently in natural language use based on the COCA corpus, and therefore, their occurrence in the examined samples is predictive of advanced level of language production.

2.2.4.2.2. Lexical Diversity

Lexical diversity is simply defined by Baese-Berk et al. (2021) as the variation of words in a text or conversation, with a greater variation showing a higher lexical diversity. It is the opposite

of repetition in that a speech or a text is considered lexically diverse if it includes less repetitive words (Jarvis 2013). Agreeing with this, González (2017, p.3) states that lexical diversity measures "a text's ability to use a number of different words in order to limit repetition". It is being largely used in the literature to measure L2 speaking proficiency, writing quality, written lexical proficiency, writing and speaking development and lexical complexity and knowledge (e.g., Crossley et al. 2011; Hammou, Larouz & Fagroud 2021; Kyle, Crossley & Jarvis 2021; Malvern et al. 2008; Vidal & Jarvis 2018; Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki & Kim 1998; Yu 2010; Zareva, Schwanenflugel & Nikolova 2005). The underlying assumption is that there is a close nexus between lexical diversity and L2 learners' lexical proficiency and knowledge; that is, advanced language learners are able to use a wide variety of words.

Lexical diversity is computed in the literature using various measures and one of the simplest and widely known measures is the Type-Token Ratio (TTR) in which lexical diversity is calculated by counting the total number of different words (types) in a text divided by the total number of words (tokens) (e.g., Johnson 1944; Kyle, Crossley & Jarvis 2021; Zenker & Kyle 2021). However, due to its significance in assessing lexical diversity and their widespread use in different fields as mentioned above, Zenker and Kyle (2021) contend that lexical diversity indices should provide reliable values. On this matter, literature shows that TTR provides unreliable diversity values as it is found that the number of repeated words increases as the text grows longer (e.g., Koizumi & In'nami 2012; Laufer & Nation 1995; Malvern et al. 2008).

As a result, researchers in the area started to develop other measures of lexical diversity that take into account the text length issue; such as corrected TTR, Root TTR, Log TTR, Characteristic *K*, the Measure of Textual Lexical Diversity (MTLD), Moving Average TTR (MATTR) and HD-D/ vocd-D index (e.g., Carroll 1964; Chotlos 1944; Covington & McFall

2010; Guiraud 1960; Herdan 1960; Malvern & Richards 1997; McCarthy 2005; McCarthy & Jarvis 2007, 2010; Richards & Malvern 1997; Vidal & Jarvis 2018; Yule 2014). Unfortunately, some of these indices were reported to strongly correlate with text length; such as Guiraud's (1960) index, Log TTR and Root TTR.

For example, the study by Hess, Sefton and Landry (1986) analyzed about 50 spoken samples from 83 pre-school participants using indices such as Characteristic *K*, Log TTR, Root TTR, simple TTR and corrected TTR. The researchers of this study realized that showing the correlation between lexical diversity and length of text on the investigated participants using a variety of samples with different lengths is not useful for their research because it will lead to confusion during the analysis. To tackle this issue, they adopted the parallel sampling technique in that each sample was clipped to a text of the first 200 tokens. After this, each text was split into a number of sub-texts (a total of 8 sub-texts) with different text lengths (one text of 200 words, one text of 150 words, two texts of 100 words and four texts of 50 words). Each text was given a score for lexical diversity and the texts of the same length were given an average score. A further analysis of data was conducted using repeated measures ANOVAs to compare the results. The findings showed that all examined lexical diversity measures were affected by the length of texts to a significant degree. It was concluded that these lexical diversity measures are unreliable to compare texts of different lengths.

Having similar results, the study conducted by Hess, Haug and Landry (1989) analyzed the spoken samples of 52 primary school participants to check the correlation between text length and the four versions of TTR: Log TTR, Root TTR, simple TTR and corrected TTR. Using the same parallel sampling technique in scoring the research data and the repeated

measures ANOVAs analysis to compare the results, it was concluded that the four versions of TTR are not suitable to compare texts of different lengths.

More recently, McCarthy and Jarvis (2007) examined the relationship between lexical diversity indices and length of text using a corpus of 23 genres taken from the Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English, the Glencoe Science Corpus, the Lancaster-Oslo/Bergen Corpus, the Wellington Corpus of Spoken New Zealand English, the London-Lund Corpus and the Brown Corpus. Using the parallel sampling technique, the researchers first selected nine representative samples from each genre, and then they divided these samples into texts of 11 different lengths. After that, vocd-D scores were given for each section and the sections of the same text length were given an average score. The findings revealed a strong correlation between text length and the vocd-D scores on the Pearson correlation analysis test.

Fortunately, other lexical diversity indices; such as MTLD Original, Moving-Average Wrapped MTLD (MTLD-MA Wrap) and MATTR were reported in the literature as relatively having resistance to variations in text length (e.g., Covington & McFall 2010; Hammou, Larouz & Fagroud 2021; Koizumi 2012; Koizumi & In'nami 2012; McCarthy 2005; McCarthy & Jarvis 2010; Zenker & Kyle 2021). For example, Koizumi (2012) examined MTLD, vocd-D, TTR and Root TTR using spoken English samples from 20 L1 Japanese learners. Using the parallel sampling technique, each sample was first clipped to a text of the first 200 words then divided into 25 sub-texts ranging from 50 to 200 words. The texts were scored for lexical diversity and the texts of same length were given an average score. Using the repeated measures ANOVAs tool to compare the results of five different length ranges (50-200, 100-200, 150-200, 100-150 and 50-100), it was shown that MTLD was the only measure that produced stable values at roughly 100 tokens. Support the results of the study by Koizumi (2012), Koizumi and In'nami

(2012) investigated the relationship between text length and six lexical diversity measures (MTLD, HD-D, vocd-D, Maas, TTR and Root TTR) using spoken English samples from 38 L1 Japanese learners. It was concluded from this study that only MTLD provides stable values at roughly 100 tokens.

The study by Zenker and Kyle (2021) examined the resistance of nine lexical diversity indices to text length effects in about 4542 L2 written essays taken from the International Corpus Network of Asian Learners of English (ICNALE). The nine lexical diversity indices included TTR, Root TTR, Log TTR, Maas' index, MATTR, HD-D, MTLD, Moving-average bidirectional MTLD (MTLD-MA BI) and MTLD-MA Wrap. Based on their scores on a standardized English proficiency test; such as the test of English for international communication (TOEIC) or the test of English as a foreign language (TOEFL) and a L2 vocabulary size test, the examined L2 English essay writers were sorted into proficiency groups (B2, B1, A2) according to CEFR.

Clipping each essay into the first 200 words was the first step in analyzing the data, followed by subdividing each essay into texts of about 50 to 200 words per text. The texts were marked for lexical diversity and the texts of same length were given an average score. The degree of correlation between lexical diversity scores and text length was further assessed to check the point of stabilization (with *r*-values below .100 representing a small effect size). Moreover, to examine the impact of proficiency level and essay prompt on the lexical diversity scores, linear mixed-effects modeling in R software (the lmerTest package) was utilized with "participant" as a random effect and both "level" and "prompt" as fixed effects. This package was particularly used because it was claimed to provide easy to interpret and reliable output for mixed effect models (Kuznetsova, Brockhoff & Christensen 2017). The results from this study

revealed that MATTR, MTLD Original and MTLD-MA Wrap are the most resistant to text length of all indices examined in the study. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, those three robust lexical diversity indices are used in the current study to measure students' lexical diversity knowledge and development: MTLD Original, MTLD-MA Wrap and MATTR.

2.2.4.2.3. Syntactic Complexity

Syntactic complexity is conceptualized as the range, degree of sophistication and elaboration of the forms that appear in language production (e.g., Bulté & Housen 2014; Lu 2011; Norris & Ortega 2009; Ortega 2003; Yin, Gao & Lu 2021). It is also defined by Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki and Kim (1998) as the ability to use a wide range of basic and sophisticated structures and the ability to get access to them quickly during the language production process.

Being a part of the larger linguistic complexity construct, syntactic complexity is used in the literature as a predictor of writing quality, language development and language proficiency (e.g., Benevento & Storch 2011; Biber, Gray & Poonpon 2011; Biber, Gray & Staples 2016; Bulté & Housen 2014; Gyllstad et al. 2014; Jin, Lu & Ni 2020; Kyle & Crossley 2017, 2018; Lahuerta Martínez 2018; Li & Flowerdew 2020; Lu 2011; Lu, Casal & Liu 2020; Norris & Ortega 2009; Serrano, Tragant & Llanes 2012; Storch & Tapper 2009). The general assumption is that increased syntactic complexity in language production by learners is an indication of language learners' development and/ or proficiency.

Syntactic complexity is also used in the literature to predict syntactic complexity development across learners' different proficiency levels and over time. For example, various studies aimed to analyze written and spoken samples produced by L1 and L2 learners at different proficiency levels to get insight into the relationship between syntactic complexity and

L2 learners' proficiency levels (e.g., Ai & Lu 2013; Díez-Bedmar & Perez-Paredes 2020; Jiang, Bi & Liu 2019; Lu 2011; Mancilla, Polat & Akcay 2015; Verspoor, Schmid & Xu 2012; Youn 2014). Others tended to examine a group of L2 learners over a period of time to track L2 syntactic growth (e.g., Benevento & Storch 2011; Bulté & Housen 2014; Mazgutova & Kormos 2015; Menke & Strawbridge 2019; Storch 2009; Vyatkina 2013; Yoon & Polio 2017). Taken together, the results from these studies showed that, despite the difference in L2 Learners' proficiency levels, the tasks employed and the indices used, there was a positive correlation between syntactic complexity and language learners' development, that increased complexity was an indication of language proficiency or development and that complex phrases increased with both proficiency and learning time. Therefore, recognizing its importance, various syntactic complexity measures were proposed and developed by SLA researchers to precisely gauge this construct (e.g., Biber, Gray & Poonpon 2011; Graesser, McNamara & Kulikowich 2011; Kyle & Crossley 2017, 2018; Lu 2010).

To identify the most common measures used with syntactic complexity in SLA research, three pioneering research syntheses by Bulté and Housen (2012), Ortega (2003) and Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki and Kim (1998) were reviewed. Starting with the study conducted by Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki and Kim (1998), they reviewed L2 syntactic complexity measures and made a link between these measures and L2 writing development. Across their research, 32 studies published during the period between 1974 and 1996 were examined and the syntactic measures used by these studies were divided into three categories: indices, ratios and frequencies. The frequency measures were calculated by counting the number of specific structures, the ratio measures were scored by counting the number or length of one base unit (the most common

base units are clauses, T-units and sentences) in relation to another base unit and the index measures were gauged based on their syntactic complexity.

Hunt (1965) defines clauses as a group of words with a subject and a finite verb and it includes many types; such as main clauses, independent clauses, and nominal, adverbial and adjective clauses. According to Homburg (1984), the nominal, adverbial and adjective clauses are dependent clauses which, unlike independent clauses, cannot stand alone as a separate sentence and they should start with subordinators such as “which”, “if”, and “when”. A T-unit is a main clause and its dependent clauses, or as defined by Hunt (1965, p. 20), it is “one main clause with all subordinate clauses attached to it”. A sentence is defined by Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki and Kim (1998, p. 84) as “a group of words delimited with a punctuation mark”.

The frequency measures highlighted in the research synthesis by Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki and Kim (1998) included articles, pronouns, nominal clauses, adjective clauses, adverbial clauses, dependent clauses, reduced clauses, passives, preposed adjectives, connectors, coordinating connectors, subordinating connectors, transitional connectors, prepositional phrases and passive sentences. The ratio measures encompassed clauses per error-free T-unit (C/EFT), coordinate clauses per T-unit (CC/T), adverbial clauses per T-unit (AdvC/T), dependent clauses per T-unit (DC/T), dependent clauses ratio (DC/C), clause length (MLC), T-unit length (MLT), T-unit complexity ratio (C/T), sentence length (MLS), coordinate phrases per T-unit (CP/T), sentence complexity ratio (C/S), complex nominals per T-unit (CN/T), complex T-unit ratio (CT/T), passives per sentence (P/S), passives per clause (P/C), passives per T-unit (P/T), dependent infinitives per T-unit (DI/T) and sentence coordination ratio (T/S). The index measures were calculated by complexity index, complexity formula and coordination

index. It was concluded from this research synthesis that DC/T, DC/C, C/T, MLC, and MLT are the most common measures of L2 syntactic complexity.

As for the other two syntheses, Bulté and Housen (2012) reviewed 40 task-based studies and Ortega (2003) reviewed 5 longitudinal and 21 cross-sectional studies. They both aimed to identify the best measures used to gauge L2 syntactic complexity. The researchers of both studies categorized the measures of syntactic complexity into three categories: global measures, measures at phrasal, clausal and sentential levels and frequency measures. Based on these two syntheses, the global measures included mean length of T-unit (MLT), mean length of C-unit, mean length of turn, mean length of AS-unit, mean length of utterance, mean length of sentence (MLS), S-nodes/ T-unit, and S-nodes/ AS-unit. The measures at sentential, clausal and phrasal levels encompassed T-unit/ sentence (T/S), coordinated clauses/ clauses, clauses/ AS-unit, clauses/ C-unit, clauses/ T-unit (C/T), dependent clauses/ clause (DC/C), number of subordinated clauses, subordinate clauses/ clauses (SC/C), subordinate clauses/ dependent clauses (SC/DC), subordinate clauses/ T-unit (SC/T), relative clauses/ T-unit (RC/T), verb phrases/ T-unit (VP/T), mean length of clause (MLC), S-nodes/ clause, syntactic arguments/ clause, dependents/ (noun, verb) phrase. The frequency measures contained frequency of passive forms, frequency of infinitival phrases, frequency of conjoined forms, frequency of Wh-clauses, frequency of imperatives, frequency of auxiliaries, frequency of comparatives, and frequency of conditionals.

It was concluded from the study by Ortega (2003) that DC/C, T/S, C/T, MLC, MLT and MLS are the most common measures used to predict L2 syntactic complexity development. The study by Bulté and Housen (2012) demonstrated the popularity of C/T, MLC, MLT, SC/T, SC/DC, SC/C, and DC/C in L2 writing syntactic complexity research. Therefore, based on the

above literature, it was found that C/T (clauses per T-unit), MLC (mean length of clauses), MLT (mean length of T-units) and DC/C (dependent clauses per clause) were frequent measures of L2 syntactic complexity, and thus, they are used in this study to examine the syntactic level of the research sample.

2.2.4.2.4. Current Issues in L2 Linguistic Complexity Measurements

As reviewed and indicated above, most of research papers tend to interpret more linguistic complexity in L2 learners' speeches or writings as an indicator of higher level of language proficiency. Notwithstanding, many scholars and researchers in the area criticize this tendency and ask researchers to be careful in their interpretation of research results based on this view, contending that the dynamic process of L2 development does not support the linear development of linguistic complexity (e.g., Lambert & Kormos 2014; Larsen-Freeman 2006; Michel 2017; Pallotti 2009; White & Robinson 1995). To explain this, Lambert and Kormos (2014) aver that intermediate-level learners may use more advanced linguistic structures than their higher-level pairs as a result of the social and active process of learning. In the same vein, White and Robinson (1995) predicate that higher proficiency learners do not rely heavily on their linguistic resources to complete a task but rather on their experience with the use of the intended language. Based on this, we can conclude that higher complexity might be an indicator of higher level of language proficiency but this should not be a general rule.

Another issue is raised by Michel (2017) who claims that since linguistic complexity is a multi-dimensional construct; that is, it includes both lexical and syntactic complexity and each sub-construct also has its own components and measures, this makes the choice of what components and measures should be used and employed to gauge L2 learners' development is

not an easy task as the choices will directly affect research results. Adding to this, it is argued by Bosker et al. (2013), Norris and Ortega (2009) and Suzuki and Kormos (2019) among others that co-linear measures (e.g., HD-D index, Guiraud's index and TTR) should be avoided because they tap into one complexity dimension (the lexical diversity dimension in the given example). For them, it is preferable to use indices that measure different complexity dimensions and that are able to predict the developmental changes of learners at different proficiency levels. For example, Norris and Ortega (2009) suggest measuring coordination (e.g., number of coordinated phrases) as a predictor of syntactic complexity of beginners, verbal subordination (e.g., number of subordinate clauses) as an indication of syntactic complexity for learners at intermediate levels and information nominalization (e.g., number of nominal phrases) for students at advanced levels.

However, the idea of using specific measures at certain proficiency levels is declined by Lambert and Kormos (2014) and Schmid, Verspoor and MacWhinney (2011) among others as being improper to predict learners' development, and they suggest using different types of measures at different points of the developmental process of learners instead. For them, measuring subordination at syntactic level suggests the development of three syntactic processes: nominal clause, adverbial clauses and relative clauses, and those three syntactic processes are not developed at the same time as relative clauses continue to develop into adulthood. This was supported by the two studies conducted by Nippold et al. (2005) and Nippold, Ward-Lonergan and Fanning (2005) in which the researchers examined the impact of age in three age groups (11, 17 and 20-29 years) on the three syntactic processes of nominal clauses, adverbial clauses and relative clauses. The results from these two studies indicated no significant impact for age on overall subordination. However, post hoc analyses showed that,

unlike nominal and adverbial clause, relative clauses continued to develop at the age group from 20 to 29 years.

Finally, many researchers argue that linguistic complexity can be affected by some variables; such as discourse genre, mode of production, task type, task condition, L1 background and individuals' characteristics, and for researchers to be able to accurately measure learners' linguistic complexity development, such variables should be controlled (e.g., Berman 2008; Biber, Gray & Staples 2016; Byrnes, Maxim & Norris 2010; Larsen-Freeman 2006; Lu 2011; Lu & Ai 2015; Michel 2017; Nippold 2004; Norris & Manchon 2012; Pallotti 2009; Yang, Lu & Weigle 2015; Yoon & Polio 2017). For example, the study by Yoon and Polio (2017) revealed that non-narrative genres urge L1 and L2 learners to express their ideas and feelings using more complex language than do narrative genres. Also, the study by Lu and Ai (2015) concluded that syntactic complexity development of L2 learners vary based on their L1 background even with the homogeneity of learners in terms of their proficiency levels prior to the study.

2.2.5. Teachers' Belief Construct

The construct "teachers' belief", despite being widely used in different domains; such as pedagogy, philosophy and psychology, is still vague, which necessitates further analysis and explication to its meaning and conceptualization (Borg 2015). On this matter, Gilakjani and Sabouri (2017) explain why this concept is very confusing as it is used interchangeably with other concepts; such as teachers' attitudes, perceptions, opinions, judgments, thoughts, values, conceptions and ideologies among others. Therefore, the researcher finds it important to review

the main definitions of this concept and to agree on one general meaning to avoid any concept-related confusion.

An early attempt to define the construct "teachers' beliefs" was noticed in the work of Dewey (1960) in which teachers' belief is the knowledge that teachers have about a specific area and think that this knowledge is true, but, at the same time, it should not be taken for granted as it might be questioned later. Some early studies related teachers' beliefs to what they think and how they make careful decisions and create active interaction with the classroom environment (e.g., Bussis, Chittenden & Amarel 1976; Clark & Yinger 1977; Shulman & Elstein 1975). It was quite remarkable from these studies that the researchers focused in their definition of teachers' belief on teachers' thinking and their thought processes rather than on their feelings.

The early trial to add teachers' feelings to teachers' thought processes was the study carried out by Marland (1977) in which the researcher asked the participants to give his feelings and thoughts regarding the issues that may influence their decision making. The researcher introduced teachers' feelings as an integral part of their cognitive processing, arguing for the influence of the experience of feelings on teachers' decision making.

There were also endeavors in the early 1980s to define teachers' beliefs as a synonym to teachers' knowledge (e.g., Elbaz 1981, 1983) in which the researcher introduced the concept "teachers' practical knowledge" and related it to teachers' knowledge of the subject matter, teaching context, curriculum, methods of instruction and self. Based on this construct, teachers are recognized as the main makers of knowledge and this knowledge is gained through teachers' practice of different teaching methods and their abidance to the rules of practice in the applied methods (Elbaz 1983). She identified five sources of practical knowledge: theoretical,

experiential, situational, personal and social knowledge, and asserted that these five sources should holistically be considered as an integral part of knowledge.

The research by Richardson (1996) was outstanding as it made a distinction between teachers' beliefs and teachers' knowledge through what was called the "truth condition". According to her, knowledge makes teachers feel satisfaction towards the truth condition and at the same time lays concrete evidence on this truth condition while beliefs do not need it. Expanding on this, Griffin and Ohlsson (2001) insisted that each of the two concepts; knowledge and belief, represents a certain aspect in human mind, as knowledge represents an assumption while belief expresses the truth value accompanied with an assumption.

Kagan (1990) defined this teachers' belief from another angle by saying that it is all about teachers' understanding of their roles, responsibilities, duties as well as their understanding of the nature of learning and educational goals. Another definition was yielded by Pajares (1992) who said that it is teachers' judgment of what is true or false based on their understanding of what should be done in a specific area. In the same vein, it was defined by Pederson and Liu (2003) as the interpretation of teachers' experience gained through continual evaluation and judgment on a specific area. Moreover, teachers' belief was defined by Richards and Lockhart (1994) as having two dimensions; teachers' roles in any instructional material and their understanding of the educational system under which they operate.

Building on the recommendations of the study carried out by Elbaz (1983) regarding the five aspects of teachers' beliefs or knowledge, many researchers started to define teachers' beliefs in a more holistic way. That is to say, a comprehensive definition of teachers' beliefs was popularized by many researchers to include all above definitions (e.g., Borg 2003, 2009, 2012, 2015; Burns 1992; Burns, Freeman & Edwards 2015; Johnson 1994; Woods 1996). They

introduced the concept “teachers’ cognition” as an ideal replacement of “teachers’ belief” to refer to what teachers think, believe and know about a specific area, and this included teachers’ knowledge, conceptions, attitudes, beliefs, assumptions, images, perspectives and metaphors about students, teachers, learning, teaching, subject matter, instructional materials, classroom activities, curricula and self.

Based on this comprehensive definition, it was spotted that it focused more on the mental structure of teachers as the above researchers related this concept to what teachers know, think and do in classrooms, reflecting the cognitive processes that transpire in their mind. One of the most cited definitions of teachers’ cognition was the one given by Borg (2003, p. 81) in which this concept was described as concentrating on “the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching - what teachers know, believe, and think”. This definition was used in many research papers among researchers who sought for getting into the hidden part of teaching by reaching the inner side of teachers (e.g., Borg 2015; Burns, Freeman & Edwards 2015; Freeman 1996; Kochem 2021).

Nevertheless, recognizing the importance of feelings in describing what is inside teachers as explained above, various researchers in their definition of teachers’ cognition added what teachers feel to what they think and do (e.g., Damasio 2008; Hargreaves 2000; Nias 1996). For them, teachers’ cognition, feelings and actions should not be separated but rather they should be integrally linked, which means that it is not possible to explore teachers’ cognition without accounting for their feelings. In this regard, according to Nias (1996, p. 294), “teachers’ emotions are rooted in cognitions…one cannot separate feelings from perception, affectivity from judgment”. In his later work, Borg (2012, p.12) himself did not neglect the role of feeling in providing a good picture of teachers’ cognition towards a phenomenon by saying that “the

study of teacher cognition, given its concern for understanding the unobservable dimension of teachers' lives, in no way excludes attention to emotions". Yet, recalling the list provided by Borg (2012) to the components of cognition which included teachers' attitudes, beliefs, thinking, assumptions, knowledge, theories, decision making, principles and conceptions, it was quite apparent that the researcher did not put "feelings" on the list.

After this, realizing that his earlier definitions of teachers' cognition were not comprehensive as they focused mainly on teachers' mental structures without recognizing the role of other critical elements; such as the social, emotional, historical and cultural elements, Borg (2019, p. 1167) defined teachers' cognition as "inquiry which seeks, with reference to their personal, professional, social, cultural and historical contexts, to understand teachers' minds and emotions and the role these play in the process of becoming, being and developing as a teacher". Agreeing with him, Ahmad, Farid and Hussain (2021) reported that teachers' cognition is influenced by a number of factors including teachers' experience, training, education, family and teaching context.

Similarly, assuring Borg's view towards teachers' cognition, Gokce and Kecik (2021) explored language teachers' cognition in terms of the impact of four factors of teachers' cognition: schooling, classroom practice, context and professional coursework, on students' abilities to speak the target language. The schooling factor included teachers' prior knowledge and beliefs as observed from their teachers at the time when they were still students before having the necessary qualifications and knowledge to be teachers. The classroom practice factor was the practice of teaching and the impact of the experience gained through it on teachers' instructional decisions in the classroom. The contextual factor covered all educational, political, economic and social components of the world in which the teachers lived and particularly the

educational institution they represented. Finally, the professional coursework factor was a reference to the training programs provided as necessary to improve teachers' teaching abilities and skills.

Substantiating the importance of considering these factors when exploring teachers' cognition, Haukås, Mercer and Svalberg (2021) maintained that it is important to realize that the teaching process in not isolated from the outer world as it is linked to teachers' cultural, political, social factors and teachers' practices. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, the construct "teachers' belief" is defined as having the same meaning as the term "teachers' cognition" by Borg (2019) to understand what is meant by this construct from the researcher's viewpoint and also to provide more clarification to the second research question.

2.2.6. Language Teachers' Belief & Innovation

According to Borg (2013) and Sun, Wei and Young (2020), the investigation into language teachers' belief opens teachers' eyes on some innovative instructional practices and teaching ideas that they may need to exercise in the classroom to improve their teaching, leading to effective language teaching practices by teachers and then effective language learning by students. In this respect, Sun, Wei and Young (2020) vocalize that teachers' beliefs towards language teaching pedagogies are pivotal to foster curriculum reform and teachers' instructional choices in the classroom. Borg (2013) asserts that not only students' learning of the four basic language skills (speaking, listening, writing and reading) is affected by language teachers' beliefs but students' achievement, motivation, progress in addition to learning environment are also influenced by language teachers' beliefs.

To explain this in view of the related literature, a myriad of research explored the relationship between language teachers' belief and all above critical areas of research and they all demonstrated and confirmed the close linkage between them (e.g., Ahmad, Farid & Hussain 2021; Borg 2015; Gokce & Kecik 2021; Haukås, Mercer & Svalberg 2021; Pitikornpuangpetch & Suwanarak 2021; Pookcharoen 2016; Rahman, Singh & Pandian 2018; Sun, Wei & Young 2020). All these studies concluded that students are directly influenced by language teachers' beliefs towards a certain instructional practice, with a significant impact on their achievement. Another significant aspect drawn from these studies was that language teachers' teaching practices, performance, behavior, professional development, language instruction, instructional choice and planning are also affected by their beliefs. Those researchers explained this by saying that, teachers are always considered a highly recognized decision makers in the educational process who are, at all times, able to make immediate decisions in favor of the language teaching and learning process, and these decisions are hugely contingent on their experience, feelings, thoughts and beliefs acquired and developed in the classroom over time. For example, if a teacher experiences a new language teaching strategy other than the one he/she is used to adopt in the classroom, and he/she notices its greater influence on students' language learning, then he/she will, more likely, be going to apply it in the classroom as being the easiest and the best way to achieve the set goals and objectives, and this is the real innovation in the classroom.

Recognizing its significance in making the process of language teaching more innovative, researchers in the field of teachers' cognition started to dig deep by exploring the factors affecting teachers' cognition and practices to understand the relationship between them and to know the impact of such factors on teachers' teaching practices in the classroom, aiming

at reaching the most favorable elements that can be used to promote effective teaching practices in the classroom. For example, Ahmad, Farid and Hussain (2021) explored the relationship between the attitudes of decision makers of the educational process including teachers, students and administrators and different contextual factors in an English as a foreign language (EFL) setting in Saudi Arabia. By looking into both students' and administrators' perceptions, the researchers of this study aimed to get better understanding of the contextual factors influencing teachers' cognition. This study found a strong connection between teachers' cognition and some contextual factors; such as teachers' efficacy, educational policies, students' attitude towards English as a second language and societal support system. It also reported some challenges faced by teachers in L2 classrooms which if carefully addressed, they will lead to better instructional choices and then more effective L2 teaching and learning. These challenges included the restrictions imposed by administrations and/ or institutional policies on teachers' teaching practices, improper assessment systems, large-sized classes, insufficient teaching time, students' negative beliefs towards English as a second language, students' lack of motivation, ill-planned educational policies and lack of societal support.

The study by Gao and Zhou (2021) was also significant as it aimed to explore the relationship between teachers' beliefs towards the medium of instruction and their teaching practices in the Chinese context. The results from this study showed a conflict between teachers' beliefs and the way L2 should be functioned or taught in the classroom. To explain this, despite recognizing its importance in creating a foreign language environment for students to improve their language skills, the participating teachers were at odds towards the use of foreign languages as tools to receive input and enhance teacher-student interaction. To explain more, some teachers preferred using foreign languages as a medium for instruction to facilitate

language learning and practice while others preferred using the native language particularly with advanced subjects or with students of low proficiency levels.

In the same vein, Pitikornpuangpetch and Suwanarak (2021) studied the relationship between EFL teachers' beliefs towards the use of CLT and their current teaching practices in the Tai EFL context using classroom observations, semi-structured interviews and fieldnotes as research instruments to glean the research data. The results from this study showed a tension in this relationship as the teachers voiced their inclination towards the use of CLT in L2 classes to help improve students' language communicative competence; however, their teaching practices were highly dependent on the teacher-centered approach in which the participating teachers were fully involved in the learning process. To further explain the results, all teachers attempted to employ CLT to improve students' speaking abilities but in their actual practices they used a mixed-teaching approach consisting of a little of CLT principles and much of the grammar-translation method (GTM) principles. The reasons for their reluctance to the application of all CLT principles varied to encompass insufficient class time, large-sized classes, improper assessment systems, inadequate teaching materials, teachers' familiarity with GTM, educational policy restrictions and teachers' prior experience with GTM when leaning the second language in their childhood among others.

Similar to this, the study by Gokce and Kecik (2021) reported on some problems against the application of CLT to enhance students' speaking abilities. These problems included students' low proficiency and knowledge level, students' lack of motivation, students' fear of making mistakes, students' reluctance, students' anxiety, students' stress, inadequate instructional material, limited availability of time, insufficient speaking activities, inadequate assessment system, large-sized classes and lack of academic and administrative support. For the

researchers, if these problems are solved, the teaching process will be more effective with more desirable outcomes on teachers' development and learners' learning.

From all above, language teachers' belief is found to have a great impact on teachers' performance, behavior, professional development, instructional choice and planning. This ensures teachers' innovation in the classroom provided that the factors influencing their cognition and practices are carefully considered. These factors are identified to include teachers' personal, professional, historical, cultural and social factors. The result will be, as argued by the above literature, more innovation in the classroom leading to more effective language teaching practices and then better language learning, and this the pinnacle of innovation in the field of L2 teaching and learning.

Finally, as a way to enhance teachers' professional development and innovation, East (2019), Sun, Wei and Young (2020) and Zheng and Borg (2014) call for teachers' training on how to do reflective analysis of their own teaching which may include transcribing, commenting on and identifying the factors influencing their own work. For them, providing specialized training will enable teachers to keep up with the latest trends of language teaching. Explaining what kind of training should be provided, Mitchell, Myles and Marsden (2019) ask for teachers' training on different approaches to language teaching to broaden the range of their instructional choices, allowing them to selectively choose or successfully develop the teaching practices that best suit their students leading to effective language learning.

2.2.7. Definitions of a Task

Literature shows that there are various definitions of a "task", and these definitions vary both in formation and in scope as per the context in which they are used. In this regard, Crookes (1986)

insists that there is no complete consensus as to what forms a task, leading to a problem in defining it. Table (1) chronologically exhibits various meanings of a task as defined by the SLA scholars and theoreticians in order to establish a clear-cut definition for the purpose of this study.

Author	Definition
Long (1985)	Tasks are the works done by people in everyday life wherever they are, whether freely or for a reward, and this definition is not a pedagogical one. Examples of tasks encompass taking a hotel reservation, buying new shoes, borrowing a book from a library, typing a letter, translating a paper and teaching a lesson.
Richards, Platt and Weber (1985)	Tasks are activities or actions immediately performed by someone as a response to guidelines, instructions, etc. Examples of tasks include typing a paper while listening to the speaker and receiving an order while performing a command.
Crookes (1986)	Tasks are works or activities with a specific objective done at workplace, or performed as part of successfully completing an education program or conducted to obtain invaluable data for a research. Examples of tasks include reading a paragraph to understand its content and looking for up-to-date articles to identify the gap in a particular area of research.
Breen (1987)	Tasks are work plans designed with a range of outcomes, appropriate contents, specific objectives and certain working procedures to facilitate language learning, and those work plans are carefully designed from the simple activities to the more complex ones. Examples of tasks encompass developing students' accuracy and fluency through appropriate instructional materials that consider students' proficiency and educational levels.
Candlin (1987)	Tasks are sequential, differentiated and problem-solving activities to be performed by learners in a social environment through some communicative and cognitive procedures to achieve the desired goals and objectives. According to this definition, students may be divided into small groups with different activities that require high mental information processing to achieve certain goals.
Prabhu (1987)	Tasks are activities done by learners through some instructions and other mental processes that help learners achieve an outcome; meanwhile, allow teachers to regulate and take control over the mental process. This definition emphasizes teachers' role as being guides of students' learning by providing students with instructions that link the new knowledge to the already existing one to facilitate students' accommodation and construction of the new knowledge.
Nunan (1989)	Tasks are activities taken from real-life situations then converted into pedagogical activities with a specific objective of encouraging students to

	comprehend, produce, manipulate or interact using the target language, but the main aim is to encourage students to produce meaningful rather than accurate language. This definition is the first to focus on language meaning rather than language form as the best way to improve students' language proficiency level, claiming that language accuracy is automatically acquired through extensive use of communicative activities.
Bachman and Palmer (1996)	Tasks are activities involving students' use of language with the aim of achieving certain goals and objectives in a given situation. Examples of tasks include asking students to express their opinion and/ or to exchange information.
Willis (1996)	Tasks are activities performed by students using the target language in a communicative environment to achieve an outcome. Again, this definition focuses on learners' practice of language through teacher-student or student-student interaction as the most effective way to achieve language learning goals, and this can best be achieved by assigning learners to work in pairs or groups under the supervision of their teachers.
Skehan (1998)	Tasks are meaning-focused activities linked to real-life situations with special attention to completing the assigned activities, and these tasks are assessed by the degree to which students' learning is improved. According to this definition, although the focus is given to language meaning, language accuracy is also developed by frequent exposure to authentic communicative activities.
Lee (2000)	Tasks are classroom activities or exercises with specific objectives obtainable through teacher-student and student-student interaction, and these tasks are governed by a mechanism to ensure sequential and structural interaction. The priority in this definition is given to exchange of meaning to enhance students' better comprehension, production and/or manipulation of the target language.
Bygate, Skehan and Swain (2001)	Tasks are activities mainly designed to enable students to practice the target language in a communicative environment with special concentration on language meaning rather than language form to achieve the set objectives.
Ellis (2003)	Tasks are work plans designed to enhance students' use of the target language to achieve the desired outcome, and these work plans are assessed by the appropriate conveyance of the suggested content. According to this definition, the main focus is given to language meaning and students' utilization of their linguistic resources, a matter which requires various cognitive processes by students. Moreover, students' practice of the target language may be intended to enhance students' oral or written skills.
Nunan (2004)	Tasks are classroom activities assigned with the aim of encouraging students to comprehend, produce, manipulate or interact using the target language, while the attention is directed towards expressing meaning by mobilizing students' knowledge of structure.
Van den Branden (2006)	Tasks are interactive activities designed to boost students' use of the target language and to achieve an objective. This definition is quite similar to those

	extended by Bachman and Palmer (1996) and Willis (1996) in that students' fluency comes first, followed by explicit instruction of some grammatical rules based on students' use of the intended language to improve their oral production in terms of fluency and accuracy.
Carroll (2009)	Tasks are interactive activities in adequate classrooms with the aim of achieving the intended objectives. This definition focuses on the communicative and international nature of language as being a medium for transferring information and for strengthening social relationships between or among language learners. Tasks, according to this definition, are purely communicative in nature and then can best be employed if students are assigned to work in pairs or groups.

Table 1: Summary of Various Definitions of a Task

A deep look at the above definitions tells that "tasks" are defined from a broad perspective as to what people do in their daily life whether language is used to perform such tasks or not, such as Long's (1985) definition of a task. More condensed, tasks are seen as work plans designed for pedagogical purpose; that is, to motivate students to engage in meaning-driven language communication (e.g., Breen 1987; Ellis 2003; Lee 2000). Others see tasks as outcome-linked activities and accentuate the significant role of teachers in achieving the intended outcome (e.g., Crookes 1986; Prabhu 1987; Richards, Platt & Weber 1985), while Candlin (1987) views tasks as requiring both interaction and mental process in order for objectives to be achieved. The narrowest perspective sees tasks as activities performed by students using the target language in a communicative environment with a primary focus on meaning to achieve an outcome (e.g., Bachman & Palmar 1996; Bygate, Skehan & Swain 2001; Carroll 2009; Nunan 2004; Van den Branden 2006), and this latter perspective is the one considered by the researcher in his definition of what is meant by a task.

2.2.8. Types of Communicative Tasks

According to Long (1985), any employed tasks should be relevant to students' real life to motivate them to learn. Not only that, they should also consider students' cognitive and educational levels as major determinants of students' psychological state (Slavin 2015). However, the employed tasks that require high mental processing may be motivational, challenging and arousing for advanced students but at the same time depressing, hindering and threating for low-achievers (Schmidt, Boraie & Kassabgy 1996). For this, different types of tasks that reflect the diversity of students' cognitive and educational levels as well as the complexity of the real world are introduced by many researchers to foster students' language learning in the classroom context.

For example, tasks are divided by Prabhu (1987) into three general types: opinion gap tasks, problem solving/ reasoning gap tasks and information gap tasks. Additionally, Pattison (1989) sets out seven types of tasks to include communication strategies, matching activities, dialogues and role plays, questions and answers, discussions and decisions, puzzles and problems, and pictures and picture stories. Moreover, six types of tasks are propounded by Willis (1996) to encompass creative tasks, sharing personal experience, problem-solving, comparing, ordering and sorting, and listening. Furthermore, five types of tasks are identified by Richards (2017) to have opinion gap, decision making, problem-solving, information gap, and jigsaw tasks.

From all above types, the researcher of this study adopts the categorization by Prabhu (1987) for being comprehensive and inclusive of all other types and for being suitable for the diversity of students' cognitive abilities and educational levels. To define them, the information-gap tasks involve transferring information from one person or one group to another or from one

form or one place to another, typically transferring information into a language (Prabhu 1987), and the need to have the unknown information enhances communication between interactants to fill the information gap (Slimani-Rolls 2005), and this type of tasks could be a one way or two-way tasks (Nunan 2004). An example of this is pair-work, in which each student has a part of total information, and he or she is asked to share his or her information to complete a task, or one or more students have some information and the others ask questions to find the required information.

Reasoning-gap tasks bring in using the processes of practical reasoning, deduction, inference and/ or own perception to extract some new information from the existing one so that students can freely give their opinion with logic (Ellis 2000). For example, teachers may decide what best course of action to be taken based on given purposes and within given obstacles. In this context, Klippel (2011) maintains that unlike the information gap, the reasoning-gap tasks could be considered problem-solving tasks as all students (interactants) have different opinions on how to solve the encountered problem, and one correct solution or prolonged discussions may be required to solve the problem based on the topic of each task (Nation 1991).

Lastly, the opinion-gap tasks include articulating personal attitudes, feeling or preference in response to a given situation, and this usually includes using some factual information or justifications to uphold the articulated claims (Nunan 2004). For example, students may engage in a talk about a social issue with no expectation of having the same views in the same situation or on other different events.

2.2.9. Characteristics of TBI

TBI is defined by Nunan (2004) as a flexible approach used in the classroom to facilitate students' learning and teachers' teaching within different language contexts. Moreover, Van den Branden, Bygate and Norris (2009, p. 2) add that "[t]he aim of second/foreign language teaching is to enable students to use the target language for functional purposes", and what TBI does is that it connects the purpose of teaching to students' real life, a matter which fosters students' longer production of the target language when authentic tasks are used in a communicative environment. Likewise, Ellis (2003, 2018) and Richards and Rodgers (2015) argue that TBI uses tasks as means of lesson planning and instruction to enhance students' richer production of the target language.

Van den Branden, Bygate and Norris (2009) also add another attractive feature of TBI when they say that TBI capitalizes on authentic tasks not only to practice the target language but also to activate students' mind to construct and internalize the new language knowledge, leading to the development of both language fluency and accuracy. Arguing this, they refute the claims that TBI focuses only on language meaning and neglects language form. Supporting this view towards TBI, Ellis (2009) and Richards and Rodgers (2015) see TBI as an approach to L2 teaching in which tasks play a pivotal role in L2 learning and the concentration is given to both language meaning and language form. Literature also shows that the emphasis on both meaning and form is incorporated in many TBI frameworks that espouse the three linear phases of tasks such as Ellis's (2003) framework, Lee's (2000) framework, Skehan's (1996) framework and Willis's (1996) framework. According to Willis (1996, p. 1), "[t]ask-based learning combines the best insights from communicative language teaching with an organised focus on language form".

Willis (1996) also adds an interesting feature of TBI when she says that TBI uses language production as incentive and motivation to improve students' linguistic system and stresses that TBI improves students' self-independence, self-esteem and problem solving skills since the majority of the task is done by students under the supervision of teachers and under the security of their groups. This view towards TBI is also upheld by Richards and Rodgers (2015) who point out that TBI is a holistic approach in which students' linguistic, social and communicative aspects are developed through the assignment of communicative tasks in the classroom and through the assignment of students to work in pairs or small groups to complete the assigned communicative tasks.

Moreover, Nunan (2004) and Richards and Rodgers (2015) maintain that TBI is an input -output process; that is, the assigned communicative tasks offer students opportunities to receive natural and authentic language (input), to use their own language to express their ideas (output), and to analyze and compare their own language to others (processing). They go on to say that learning problems can be negotiated through teacher-student and student-student interaction to achieve particular pedagogical goals. They also contend that, the tasks in TBI are flexible and therefore some specific tasks may have to be designed and used to tackle particular aspects of language. To expound this, the use of more complex tasks may increase students' attention to the formal features of message, and then, some tasks may deliberately be assigned to shift students' attention from language accuracy to language fluency so as to develop language fluency.

With regard to the roles of students, teachers and materials in TBI, Richards and Rodgers (2015) argue that students play a central role as they are the main source of information and by whom the assigned tasks are accomplished. They further state that students play a cluster of

specific roles during the process of language learning to include acting as self-evaluators, goal-setters, strategy users, risk-takers, monitors, innovators and group participants. On the other hand, Richards and Rodgers (2015) contend that teachers play a facilitative role; that is, to guide students' learning, in tandem with some additional roles that encompass acting as assistance providers, strategy instructors, pre-task conscious-raisers, task selectors and task sequencers.

Moreover, Richards and Rodgers (2015) aver that instructional materials also play a critical role in TBI because this approach is highly contingent on providing a wide range of appropriate communicative tasks, and such tasks can appropriately be provided in any TBI-related instructional material. To elucidate this, since the provision of an appropriate communicative task is the starting point in TBI classes, this means that the instructional materials that provide the desired tasks are critical to extend students with the suitable learning context.

2.2.10. TBI and TSLT, What is the Difference?

Many scholars, language teachers, L2 acquisition researchers and material designers valued the significance of communicative tasks in L2 development, but they differed in the way these tasks should be assigned to achieve language learning goals and objectives (Ellis 2003). Ellis stated further that communicative tasks were assigned in the literature in two different ways constituting two different teaching approaches; the task-based language teaching (TBLT) approach or the TBI approach and the TSLT approach. Tasks in the first approach are "units of teaching in their own right and have designed the whole courses around them", whereas tasks in the second approach are incorporated into "traditional language-based approaches to teaching" (Ellis 2003, p. 27).

According to Samuda and Bygate (2008), there is also a difference between the two approaches in terms of assessment and instructional design. To explain this, tasks in the TBI approach are used as a vehicle to assess students' performance based on their successful completion of the assigned tasks. They are used to set language goals and assess students' outcome as in the case of CEFR (2020). In TSLT, tasks are not used to assess students' language learning but they can be used to diagnose students' level. Also, they are seen as a tool by language teachers and students to serve particular language goals and objectives and used with varied pedagogical activities (focused practice, explicit instruction, exercises, etc.).

Methodologically, Tasks in TBI are the core unit of study in all syllabus design stages (from the needs analysis stage up to students' assessment stage), with no explicit language instruction at the beginning of instruction (Long 2015). Tasks in TSLT follow the 3Ps sequence, which means that language form is first presented to students before being practiced in controlled manner then used in the free production stage; a stage where tasks can be employed (Ellis 2003). Nevertheless, Ellis (2003) warns against the use of TSLT and 3Ps interchangeably as the teaching process in TSLT can start with the production stage and the tasks in this case can play a diagnostic role, while the teaching process in 3Ps has to follow the "presentation-practice-production" sequence.

With respect to the tasks employed, tasks in both TBI and TSLT approaches are very analogous or even quite same but the difference is in the way these tasks are selected and assigned (Samuda & Bygate 2008). Also, as explained above, task completion is substantial in TBI as it is the base upon which students' performance is assessed, while in TSLT, teachers use tasks to practice the already learned structure or vocabulary or to help them diagnose the

weaknesses in students' language oral production. Table (2) distinguishes the tasks in both TBI and TSLT as stated by Ellis (2003), Long (2015) and Samuda and Bygate (2008).

Aspect	TBI	TSLT
Selection of tasks	- Based on needs analysis.	- Based on the structure needed to be exercised through the task.
Sequence of tasks	- Contingent on the complexity of the task.	- Contingent on the sequence of the main units in the curriculum.
Role of tasks	- Core units of teaching and syllabus. - Draws teachers' attention to students' weaknesses of language form. - Achievement of tasks is essential to assess students' performance. - Enables students to notice the gap in their language production.	- Supports the current instructional material. - Provides opportunity to practice the already learned grammar. - Focuses on some pre-conceived vocabularies and structures. - Reduces the cognitive burden on the part of students.
Language focus	- Is practiced through corrective feedback and meaning-focused activities.	- Is practiced through explicit instruction and corrective feedback during the presentation stage and the practice stage.
Classroom activities	- Are conducted through the work on the task.	- Are conducted through the work on the task and other activities.
Assessment	- Is centered on the successful completion of the task.	- Is centered on the correct use of grammar.

Table 2: Tasks in TBI and TSLT

As for classroom behavior, these two approaches differ in matters related to teachers' role, students' role, turn taking, negotiation of meaning, and feedback among others (Ellis 2006). All these differences, as viewed by Ellis (2006), are presented in Table (3).

Aspect	TBI	TSLT
Discourse structure	- Loose discourse structure.	- Rigid discourse structure (Initiative/Response/Feedback or IRF structure).
Turn-taking	- Typified by the rules that govern our daily talks and conversations.	- Typified by the class teacher.
Types of questions	- Divergent, referential and	- Convergent, display and planned

	unplanned questions.	questions.
Teachers' role	- Supervisors and monitors.	- Source providers and controllers.
Students' role	- Active players during the process of language teaching and learning.	- Passive players during the language teaching and learning process.
Negotiation of meaning	- Provides huge opportunities for negotiation of meaning.	- Provides little opportunities for negotiation of meaning.
Feedback	- Form-focused (i.e. teachers highlights the mistakes in students' oral production of the target language).	- Content-focused (i.e. teachers spotlights the content of the message delivered by students).

Table 3: Classroom Behavior Differences between TBI and TSLT

Having discussed the difference between TBI and TSLT, we can argue that TBI is the one assigned to the current experimental group because (1) the provided tasks are the core units of the syllabus, (2) students are assessed based on their successful completion of the tasks, (3) the focus is on language-meaning not language form, (4) teachers at the warm-up stage only refresh students' minds to the topic-related vocabularies, and (5) students use what they know not what they are presented about language structure to report on the task. Moreover, as discussed above, TSLT is not entirely 3Ps since the last stage in the TSLT approach (the free production stage) can precede the first two stages to play a diagnostic role. However, on the assumption that both TSLT and 3Ps have the same "presentation-practice-production" form in classroom practice, then they both share the same characteristics.

To add more on the difference between TBI and 3Ps, Long (2015) compares "the focus on form" term to "the focus on forms" term. According to Long (2015), the term "focus on form" gives particular attention to the linguistic features students are able to use in proper communicative contexts, and this term is closely connected with TBI. On the other hand, the term "focus on forms" is confined to yielding some explicit instruction on some pre-planned

linguistic features, and this term is linked to 3Ps. Adding to this, Li, Ellis and Zhu (2016) argue that this pedagogic difference between TBI and 3Ps/TSLT suggests different theoretical perspectives, with 3Ps/TSLT centered on a more integrated system (the unitary mode system) since it supports only the explicit learning system, while TBI is more consistent with a neutral system (the dual mode system) since it postulates separate implicit and explicit learning systems.

2.2.11. Development of TBI Frameworks

The experiential learning theory, as proposed by Kolb (1984), was considered the first conceptual framework from which other TBI frameworks were developed (Nunan 2004). As its name propounds, it brings in learning from personal experience and postulates that, students learn from their active participation and reflection on the classroom activities and tasks, constituting a shift in the view towards learners from being passive players whose roles are confined to receiving information to active players who learn any new information by experiencing it (Kolb 1984). This experiential learning theory was applied in EFL classes in the early 1990s as an effective teaching practice to enhance student-based language learning (Kohonen 1992). Through the adoption of effective communicative tasks, this theory was also applied in EFL classes to promote students' language learning autonomy (Ellis 2003).

Notwithstanding, the elucidation of how tasks would successfully be implemented in EFL classes was not satisfactory for scholars in the fields of psychology, psycholinguistics and applied linguistics which led to the emergence of Nunan's (1989) framework of TBI (Hung 2014). Nunan (1989) argues that, tasks should be taken from real life situations then converted into pedagogical tasks to be performed by students in the classroom context. This framework

also highlights the importance of learning some language rules to enable students to successfully accomplish the assigned tasks. However, despite its contribution, this framework was criticized by later theorists, linguists, psycholinguists and practitioners for the difficulty of being applied to younger students as it requires students to have high level of cognitive abilities to be able to manipulate the language rules necessary to perform the assigned tasks, and also for the complication of making a link between the real-life and pedagogical tasks in the classroom setting (Feeney 2006).

The criticism to Nunan's (1989) TBI framework led to the emergence of another framework by Littlewood (1993) in which two main dimensions were emphasized; students' active participation in pre-determined tasks and students' sufficient knowledge of the target language. This framework postulates that the classroom tasks should urge students to engage actively in the classroom and should enhance their competency in language structure. However, this framework was claimed to be ineffective by some applied linguists and theorists for the complication of accomplishing the assigned tasks in parallel with a huge amount of instruction on language structure (Ellis 1994).

Further thinking of new models to cover the above limitations brought to surface highly influential frameworks of sequential phases such as; Prabhu's (1987) TBI framework, Long's (1991) TBI framework, Willis's (1996) TBI framework, Skehan's (1996) TBI framework and Ellis's (2003) TBI framework. According to them, successful sequential tasks are essential in enabling students to communicate effectively even with limited resources and in drawing students' attention to language form through the explicit instruction on some linguistic patterns necessary to convey the message more appropriately and more accurately (Hung 2014).

2.2.12. Critical Review of the Most Influential TBI Frameworks

Prabhu (1987), one of the earliest theoreticians to design tasks for language teaching, believed that students learn more effectively when they engage in completing tasks than when they focus on the language they use as, for him, the prominent condition of education is students' engagement. Based on this view, a general TBI structure of two sequential phases was posited by Prabhu (1987) to promote language learning; the pre-task phase (teacher-centered activity) and the task phase (student-centered activity).

For Prabhu (1987), the purpose of the first phase is to prepare students to do the task in the way which ensures their acquisition of the intended language. He argues that, the first phase is not an introduction to the topic and the task as some may interpret but rather it is a teacher-centered activity publically performed in a whole-class context to get students to understand the nature of the employed task and to scaffold their performance when they start performing the task. He also avers that this phase is best executed through interaction using the question-answer technique and through task rehearsals. He, then, assures the close nexus between task performance and task rehearsal; namely, the closer the rehearsal for the employed task is, the better the performance of the assigned task is.

The second phase is centered on the task itself, during which students work individually to perform a similar but not the same rehearsed task. Prabhu (1987) warns against reducing students' cognitive challenges to just a mere recall of rehearsed tasks. In this sense, Prabhu (1987, p. 53) states that "[E]ach task requires the independent effort of mind, i.e. it is not possible to transfer either the outcome or the procedures of one mechanically to the other". Moreover, this second phase provides students with opportunities to feel confidence of success when they realize that they are able to complete the task without teachers' assistance. Not only

this, the second phase also enables students to take risks in front of their peers; meanwhile, creates an atmosphere of rivalry and comparison among students when they make public reports, which are subject to assessment and discussion by both teachers and other students.

Furthermore, the second phase is an opportunity for teachers to assess the arduousness of the task, and then, the ability to adjust task complexity in the following tasks to suit students' cognitive ability, resulting in an improvement in students' task performance. However, this does not mean that teachers should adjust the task to be too easy but rather they should adjust the task to enable students to perform it with some effort. For Prabhu (1987), if the task is easy, students will lose the willingness and motivation to perform the task, and if it is too demanding, students will be reluctant to make effort to perform it. To recapitulate, Prabhu (1987) does not support the use of small group work in his model as students work in a whole-class context during the pre-task phase and work individually during the second phase. Moreover, teachers' roles are critical in this model as they simplify, paraphrase and repeat the input to make it comprehensible. They also may intervene when and where imperative to reformulate students' speaking performance to be more native-like.

However, criticizing Prabhu's (1987) TBI model for ignoring the importance of providing real-life communicative activities and disregarding the significant role of small group work in enhancing L2 learning, Willis (1996) propounded a framework of three phases to get over these limitations: the pre-task phase (introduction to the topic and the task), the task cycle phase (task, planning and report) and the language focus phase (analysis and practice). In her model, Willis prioritizes small group work during the second phase and allows for teacher-centered activities during the first and third phases. By doing so, she aims to reach fluency level in the second phase and accuracy level in the third phase.

Moreover, Willis's TBI framework is distinguished from others in that it advises teachers to stand back and monitor students while they work on the task themselves during the main task phase. Willis (1996) also claims that students will not be able to learn the target language unless the following conditions are fulfilled: (1) students are provided with abundant opportunities to use the target language in real-life situations, (2) the priority should be given to language meaning rather than language form, which means that there is no need to make language form perfect, and (3) too much emphasis on language meaning through group work without giving attention to language form may result in grammar fossilization coupled with the risk of developing language fluency at the expense of language accuracy, a matter which necessitates combing both language meaning and form to develop both skills. Adding to those three rudiments, this model is advantageous in the way it allows for ample exposure to the target language either before or during the task cycle and for more focus on the language used and processed for meaning during its second phase, enabling students to meet the three essential conditions and a desirable one for learning: motivation, exposure, use and explicit focus on language structure respectively. Further information about this model is provided in the following "overview of Willis's (1996) TBI framework" sub-section.

Nevertheless, despite recognizing the importance of using a wide variety of authentic activities that bring language form into focus, Willis's (1996) TBI framework was criticized by Skehan (1996) for not having a clear and comprehensive theoretical foundation, but; however, it was considered a starting point from which Skehan's (1996) TBI framework was developed. This latter model, unlike Willis' (1996) model, suggests a balanced focus on both language meaning and form by manipulating students' attention to form through some instructional choices. Another distinction between Willis's (1996) TBI model and Skehan's (1996) TBI

model is that, this latter model advocates the focus on form before meaning while the former supports the focus on meaning before form.

Through his model, Skehan (1996), which is a strong proponent of the cognitive approach, propounds a framework of three sequential phases for effective language learning: the pre-emptive task phase (introduction to the task), the during-task phase (mediating accuracy and fluency) and the post-task phase (encouraging accuracy and restructuring). This model values the role of information processing, attention and mental representation in L2 learning and draws appropriate attention to both language competence and language performance. He also argues that effective language learning will not take place unless; (1) a considerable amount of input is received, (2) attention to form is enhanced and manipulated to overcome students' limited attentional capacities, (3) a balance in language fluency and accuracy development is achieved, (4) a reflection on students' produced language is stimulated to help students reorganize the new knowledge, and (5) the newly-attained language is practiced to help students develop from controlled to automatic information processing.

The aim of the first phase is to enhance students' familiarity with the task so that students are more able to restructure the newly-attained language in their language system during the central information processing stage. It also intends to reduce students' consumption of their attentional capacities, leaving some attention to the actual language use necessary to develop students' speaking performance in terms of fluency, accuracy and complexity. The second phase is the central processing phase, during which students process the information received from the first phase for both meaning and form, leading to the development of both exemplar-based and rule-based systems. This second phase also enables students to connect the new language knowledge with the already existing one, conductive to language restructuring.

Moreover, according to Skehan (1996), it is important for teachers to make appropriate decisions about both task choice and task implementation. That is, teachers may consider choosing the task that is suitable for students' cognitive abilities and consider manipulating students' attention to release more attention to students' production, or; otherwise, students' attentional capacities are fully consumed during this second phase, leaving very little cognitive abilities to communicate during the last phase. The third phase provides students with opportunities to do public performance on the language processed for meaning and form through the first two phases, leading to an automatized cognitive processing of information, which is soon reflected in students' speaking performance in terms of fluency, accuracy and complexity.

Notwithstanding, discrediting Skehan's (1996) model for interpreting language learning from a purely cognitive perspective and neglecting the active role played by students in language learning, Ellis (2003) proposed two different TBI framework options based on Long's (1981, 1983, 1996) interactionist theory and Swain's (1985, 1995) output hypothesis to enhance effective language learning. These two framework options were also designed to address the huge gap between teaching and learning of L2 grammar as recognized by Ellis when he was teaching in a secondary school in Zambia. The first framework postulates that there is no need to explicitly teach grammar as students will acquire it spontaneously during their exposure and practice of the target language. This first framework consists of three sequential phases: the pre-task phase (consciousness-raising activities), the during-task phase (manipulating the target language) and the post-task phase (real-life use).

In this model, Ellis (2003) gives special attention to language meaning and to providing authentic activities that demand students to perform various cognitive processes as crucial to

enhance their learning. This model is distinguished from all other models in that it suggests the use of specific instructional choices (e.g., the use of sufficient time and suitable topics) to ensure students' full communication and interaction on the task, and consequently, the ability of students to attain language form simultaneously without having to provide explicit linguistic instruction.

According to this model, the first phase is a good opportunity to plan for the task and establish its outcome. It is also a chance to regulate the time needed to complete the task and to do similar tasks. This phase is beneficial as it reduces students' cognitive burden to avoid consuming their attention very early and also increases their confidence when they start reporting on the task. The second phase provides students with opportunities to work in pair or groups to complete the task, enabling them to receive comprehensible input, notice the difference in their own language and practice the target language.

Teachers' roles during the second phase are crucial as they should look for effective ways to correct students' mistakes and trigger them to react to the assigned task. Moreover, it is not expected from teachers to intervene during students' communication unless it is necessary. However, if they have to intervene, they should find ways to implicitly direct students' attention to language form. This may include, according to Ellis (2003), manipulating and channeling planning time so that students are provided with sufficient time to rephrase and revise their report, leading to better speaking performance in terms of fluency and accuracy. He adds that the topic itself may be regulated as students' familiarity with the topic influences their performance. That is, if students have a prior knowledge of the topic, chances to engage and interact in the task are increased.

The third phase yields students with opportunities to practice speaking by reporting on the task in front of the class. It is also the time when the task may be repeated as an instructional choice to increase students' attention to the gap in their produced language and also to increase their confidence when reporting on the same task on second occasions. Finally, the reporting group, during the last phase, may be exposed to any task-related input from the other groups, and then they discuss their understanding with the other groups, enabling students to notice their gaps and process for both language meaning and language form.

Notwithstanding, realizing that students' exposure and practice of the target language were not enough to master L2 structure, another TBI framework option of five sequential phases was introduced by Ellis (2003) not to teach grammar but rather to improve students' L2 grammatical knowledge: the task listening phase, the task noticing phase, the task consciousness-raising phase, the task checking phase and the task production phase. Ellis (2003) claims that students have limited attentional capacities to simultaneously attend to form when language meaning is the main goal, and then they need a new model that focuses on language meaning; meanwhile, provides students with opportunities to process language form.

According to this model, the first two phases provide students with good opportunities to receive comprehensible input and process it for meaning through a listening activity. The third phase increases students' awareness of the target grammar by analyzing the data in the assigned listening activity. The fourth phase helps students understand the target grammar as it provides practical training on the target grammar. The last phase enables students to test their own hypotheses about the target grammar using their own sentences in order to check if it is understandable or not.

However, believing in the importance of directing students' attention to form during task performance as the most effective way to enhance students' learning in dispute with all other models, Long (1991) posited a model of three main sequential phases and seven sub-phases. The main sequential phases include the task development phase, the task implementation phase and the task evaluation/ assessment phase. The seven sub-phases encompass analyzing students' needs of communication to pinpoint the task, classifying the task into target task types, deriving a pedagogical task, sequencing the pedagogical task to constitute a task-based curriculum, implementing the pedagogical task with a proper methodology, assessing the pedagogical task using criterion-referenced, task-based and performance tests, and finally evaluating the whole program.

This model uses the term "focus on form" to get students to know the linguistic features they are able to use in proper communicative contexts. This term is distinguished from the term "focus on forms" which is confined to providing explicit instruction on some linguistic features and from the term "focus on meaning" which gives no attention to any linguistic features. For Long (1991), the adoption of the above task sequence is particularly significant in promoting language learning as it can create useful patterns of communication breakdown, which are considered critical by him to enhance the process of negotiation of meaning. That is to say, the communication breakdown is the perfect time for teachers to intervene and help students focus on form. He further states that teachers' assistance should indirectly be provided so that students are able to solve their own problems and continue to negotiate for meaning, a matter which enhances students' language learning.

This account lucidly reflects Long's (1981, 1983) firm belief, through his interactionist theory, that negotiation of meaning is pivotal in enhancing L2 acquisition. According to Long

(1981, 1983), the process of negotiation of meaning is substantial to direct students' attention to form as it enables students to receive negative feedback and modify their utterance to be comprehensible, conductive to language learning. To encapsulate this, Long (1991) views language learning as a result of students' interaction with input sources during the process of negotiation of meaning, the occurrence of communication breakdown, the incidental and implicit focus on form and finally students' notice of the target linguistic features.

Nevertheless, questioning all above models that called for task sequencing to foster language learning, Nunan (2004) suggested a model of six non-sequential phases to promote language learning: the schema building phase, the controlled practice phase, the authentic listening practice phase, the linguistic-related focus phase, the freer practice phase and the communicative task phase. Nunan (2004) argues that students do not master a learning goal or objective in a sequential order but rather in an unsteady sequence. He particularly questions the model by Long (1991) for disregarding the significant role of explicit instruction (focus on forms) in language learning. This model is also distinct from all above-reviewed models in that Nunan (2004) waits until the end of the learning process to perform the main communicative task because he thinks that the task is the accrual of all other works. To put it differently, students do not perform the task themselves until they get considerable linguistic instruction and practice the newly-attained linguistic knowledge in a communicative environment. In this sense, the model suggested by Nunan (2004) is close to that of the weak version of TBI; the 3Ps model, but it differs in that the controlled practice in Nunan's (2004) work is done in a more communicative context.

In his model, Nunan (2004) urges the use of topic-based units in all TBI-related materials and insists that each unit should tackle three main functions: (1) the ideational function

which forms the ideas, feelings and thoughts about the external world and the logical relations among them, (2) the interpersonal function which organizes the relations between language receivers and speakers in a given discursive situation, and (3) the textual function which connects the intended language with the given situation to produce semantically coherent and structurally cohesive materials. He also avers that each of the above three functions should be linked to certain linguistic features to enhance students' development of both language meaning and language form.

To delineate this model, the first phase activates students' existing language knowledge to enable them to easily construct the new language knowledge. During this phase, some key vocabularies and information about the assigned task are introduced through teacher-student interaction to free students' attentional capacities for the following cognitive processes. The second phase provides students with chances to practice the target language functions, structures and vocabularies using certain activities controlled by teachers whose role is significant in correcting students' mistakes and providing positive feedback. The third phase aims to expose students to native/native-like conversations and also intends to practice as much receptive skills as possible to implicitly increase students' attention to language form.

The fourth phase serves to explicitly increase students' attention to grammatical and/ or lexical features of the intended language. The fifth phase, unlike the controlled practice in the second phase, enables students to engage in free practice of the target language in terms of functions, structures and vocabularies. The last phase encourages students to use the language they learned during the earlier phases to perform the communicative tasks assigned by their teachers. However, despite his success in providing students with the four learning conditions; motivation, exposure, practice and explicit linguistic instruction, Nunan's (2004) TBI

framework was disregarded in the later works of the above theorists and theoreticians such as Ellis (2018), Long (2015) and Willis and Willis (2007), in which the use of sequential tasks was prescribed as mandatory to achieve effective language learning.

Having reviewed the most influential TBI frameworks, it can be inferred that TBI frameworks can be categorized into three categories: meaning-focused category (e.g., Ellis 2003; Prabhu 1987; Willis 1996), form-focused category (e.g., Long 1991, 2015; Nunan 1989) and balanced-focused category (e.g., Skehan 1996, 1998). From all above TBI frameworks, the researcher selected the framework developed by Willis in 1996, (see Appendix "A"), to be implemented in the current research site on the experimental group during the period of the treatment. Furthermore, he embraced it to develop the current research methods and used it as a reference point to analyze the research data and interpret the research results.

2.2.13. Overview of Willis's (1996) TBI Framework

A deep look at Willis's (1996) TBI framework, we can say that the teaching techniques embedded in this framework differ from other traditional ones in the number and ordering of assigned activities and in students being more active and teachers being more of facilitators during language teaching. Through this framework, teachers play a significant role in ensuring that there is a balance between language exposure and use and that both language exposure and use are provided with suitable quality. However, this balance between language exposure and use is not guaranteed unless teachers are able to manage their classes, particularly large classes, to maintain disciple, to set up and delineate the assigned tasks and to guide students' learning. Moreover, this framework, unlike other traditional ones, yields a smooth flow of teaching through a logical sequence. Figure (2) displays the basic procedures of the three linear phases:

the pre-task phase, the task cycle phase and the language focus phase, followed by detailed information on the components of each phase as expounded in Willis's (1996) work.

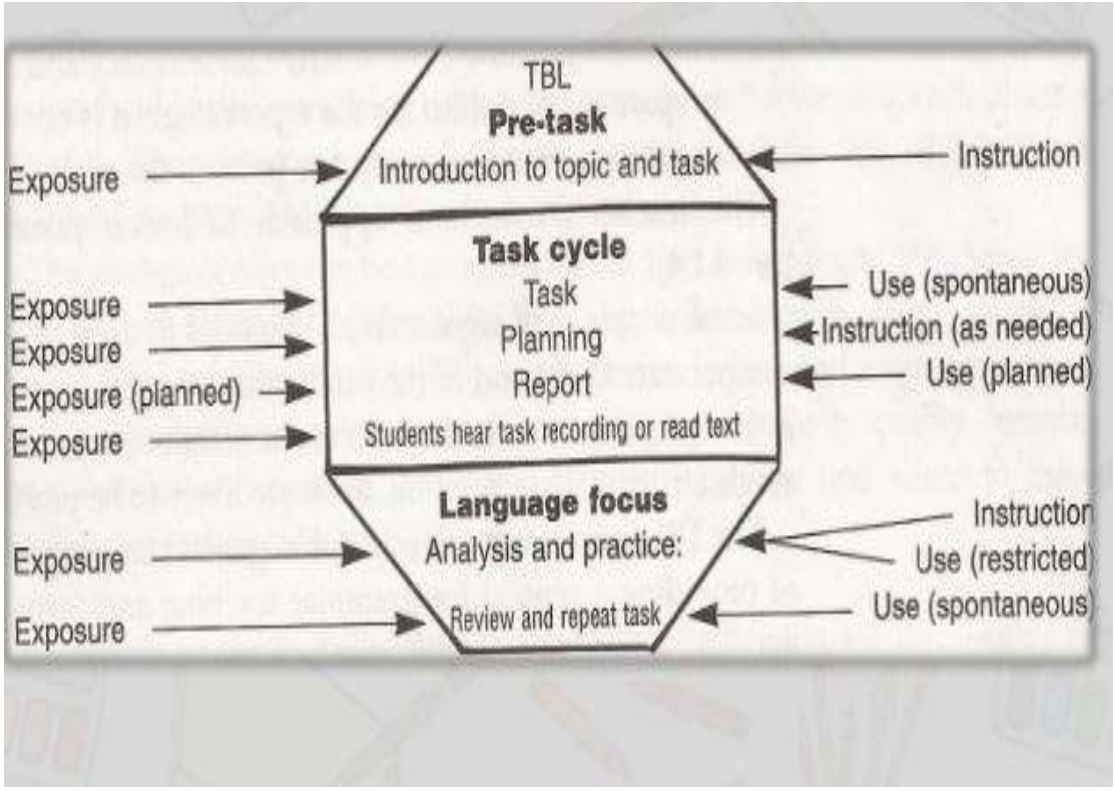

Figure 2: Overview of TBI Framework

(Willis 1996, p. 135)

2.2.13.1. Components of the Pre-Task Phase

As Willis (1996) explains, the first phase brings in six main steps, and the first step of which starts with teachers planning on how to introduce the topic and the task. They do it when the topics and the activities in textbooks are not suitable and textbook designers do not include specific ideas to help teachers design suitable tasks. Because of this, teachers have to do all

necessary preparation on their own to make the topic and the task as clear as possible. Once preparation is done, teachers move to the second step which includes the introduction of the topic to students. During this introduction, teachers have to consider students' cognitive and cultural aspects as well as their familiarity with the topic. The third step involves spotlighting the most topic-relevant lexis and phrases to activate the already existing lexis and phrases in students' mind and also to help students construct some new useful words and phrases to be used later during the next two phases of the framework. This can be done through some pre-task language activities with the aim of involving, exposing and motivating students to do the assigned tasks. Types of pre-task language activities may include matching phrases to pictures, memory challenge, brainstorming and mind-maps, thinking of questions to ask, teachers recounting a similar experience and categorizing lexis and phrases as per their link to the topic among other activities.

After the topic is clearly introduced and defined using some effective pre-task activities, Willis (1996) maintains that, here comes the fifth step of the first phase in which teachers start to introduce the task to ensure that all students have a good perception of the task, its requirements, its goals and its intended outcome. This can be done through various techniques including asking students to read the instruction themselves, teachers to demonstrate the task with a good student, teachers to play audio or video recorders of native-like speakers doing the task and teachers to show the class what previous students have done on the same or similar task. This is followed by the last step (the sixth step) in which teaches give students some time (usually few minutes) to prepare for the task.

2.2.13.2. Components of the Task Cycle Phase

According to Willis (1996), this phase consists of three stages: the task stage, the planning stage and the report stage, and through which opportunities are provided for students to use the language they already know in order to conduct the task, and this use of the target language stimulates students to acquire some new forms when the already existing knowledge contradicts somehow with the new one during students' planning to report (noticing the gap in their language) under the supervision of teachers who work as monitors for language learning. This phase also places a premium on the importance of writing during the learning process.

Willis (1996) continues to say that students, at the task stage, are fostered to work in pairs or groups to complete the task using whatever language they know, and this stage is important as it provides the three essential conditions for language learning: motivation, focus on language use and focus on language form. To expand on this, through assigning students to work in pairs and small groups, they will discern that they are able to complete the task without direct support from teachers, and this can have a positive impact on students' confidence and motivation to learn. Moreover, through the exposure to the target language in the form of hearing a recording or reading a text and also through the use of what they recall from the first stage to complete the task, students' minds are properly activated to notice the gap in their own language, a matter which enables them to transfer language input into intake, leading to the acquisition of some new forms when language intake is further processed in the mind. Teachers, during the task stage, stand back and let students complete the task themselves unless teachers' intervention is imperative. They should observe students from a short distance, encourage them to use the target language if the mother language happens to be used too often and provide the required assistance for hopelessly stuck students just to put them on the right track before they

withdraw back. Moreover, they have to make sure that all students are active and clear about the task objectives. Furthermore, they patiently act as time keepers and forgive about students' errors of language form. They also comment on some points of interests during their observation and monitoring of the students working on the task. It is important during the task stage not to provide a detailed summary of students' performance as this will form the next two stages of the cycle phase. To sum up, the task stage helps students produce spontaneous language (language fluency) by focusing on language meaning while working on the task, and it unconsciously draws student's attention to some language form through pair or small group work.

As expounded by Willis (1996), in order to stretch students' language development out and help them internalize grammar to avoid the development of language fluency at the expense of language accuracy and complexity, another stage is required and here comes the importance of the second stage; the language planning stage. For Willis (1996), students, at this stage, prepare to tell the whole class (public) about their results whether orally or in writing. This step triggers students to make careful planning of their speech to leave no mistakes for others to notice. This may include planning to make clear organization of the report, trying to use proper words and accurate forms and doing some drafts and rehearsals to make the final draft of the report good enough.

According to Willis (1996), teachers, during this second stage, give clear instruction to students, if not instructed earlier, on how to report the findings, on the purpose of the report, on the time allocated to present the report and on the form of the report. Furthermore, teachers act as advisors who respond to students' needs when they ask for advice. This stage is also the right time for teachers to give advice about language forms and structures using different ways based on the nature of problems encountered by students at the time of their preparation to report on

the task. This may include suggesting other positive ways to improve the work and commenting on the errors that obscure the meaning or commenting on the critical errors made by students. Teachers' roles also include encouraging students to shape their reports nicely and draft their written reports or rehearse their oral ones. They also ensure that students stick to the time limit allocated for the planning stage by reminding them continually of the time remained. To recapitulate, this stage accentuates language accuracy, language clarity and language complexity as an integral part of L2 acquisition.

Willis (1996) indicates that the report stage may be less to provide learning opportunities than the planning stage but it is important as it constitutes the incentive without which students' learning during the second stage will not take place. At this stage, teachers yield opportunities to some selected groups to present their reports but not to all groups due to time constraints. Teachers also, at this stage, expect some improper wordings and grammatical mistakes from students as a result of the short time of planning as well as students' linguistic abilities and resources. Moreover, teachers should praise and value students' work by focusing on the positive points rather than providing negative comments. They should also react positively to students' work in such a way to enhance students' motivation and push them forward to do their best on the following tasks.

Willis (1996) claims that teachers, at this third stage, act as chairpersons, who introduce the assigned tasks, nominate who speaks first and who speaks next and summarize the whole report at the end. During students' presentations of the task, teachers are highly recommended to write down some useful notes to be used during their brief if they want to give some constructive feedback, to clarify some points or to correct some mistake, as the best way to avoid any interruption to the presentation. They may also play recordings of other students

doing presentations on the same or similar task to increase students' attention to the gap in their produced language. Students' use and exposure to the target language during this stage enable them to compare their work to others and also motivate them to improve their own language, conductive to an improvement in students' language meaning and form.

2.2.13.3. Components of the Language Focus Phase

As identified by Willis (1996), this last phase consists of two stages; the language analysis stage and the language practice stage, during which students are stimulated to focus more on the form of the language they produced during the second phase through some explicit linguistic instruction. At the language analysis stage, teachers select some language features from the language forms students used or needed during the second phase and incorporate them into some activities to be performed by students, and these activities are sometimes called the language analysis activities or the consciousness-raising activities. The language analysis activities should be designed and introduced by teachers or, otherwise, read by students if clearly elucidated in instructional materials or students' textbooks.

For Willis (1996), the language analysis activities are important in the way they raise students' attention to some specific linguistic features explicitly provided in the assigned activities, and it is the role of students to identify and investigate them. These two processes of identification and investigation are critical as they facilitate restructuring and internalizing the newly-taught linguistic features in students' mind, conductive to the acquisition of language form. The main role of teachers during this stage is to review students' analysis of the assigned activities and to make sure that their analysis is correct.

According to Willis (1996), the last stage of this framework is the practice stage, during which students repeat the two processes of identification and investigation several times until they reach a generalization about the newly-gained language forms and until these two processes are automatized in students' mind, leading to the development of oral fluency, accuracy and complexity. As explained by Willis (1996), the main role of teachers here is to provide students with the time and resources required to carry out the assigned activities, a matter which enhances students' internalization and memorization of the newly-taught linguistic features. To end with, this last stage completes the fourth condition for language learning, which is the focus on language form through explicit instruction.

2.2.14. Issues with the Application of TBI in the Classroom Context

TBI is claimed by some researchers to be ineffective in the classroom for some reasons or in some particular cases. For example, Swain and Lapkin (2001) demonstrate that TBI is not suitable for beginners or low-proficiency students since it focuses mainly on meaning, and this requires having some knowledge of language form to enable students to concentrate on the unknown language features during their interaction, leading to beginners or low-proficiency students being unable to restructure and process the new linguistic features. In accordance with this, a host of researchers in the SLA domain recently recommend the use of TBI with advanced language students as it requires high mental information processing to enable them assimilate and accommodate the new language knowledge in students' mind to easily construct the new language knowledge in students' mind and quickly retrieve it when needed (e.g., Hassanein & Abu-Ayyash 2018; Murad 2009; Rasakumaran 2017; Salehi & Koorabbashloo 2016).

Moreover, the issue of students' low-proficiency level is associated with other issues such as; large class sizes, students' low motivation and inadequate language materials, rendering teachers unable to give student the time to practice the target language, and thus, falling back on other traditional drills in their speaking classes; such as, wordlist memorization, grammatical rule retention and sentence translation (e.g., Nunan 1989, 2004; Prabhu 1987; Swan 2005; Willis & Willis 2001). However, TBI itself provides a solution for students' low-proficiency issue and all other accompanying ones since it is a flexible approach, and this allows teachers to employ different types of tasks with different levels of complexity to suit the diversity of students' language levels and cognitive abilities (Nunan 2004). Teachers may also apply the assigned tasks gradually in terms of complexity to reduce the cognitive burden on low-proficiency students (Ellis 2003).

Additionally, it is argued by Seedhouse (1997) that students' interaction during the assigned activities is not rich and if so it is of poor quality which may lead to fossilization. That is, the produced incorrect language forms may become a habit and cannot easily be corrected. He also contends that the use of employed tasks as work plans to achieve certain outcomes is of weak construct validity since students' interaction during the task is uncontrolled, and this means that the intended outcomes may not be achieved. Following from this, Seedhouse, (1999, p. 155) concludes that "task-based interaction is a particularly narrow and restricted variety of communication … [and that] it remains to be proven that task-based interaction is more effective than other varieties of classroom interaction".

In congruence with this idea, Bruton (2005, p. 60) claims that "if oral communication tasks do stimulate creative use of the TL [target language] and what Swain (1985) calls 'pushed' output with no immediate interactive constraints, there is no guarantee that the outcome will not

be pidgin-like". Put it differently, the outcome of any uncontrolled interaction will be full of insufficient knowledge of the true nature of pidginization, its linguistic characteristics, its functions and its sociolinguistic circumstances, leading to poor quality production of the target language. However, to transact this issue, language teachers may be advised to adopt the TBI models with three linear stages that require the close supervision and monitoring of students' interaction by teachers when students work on the task. The adoption of these models guarantees students' maximum interaction in the classroom, helps teachers guide, monitor and enrich student-student interaction and enables teachers to intervene if pidginization happens to occur (e.g., Ellis 2003; Skehan 1996; Van den Branden 2006).

Ultimately, Swan (2005) and Widdowson (2012) argue that TBI gives less attention to structure teaching as it primarily focuses on meaning, and this may adversely influence students' language form. Indeed, this allegation by Widdowson and Swan is incorrect as TBI yields students with ample opportunities to improve both language meaning and form as detailed earlier in "characteristics of TBI" sub-section, but this confusion occurs because TBI does not teach grammar in separate activities but it does so during and/ or after the completion of the task. Therefore, we can say that if students are not exposed to some explicit grammatical features during the assignment of TBI, then the blame may go to teachers' qualifications or to any other reason except the TBI approach and its fundamentals.

2.2.15. Commentary on the Conceptual Framework

The above conceptual framework exhibited the importance of speaking in learning the target language since individuals' success in learning the target language was measured by their ability to speak, and researchers now concerned with L2 development used speaking as a measurement

tool to gauge students' proficiency level in the other three language skills. This section also elaborated on the speech monitoring and activation spreading mechanisms involved in L1 and L2 speech processing as well as the problem-solving mechanisms at lexical, grammatical and phonological/ articulatory encoding levels and those related to time pressure to explain how second language is produced.

In addition, the conceptual framework section showed the researcher's tendency to use automatic measurement tools to objectively measure and analyze students' performance on the selected four speaking sub-skills of fluency, lexical sophistication, lexical diversity and syntactic complexity, aiming to obtain more accurate data and more reliable results. On this matter, the researcher employed "Praat" to analyze fluency, "TAALES" for lexical sophistication analysis, "TAALED" to rate lexical diversity and "L2SCA" to score syntactic complexity. For the purpose of this study, four temporal factors were selected to measure fluency (pause frequency, average pause time, articulation rate and phonation-time ratio), three indices were picked out to predict lexical sophistication (word frequency, word range and bigram frequency), three indices were identified to measure lexical diversity (moving-average type-token ratio, measure of textual lexical diversity-original and measure of textual lexical diversity moving-average wrapped) and four indices were nominated to predict syntactic complexity (clauses/T-unit, mean length of clause, mean length of T-unit and dependent clauses/clause).

Moreover, the researcher defined teachers' beliefs as being similar to the definition provided by Borg (2019) for teachers' cognition in that, teachers' beliefs are their knowledge, feelings, assumptions and experience towards the subject matter of the study, taking into account the social, professional, cultural, historical and personal factors. Furthermore, TBI was

presented in this study as a communicative approach with a primary focus on language meaning but it can also develop language accuracy through explicit instruction on language form.

Also, as drawn from the reviewed literature, one of the most attractive features of TBI was that, teachers can use different communicative tasks with different complexity levels to suit the diversity of students' proficiency level and to tackle other issues taken against its applicability in the classroom context. Along with the above, literature showed that there are many influential TBI frameworks of three sequential stages that can be used in the classroom to improve students' speaking abilities. For the purpose of this study, the researcher adopted the framework by Willis (1996) to be implemented in the current research site.

2.3. Previous Related Studies in the Field

2.3.1. The Impact of TBI on Language Development

Since its inception, TBI has gained popularity among scholars, educationalists and linguists, and whose effectiveness as one of the most contemporary and influential approaches to second language teaching has been recognized by many researchers and practitioners in the area (e.g., Bygate 2016; East 2021; Ellis 2003, 2018; Lambert 2019; Long 2016; Nunan 2004; Riestenberg & Sherris 2018; Samuda & Bygate 2008; Skehan 2018; Skehan & Foster 2012; Van den Branden 2006). As a consequence, a plethora of studies was conducted to investigate the influence of TBI on second language development.

For example, a host of papers examined the impact of TBI on language speaking development (e.g., Afifah & Devana 2020; Akalu 2020; Alikahi & Kiany 2021; Belda-Medina 2021; Mulyadi et al. 2021; Nget, Pansri & Poohongthong 2020; Safitri, Rafli & Dewanti 2019; Xuyen & Trang 2021), on language writing development (e.g., Ahmad 2020; Aref & Mojavezi 2019; Biria & Karimi 2015; In'nami & Koizumi 2016; Johnson 2017; Liu & Yao 2019), on language reading development (e.g., Khademi, Mellati & Moghaddam 2017; Mao 2012; Sukma, Rozimela & Ratmanida 2020), on language vocabulary development (e.g., Huang & Eslami 2012; Nychkalo et al. 2020; Shadabi, Golshan & Sayadian 2017), on language grammar development (e.g., Farangi et al. 2017; Li, Ellis & Zhu 2016; Wang 2019), and on all language skills development (e.g., Bryfonski & McKay 2019; Cai & Lv 2019; Wu, Liao & DeBacker 2016).

Taken together, the results from these studies introduced TBI as an effective alternative to the traditional teaching methodologies (e.g., GTM, 3Ps, etc.) for focusing on and emphasizing

interaction and for using authentic tasks as crucial elements during the process of language teaching and learning. The findings also showed the positive perceptions and attitudes of stakeholders including teachers and students towards the use of TBI to develop students' learning of the four main language skills in general and to develop their speaking skill in particular. The results from the meta-analysis studies also revealed a number of methodological and programmatic features that influence the application of TBI to include the cycle of implementation, the analysis of students' needs, and the places where TBI courses or programs are implemented.

2.3.2. The Impact of TBI on L2 Speaking Performance

The following lines aim to review the studies that probed into the impact of TBI on students' speaking performance across different proficiency levels to predict the significance of TBI in tackling the problem of the current research. This review is also essential to identify the gap in the literature and help situate the current study within previous research. Moreover, it is substantial to inform the researcher of the most appropriate research methodologies used to collect data of similar research and the most contemporary theoretical frameworks embraced by different TBI researchers in their interpretation of TBI-related research results.

2.3.2.1. The Impact of TBI on L2 Overall Speaking Performance

Various studies were conducted to investigate the impact of TBI on students' overall speaking performance in different contexts and across proficiency and educational levels (e.g., Afifah & Devana 2020; Akalu 2020; Alikahi & Kiany 2021; Belda-Medina 2021; Bygate 1999; Darrashiri & Mazdayasna 2021; Farahani & Nejad 2009; Hassan et al. 2021; Kirkgöz 2011; Mulyadi et al.

2021; Nation 1991; Nget, Pansri & Poohongthong 2020; Safitri, Rafli & Dewanti 2019; Xuyen & Trang 2021). Collectively, these studies adopted the experimental or quasi-experimental research design using pre-post tests as research instruments to measure students' overall speaking performance before and after the TBI treatment. The results of these studies indicated that TBI was effective in developing students' overall speaking performance in the classroom context.

Giving a detailed example on how communicative tasks were employed in TBI classrooms, Nget, Pansri and Poohongthong (2020) examined the effects of TBI on L2 students' speaking performance and their satisfaction towards the use of this approach in the classroom to improve their speaking abilities. The participants were 78 ninth graders selected based on their equal level of language abilities (having same English language experience and similar language learning backgrounds), then divided into an experimental group of 42 students and a control group of 36 students. The non-equivalent quasi-experimental research design was embraced using pre-post tests as tools to collect the research data from both the experimental and control groups. Both groups were given a pre-test at the very beginning to ensure that there are equal in terms of oral proficiency level prior to the treatment and a post-test at the end of the treatment, which lasted for four and a half weeks, to measure the impact of the treatment on their oral performance.

The research material encompassed two sets of nine lesson plans taught by the same teacher over nine consecutive sessions of ninety minutes for each using TBI with the experimental group and 3Ps with the control group. Willis's (1996) TBI framework was adapted in this study to suit its purpose then used to teach TBI lesson plans. The eighteen communicative tasks taught throughout the treatment were selected from students' textbook, and

they included one listing task, one information-gap task, two ordering tasks, two reasoning-gap tasks, three matching tasks, four opinion-gap tasks and five dialogue tasks. The same content of textbook was also studied by the control group but based on the PPP lesson format. To ensure the validity of the lesson plans, they were reviewed by three external judges specialized in curriculum development and language assessment.

Adapting the TBI framework by Willis (1996), the TBI framework consisted of five stages; the first stage of which was the opening stage in which the teacher imposed discipline and checked attendance. The second stage was the pre-task stage in which the teacher made an introduction to the topic and to the task. The third stage was the task cycle in which the teacher assigned students to work on the given tasks and gave them time to prepare for their speech and asked some students to present the task whether in spoken or written forms. The fourth stage was the language focus stage in which the teacher focused on some linguistic features from students' speeches or other linguistic features thought to be important by the teacher and then asked the students to practice them in controlled/ free contexts. The last stage was the closing stage in which the teacher asked some confirmation/ comprehension/ reflection questions and assigned students' homework.

On the other hand, the 3Ps framework consisted of three stages; the first stage of which was the presentation stage in which the teacher introduced the topic, explained the meaning of some new words, and exposed, presented and checked students' comprehension of the new linguistic features. The second stage was the practice stage in which the teacher asked the students to practice the already learned linguistic features through some drills and controlled practices. The third stage was the production stage in which the teacher asked the students to use

the language they learned during the first two stages in their speaking through free practice contexts.

As for the pre-post tests, they were organized following the Cambridge English's (2011) speaking test format; that is, the participants were tested in pairs but their performances were assessed separately. The participants' speaking performances were scored by two independent raters and whose scores were subject to inter-rater reliability test using Pearson coefficient analysis to ensure the reliability of the test results (r = 0.80). The speaking rubric was adapted from Cambridge English (2011) and Ulster University (2018) and used to measure five speaking sub-skills at the same time (fluency, interaction, pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary).

The results from this study showed that the experimental group outperformed the control group on overall speaking skill and on all speaking sub-skills to a significant degree, demonstrating the superiority of TBI over 3Ps in enhancing L2 students' oral production of the target language. Moreover, the results exhibited that the experimental group was satisfied with the adoption of TBI in the classroom as it increased their confidence and self-reliance, triggered them to speak through group work, offered them the exposure to the target language, created an enjoyable environment for learning, helped them retain grammar and vocabulary and enabled them to interact more and speak faster.

Adding more interesting results from the reviewed studies, the results from the two studies by Bygate (1999) and Newton and Kennedy (1996) revealed that TBI was also effective in developing other linguistic features and structures; such as students' grammatical, discourse and pragmatic competence during their interaction. The results of the two studies by Kirkgöz (2011) and Mulyadi et al. (2021) showed that the use of technology in TBI classes enhanced students' speaking performance, suggesting the use of modern technology with TBI to better

implement TBI in the classroom context and then students' better speaking performance. The findings from the studies by Afifah and Devana (2020), Akalu (2020), Darrashiri and Mazdayasna (2021), Safitri, Rafli and Dewanti (2019) and Xuyen and Trang (2021) showed the positive attitudes of students towards the implementation of TBI to improve their speaking skills as it created an anxiety-free communicative environment for them to express ideas, to negotiate language meaning and form and to evaluate their learning. Adding further reasons for their positive attitudes towards TBI, the participating students commented that TBI was motivational and challenging in the classroom as it provided students with opportunities to do the task on their own and to perform it in front of the class under the full supervision of their teachers.

However, despite showing an improvement in students' speaking performance on the post-test scores, the results of the study by Alikahi and Kiany (2021) indicated no significant difference between the two investigated groups after both TBI and the critical pedagogy based teaching strategy were assigned, suggesting the equal effect of both teaching strategies on students' speaking performance. Finally, the results from study conducted by Farahani and Nejad (2009) demonstrated that students' gender was not a determining factor in students' speaking development under the TBI approach.

Adding another dimension to the positive impact of TBI on students' production of the target language, Plonsky and Kim (2016) aimed to get insight into the features most associated with the implementation of TBI to ensure best TBI practices in the classroom. The study was a synthesis and meta-analysis study in which the researchers analyzed a plethora of studies (about 85 studies) published from 2006 to 2015 with particular interest in exploring the features affecting the successful application of TBI to promote students' production of the target language. It did not look into the effect sizes and the difference in students' performance after

treatments as most of meta-analysis studies did, but rather it researched the most overarching and methodological features associated with TBI implementation. This included target features; such as fluency, accuracy, complexity, lexis, pragmatics, pronunciation, task performance quality and grammar, methodological features; such as needs analysis, sampling, reporting practices and study designs, and other demographic and contextual features; such as participants' demographic information and the contexts where different studies were conducted.

The research materials were basically 85 published studies searched for by the researchers using three databases: Google search engine, Google Scholar and Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts (LLBA). The research data was analyzed in three different ways based on the research questions. Some data were analyzed by calculating the frequencies and percentages of the intended features. Some other data was analyzed by calculating the central tendency of continuously measured features such as research samples. The rest of data was analyzed by calculating score means, standard deviation and confidence intervals of multiple target features.

The most important findings from this study were: (1) the preference of investigating certain target features such as accuracy, vocabulary, fluency, grammar, and the little tendency towards the probe into pragmatics, pronunciation and the quality of students' performance on tasks, (2) a strong propensity towards research on adult students, (3) the majority of researchers preferred to conduct their studies on intermediate students but without providing clear justification on students' current proficiency levels as determined by international tests (e.g., IELTS tests, TOEFL tests, etc.), (4) most of experiments were conducted in classroom settings not labs, (5) most of studies were conducted on students at university level, (6) the majority of studies investigated oral language production rather than written language production using

face-to-face tasks not computer-mediated communicative tasks, (7) the use of manual technique rather than computer-based technique for coding students' language production, and (8) the use of ANOVA test and t-test as major statistical analyses of TBI-related studies.

The study by In'nami and Koizumi (2016) was appealing in the way it added rater factors to task factors in their investigation into the impact of TBI on students' production of the target language. It synthesized the results of 38 studies (17 studies on L2 writing and 21 studies on L2 speaking) and used the generalizability theory as a theoretical foundation to pinpoint the percentage of variation in students' L2 speaking and writing performance based on tasks, raters and their interaction. The research materials were accessed through three ways; (1) the internet search on databases, (2) the published books and journals in the area of L2 acquisition and testing, and (3) communication with other researchers on the most relevant studies.

The data was analyzed in three phases; the researchers first coded the results related to both person-by-task and person-by-rater designs, then they coded the values of variance components from the studies. This was followed by the computation of means and standard deviations of the percentage of variation in students' L2 speaking and writing performance for each moderator variable; task types, contexts, and scoring, enabling them to identify the link between moderator variables and the percentages.

It was found that, (1) interaction effects of tasks or raters were much higher than the independent effects of tasks or raters, (2) the score variances were significantly largely ascribed to the task and task-related interaction effects rather than to the rater and rater-related interaction effects, (3) increasing the number of tasks or raters resulted in high score generalizability, and (4) certain factors such as scoring criteria, scoring methods and contexts influenced students' speaking performance on tasks.

2.3.2.2. The Impact of TBI on L2 Oral Fluency Performance

Adopting the narrow meaning of fluency in that, fluency is a distinct component of speech, and hence, separate assessment rubrics in oral test settings should be used, Namaziandost, Hashemifardnia and Shafiee (2019) examined the effect of three communicative tasks as proposed by Prabhu (1987): information gap, reasoning gap and opinion gap, on students' oral fluent production of the target language. The researchers adopted a quick placement test prior to the quasi-experiment to ensure that the selected participants were homogeneous with regard to their proficiency level prior to the study (140 intermediate participants were selected based on an Oxford quick placement test). The researchers also used the pre-post test tool to measure students' fluency level before and after the intervention. The participants were triggered to speak about 2-3 minutes on topics in students' textbook. Moreover, the reliability of test scores was ensured through inter-rater reliability using Pearson correlation analysis in the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software. Also, a third research tool; a speaking checklist, was developed by the researchers to help score students' speech based on four fluency measures: false starts, repetitions, reformations and replacements. Further to this, speed of production and grammatical accuracy were also assessed as an indicator of students' oral fluency development. The participants were divided into 4 groups, three of which were assigned the three communicative tasks while the fourth one was employed the 3Ps teaching method.

After the pre-test was administered to all groups, the opinion-gap group was assigned topics and it had the opportunity during the pre-task stage to discuss the topics-related words, phrases and idioms. During the task-cycle stage, it was given opinion-gap tasks to discuss and give their opinions towards the given tasks. The teacher's role during this stage was significant for attempting to keep the discussion going by aiding to solve the grammatical problems faced

by the students and providing the required words. At the end of this stage, the students were asked to talk about the given tasks before the whole class. The third stage was allocated to increase students' knowledge of the target grammar through some awareness-raising activities. The difference between this group and the other two groups was in the second stage where the students in the information-gap group were assigned some information-gap tasks and were asked to work in pairs to discuss these tasks and exchange the necessary information and the students in the problem-solving group were employed some problem-solving tasks and then asked to provide reasons while talking about the given tasks. On the other hand, the students of the control group were employed the traditional 3Ps strategy where teaching was teacher-centered and the students were not given the opportunity to express their opinion or provide reasons while doing the assigned tasks. After the treatment, which lasted for 15 sessions, the post test was run to measure the impact of the treatment on students' oral fluency performance.

The participants' speaking recordings were scored by two expert raters along with the researchers, and then analyzed using SPSS to measure the difference in students' oral performance after the treatment which lasted for 15 sessions. The results of one-way ANOVA revealed that the participants with the three communicative tasks outperformed those with 3Ps and that the information-gap task had a greater impact on students' fluent production of the target language to a significant degree.

Adopting the same trend towards the meaning of fluency and having similar results, Ortiz-Neira (2019) embraced the mixed-methods research approach to collect both numerical data about the impact of information-gap tasks on students' production of more fluent speech and descriptive data about students' perception towards the adopted teaching approach. The researcher used two research tools to gather the research data: the pre-post test and questionnaire

tools. The participants, a total of 23 eighth graders, were chosen based on their low English proficiency level (between A1 and A2 according to CEFR). The homogeneity of the participants was confirmed based on their low performance in speaking activities and on the results of a previous study conducted on students with a similar grade level in the same context. The students' speeches were recorded and assessed using a fluency rating scale adapted from Weir (1993). This scale included five fluency measures: hesitation, coherence, the length of utterance, the speed of utterance and the ability to use fillers skillfully. This holistic scale was validated by three PhD professors and five master students. The information-gap tasks used throughout the treatment, which lasted for 10 sessions over 10 weeks, were taken from the Cambridge English: Young Learners test based on students' proficiency level and then adapted in accordance with the Chilean curricular framework. Two types of information gap tasks were employed throughout the intervention and assessed using two different versions of the "Cambridge Young Learners English: Flyers Speaking". The questionnaire was applied to a focus group of 6 students to understand their perception towards the employed tasks.

To describe the intervention, two types of tasks were given in every session: spot/find the difference and information exchange tasks. During the spot/find the difference tasks, the students were assigned to work in pairs with each one having a similar picture and talking about five different things in the picture. During the information exchange tasks, the students were given out incomplete grids and they had to exchange information with their pairs to complete the gaps by asking questions and giving answers.

The findings from this study showed a significant improvement in students' fluent production on the two types of tasks after the treatment. The results also showed no significant difference in students' scores on the two types of tasks after the treatment, indicating the equal

balance created by the two types of information-gap tasks on students' ability to produce more fluent speech. Finally, the results exhibited the positive perceptions of students towards the employed teaching approach as (1) it encourages students to engage in communicative activities and practice the target language, (2) it has clear objectives, and (3) it creates positive classroom atmosphere with the use of fun tasks.

Similarly, Masuram and Sripada (2020) investigated the impact of TBI on undergraduate students' oral production of more fluent language in Hyderabad. It also explored both teachers' and students' opinions towards the use of TBI to improve students' speaking skills. To do so, the researchers adopted the quasi-experimental research and used five tools to gather the research data: pre-post tests, questionnaire, interview, students' diary and classroom observation checklist. The participants' fluency performance was assessed on a number of communicative tasks; such as speaking on a topic, planning for a trip, picture story retelling, re-ordering the sentences and so forth. The pre-test was administered at the beginning of the experiment to check the current fluency level of students while the post-test was run two week after the intervention to measure the difference in students' fluency performance. The English classes were observed by the researchers to ensure the proper adoption of the investigated TBI.

The research intervention, which lasted for three weeks, was conducted using different communicative tasks to develop students' speaking abilities based on TBI. Before assigning the tasks, the students were given clear instructions on how to complete them, and then they were divided into pairs to complete them. These tasks included making an identity card of the partner, exchanging personal experiences and goals, talking about a topic, etc. After the task was completed, some students were assigned to report on the task in front of their colleagues. At the end of each lesson, a general discussion between the teacher and the students was held to know

the students' beliefs towards the impact of the assigned task. Not only this, the students were also asked to write their diaries on the significance of TBI in their English as a second language (ESL) classes.

At the end of the treatment, a post-test was run to examine the impact of the treatment on students' production of more fluent language. This was followed by some informal interviews with the participating students and teachers to understand their opinions towards the effective and successful implementation of TBI to foster students' speaking abilities. The results showed a significant improvement in students' fluency performance after the experiment when compared to their performance prior to the experiment. The results also showed teachers' and students' positive views towards the adoption of TBI in EFL classes for its ability to promote students' interaction and provide more opportunities for engagement in real-life and meaningful situations. Further to this, they agreed that TBI provided the three main conditions for learning: motivation, exposure and use of the target language.

Using utterance fluency measures to score speaking fluency, Tavakoli, Campbell and McCormack (2016) conducted very important research in which they studied the impact of a short-term pedagogic intervention on students' development of L2 fluency. The researchers adopted the quantitative approach and used the pre-post test instrument to collect the research data from 37 English for academic purposes (EAP) students. The participants were chosen based on their score on the IELTS test in the speaking and listening tests (between 5 and 5.5) before the experiment (B2 level according to CEFR), and then randomly divided into two groups; control and experimental groups. While the two groups received a syllabus-based instruction on listening and speaking activities, the experiment group further received a pedagogical intervention in the form of fluency-focused tasks (awareness-raising tasks).

The aim of this intervention was to (1) raise the experimental group's awareness of different fluency aspects (e.g., speed, repair and breakdown) through some awareness-raising activities (e.g., students listen to a non-native English speaker and evaluate their fluency performance with regard to speed, repair and breakdown measures), (2) improve the experimental group's utterance fluency through the use of some techniques (e.g., using fillers effectively and practicing them in conversations and avoiding hesitation in conversations), and (3) to offer the experimental group the opportunity to practice the target language collectively inside the class (e.g., students to retell the story they just listened to) and individually outside the class (e.g., students to retell another story and record their speech, then they listen to their own speech and identify the problems and then record their speech again on the same task).

Throughout the pedagogical intervention which lasted for four weeks, the students at the experimental group were given two 15- 20 minutes instructional sessions every week to talk about the assigned fluency-focused tasks as well as in-class and follow-up fluency focused tasks. The experimental group was further given a weekly fluency training task to do at home, and their work on this task was discussed in the next session. To enhance both groups' speaking, they were asked to work on both planned speeches; such as individual presentations, and unplanned speeches; such as group discussions.

The participants' performance was evaluated through two monologic tasks, one before the experiment and one at the end of the experiment. They were given one minute to plan for the task and another minute to perform the task. The fluency measures included in this study were: mean length of run, mean length of pauses, mean number of clause-internal versus clause-external silent pauses, mean number of filled pauses, mean number of partial or complete repetitions, hesitations, false starts and reformulations per minute, phonation time ratio,

articulation rate and speech rate. The research data was analyzed using three statistical analysis tools: multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), t-tests and correlations. The results revealed that, the experimental group's fluency performance significantly differed from the control group on the post- test, as it gave longer runs, faster speech and articulation rate and high phonation time ratio.

Adding dialogic tasks to monologic tasks to know which type of tasks has a greater impact on students' fluent production of the target language, Witton-Davies (2014) examined the impact of monologic in the form of story retelling and dialogic in the form of discussion, on students' production of fluency over a period of 4 years. The results indicated the superiority of dialogic tasks over monologic tasks in enhancing students' performance of L2 fluency as the participants with dialogic tasks produced higher speech rates, fewer repair words and less pausing.

Agreeing with the results of Witton-Davies (2014) and providing reasons why monologic tasks are used more extensively in the literature than dialogic tasks, the study by Tavakoli (2016) was significant as it reported on the challenges facing L2 fluency measures on both monologic and dialogic task performance and on the impact of some interactive aspects of speech (e.g., overlap, interruption, between turn pauses) on dialogic task performance. To conduct the study, 35 EAP students from a university in the United Kingdom (UK) were selected to be the research participants. Their level was B2 level (CEFR) based on their results in the IELTS test (between 5 and 5.5). The participants, who were the native speakers of Thai, Russian, Kurdish and Arabic languages, performed a monologic task and a dialogic task in one of the speaking sessions.

The monolgic task was a retelling task in which the participants were provided one minute to prepare for the task and another one minute to perform the task. The dialogic task was a discussion task in which the participants were given one minute to plan for the task and three minutes to report on the task. Students' performance on both tasks were recorded, coded and scored based on a number of measures including: articulation rate, speech rate, mean length of pauses per 60 seconds, mean number of pauses per 60 seconds, mean number of partial or complete repetitions, hesitations, false starts and reformulations, mean number of filled pauses, mean length of run, phonation time ratio, and number of turns and number of interruptions. Praat software was used to measure all temporal variables of fluency; such as articulation rate, length of pause and phonation time, while the rest of measures; such as repairs and number of filled pauses, were measured manually.

The results from this study showed that the participants with dialogic tasks outperformed those with monologic tasks on measures like repair, speech speed and length of pauses to a significant degree, while no significant difference was noticed on measures like number and location of pauses. However, despite the positive impact of dialogic tasks on L2 fluency, the researcher provided reasons why monologic tasks were more frequent in L2 fluency research. According to the researcher, unlike dialogic tasks, monolgic tasks are more controlled tasks, students' performance on monologic tasks are more predictable and the fluency measuring procedures are more clear and easier to conduct with monologic tasks.

2.3.2.3. The Impact of TBI on the Three CAF Components

Looking into the development of CAF in TBI research, Ellis, Li and Zhu (2019) investigated the impact of TBI on students' oral production of complexity, accuracy and fluency. The research

participants were 72 eighth-grade Chinese students who were divided into two groups with one group exposed to two narrative texts without explicit instruction (TBI) and the other exposed to the same two texts but with explicit instruction (TSLT). The difference between the two groups was that, the participants with explicit instruction were exposed to 10 minutes explanation on the past passive form and how to use it before task performance.

The teacher of both groups read the two narrative texts loudly for three times while the students' role at this time was confined to being passive listeners to the teacher. After that, the teacher allocated 15 minutes for the students to work in pairs and practice retelling story. The students' performance on the two assigned tasks was analyzed using measures such as "average pause length" for fluency, "error per 100 words" for accuracy and "length of AS-units" for complexity. The result from the study showed that the students without implicit instruction outperformed those with explicit instruction on the three speaking sub-skills of complexity, accuracy and fluency, and there was no significant difference between the two groups regarding the accurate use of the instructed past passive form. However, despite being ineffective in enhancing accuracy, the results showed increased attempts to use the target grammar by the group with explicit instruction, suggesting using it to improve students' speaking accuracy.

Vercellotti (2017) conducted a longitudinal study to examine students' oral performance in terms of complexity, accuracy and fluency by analyzing students' performance during topic-based speeches recorded monthly over a period of 10 months. Not only this, the study also aimed to examine the relationship between CAF components to check the emergence of trade-off effects during L2 development. According to the trade-off hypothesis, the attention to one area of speaking performance or more may result in a lower performance in the others due to students' limited attentional capacities. The sixty-six research participants were students from

three different L1 backgrounds: Arabic (43), Chinese (16) and Korean (7). Those participants were exposed to an intensive English program during which TBI was used as a main teaching strategy. To identify their proficiency levels and place them into instruction levels, a standardized test and two in-house tests were administered. The students' scores on the in-house listening placement test were considered as the best measurement of their proficiency levels because it was shown through the Pearson correlation analysis that the in-house listening placement test was strongly correlated with placement into instruction level (r = .838). The selected participants were divided into two groups with similar age and proficiency scores as confirmed by a two-tailed t-test (p = .520).

The participants were observed over 3-10 months during the program with a maximum 7 and a minimum of 3 observations for each participant. The participants were assessed through a 2-minute recorded monologue from the tasks studied during the intensive English program. They were given one minute to plan for their speech during the speaking test but they were not allowed to take notes or use reference materials. The students' speeches were measured using a rating scale that included the three components of speaking performance: complexity, accuracy and fluency.

Seeking the help of Praat software, the research data was transcribed by a highly qualified native English speaker who had ample experience with transcribing non-native speeches. The data was then coded into clauses and AS-units; that is, clear utterances were coded as AS-units, while the utterance with errors in morphology, syntax and lexis were coded within clauses. Complexity was measured in terms of the mean length of AS-unit in words, fluency was calculated in terms of the mean length of pauses, accuracy was rated based on the percentage of error-free clauses, while lexical diversity was rated using the "vocd" index.

The data was analyzed using hieratical linear and non-linear growth modeling analogous to linear regression and analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). It was particularly chosen for its ability to display longitudinal data and detect the changes in students' performance. For each CAF measure, a chi-square test was performed to compare linear and non-linear growth models, and the final model results were fully reported. Initial proficiency, topic and clause length were set to be the independent variables in this study while syntactic complexity, lexical diversity, accuracy and fluency were identified to be the dependent variables.

The results of the study showed a steady linear development in the students' speaking performance in terms of fluency, accuracy and syntactic complexity, while lexical diversity showed non-linear development; a slight decline at the beginning followed by a steep growth over time. The study also did not detect any trade-off effects between the three CAF components as it showed strong rather than competitive relationships between them.

However, the longitudinal study by Ferrari (2012) in which the researcher investigated the impact of monologic and dialogic tasks on CAF development over a period of four consecutive years between 2005 and 2008 showed adverse results. This study used a systematic data collection procedure that allowed for comparisons across samples while at the same time mitigating the impact of task repetition. The participants, a total of six participants, were four L2 learners of Italian with proficiency levels of B1 and B2 (on the CEFR scale) at the beginning of the study and two native speakers of Italian with proficiency levels of C1 (according to the CEFR scale) at the onset of the study. The L2 participants were from different nationalities: Nigeria, Eritrea, Ghana and India, and they had different L1 backgrounds of English, Tigrigna, Twi and Punjabi respectively. At the beginning of the study, all participants (all female students) were enrolled at the same vocational secondary school. During the three-year long observation

period, three of the L2 students continued to study at university level while the fourth student started to work as an accountant in a private company.

The L2 students' development was tested every three months between 2005 and 2008 (four times a year) while the two Italian students' performance was assessed twice in 2005 and 2007. At every data collection session, all participants were asked to perform two monologic tasks (story retelling and film picture retelling) and two dialogic tasks (telephone call opening and interview). The independent variables were set to be nativeness, task type, time and group versus individual scores while the dependent variables were identified in this study as complexity, accuracy and fluency. The participants, during the story retelling task, were asked to tell an unfamiliar story to the interviewer and given time to plan before retelling. During the film picture retelling, the participants were asked to watch a short film of ten minutes, then they were allocated time to plan before retelling in front of the interviewer, with both the participants and the interviewer have not seen the short films before. The participants, during the phone calls, were required to make some calls to collect some information about specific topics; such as a book, a DVD, a mobile phone or a CD, using some spoken functions identified as part of the objectives of the task or to organize a trip to a given destination. The participants during the phone calls, around 5 to 7 calls for each participant yearly, were required to call experts, travel agents and shop assistants to make the best possible choices. As for the interview tasks, each participant was asked to make an informative speech with the interviewer who was an Italian L2 teacher. The topics included talking about habits, experiences, home country, family, self and so forth.

The development of CAF triad was assessed in this study based on a number of measures. For example, syntactic complexity was assessed using two quantitative measures of

subordination (average number of subordinate clauses per AS-unit) and length (average number of words per clause). Accuracy was measured based on the percentage of error-free AS-units. As for fluency, two measures were used: the average number of silent pauses per AS-unit and the average number of hesitation phenomena (e.g., repetitions, false starts, filled pauses) per AS-unit. The results showed a development on the three CAF constructs over time, and this development was more linear for fluency and non-linear for accuracy (U-shaped growth). Supporting the developmental prediction hypothesis, the results revealed an increase for clause length coupled with a decrease in subordination ratio. The results also confirmed the trade-off effects between the three CAF components across tasks, more clearly between complexity and fluency on monologic than dialogic tasks.

Using technology with communicative tasks to improve students' speaking skills in terms of complexity, accuracy and fluency, the study by Trevisol and D'ely (2021) aimed to investigate the impact of TBI with digital storytelling on students' oral production of more complex, accurate, and fluent language. Fourteen Brazilian students, aging between 18 and 50 years old, with language proficiency levels ranging between basic and intermediate levels, and all from an English teaching program implemented in Bahia state in Brazil, were selected to be the participants of the study. Research tools included a pre-test run right before the experiment, an immediate post-test administered right after the experiment, a delayed-post test conducted within one month after the experiment, as well as a questionnaire to collect some data of qualitative nature from the research participants to understand their perception towards the use of digital technology in TBI classes to improve students' speaking abilities. To ensure the proper employment of TBI using digital storytelling, the English sessions, a total of 6 sessions over three weeks, were taught by the researcher. During the TBI cycle, some digital storytelling

tasks were first introduced, then explained by the teacher and then assigned for the students to work on during the second TBI phase. Not only this, a workshop on how to use “movie maker” software was provided to enhance the participating students’ familiarity with the use of this software to enable them to create their own digital storytelling during the task performance. The students, during the second phase of TBI, were asked to work in groups to complete the given task and to present it before the class. The third stage of TBI cycle was usually allocated to discuss the students’ performance on the assigned tasks, provide constructive feedback and give recommendations for better performance on the next task.

The data of the study was collected from two sources: the first source of which was short oral narratives of one minute produced individually in English and gleaned via WhatsApp using the students’ smartphones. The students were given 10 minutes to prepare for their narratives and allowed to take notes during this time to help them frame their speech but they are not allowed to use these notes during their speech. The second source was fourteen digital storytelling videos of about 2-5 minutes long created individually in English by the participating students.

The CAF components as well as lexical richness were scored using nine measures including the number of subordinate clauses per AS-unit for complexity, the number of errors per AS-unit for accuracy, the following six measures to calculate fluency: the number of words per minute (pruned and unpruned), the number of pauses per AS-unit (filled and unfilled), the percentage of unfilled pauses and the number of self-repairs per AS-unit and finally the proportion and frequency of lexical items for lexical richness. The data was analyzed using some descriptive and inferential statistic tools (e.g., gain scores, standard deviations, means, normality test and Friedman test).

The results showed a positive change in all participants on, at least, one of the measures after the experiment; that is, L2 students' oral production was characterized as being more lexically rich, fluent, accurate or complex, even though the difference was not significantly large. The results suggested the need to conduct similar studies over longer periods of time to be able to see a noticeable change in students' oral performance. The results also exhibited the positive perception of the participants towards the use of digital storytelling during the TBI cycle to improve students' speaking skills as it enabled them to notice the gap in their speech, assess their own oral performance and reflect on the produced language, recommending the use of digital storytelling as an alternative tool in L2 classes to enhance effective language teaching and learning.

Integrating critical thinking standards into TBI principles, Yaprak and Kaya (2020) investigated the impact of reasoning-gap communicative tasks on students' speaking performance in terms of complexity, accuracy and fluency. The research participants, a total of sixteen students, were randomly divided into two equal groups of eight students, and each group was further spit into four sub-groups with two students per each. Each sub-group was assigned a task from the four reasoning-gap tasks given to each group. The students were allowed to choose their partners in each sub-group with only the experimental sub-groups were given a special training on critical thinking standards. To help students acquire the linguistic and non-linguistic aspects of language, the four reasoning- gap tasks were designed to include the linguistic, socio-behavioral and cognitive development dimensions. The topics of the four tasks were: gender inequality at workplace, problems of early teen marriage, sharing household chores, and separation and divorce.

The data was gleaned through recorded samples of classroom interaction and semi-structured interviews and analyzed through a task performance rubric and a web-based "Text-Inspector" language analysis tool. Fluency was scored through four measures of pronunciation (speaking clearly with no mispronunciation), hesitations, repetitions (clauses, phrases, words) and false starts. Accuracy was rated through the number of errors in syntax, morphology and semantics. Complexity was measured through the variety in word choices and the use of different types of sentences (simple, compound, complex, complex/ compound sentences). The measurements used with linguistic complexity were the subordination index (SI) for syntactic complexity and TTR, vocd-D and MTLD for lexical diversity. The students' cognitive development was measured through five main intellectual standards: breadth (giving personal views towards the topic), logicalness (well-organization and reasonableness of the given information), depth and precision (the ability to provide profound analysis and present the necessary details), clarity (clarity of the message), and accuracy (correct information substantiated with evidence).

Two raters were asked to rate students' speaking performance and cognitive development, and the high inter-rater reliability between both raters was confirmed (Cronbach's α=.98). Moreover, Levene's test was conducted to assure the homogeneity of variance, and the MANOVA test was executed to check the difference in both groups' performance on complexity, accuracy and fluency variables. Additionally, the "text inspector" language analysis tool was used to analyze the students' transcribed speeches with regard to lexical diversity, meta-discourse markers and the relation between the vocabulary used and the European vocabulary profiles.

The findings showed that the participants in the experimental group who were subject to special training on critical thinking standards improved their oral performance in the three performance areas of fluency, accuracy and complexity. By comparing the results of the experimental group to that of the control group, the results exhibited a statistically significant difference between the two groups on accuracy (syntactic, morphological and semantic analyses) and linguistic complexity (syntactic complexity and lexical diversity), but not fluency. Based on the semi-structured interview results, the experimental group's participants agreed on the positive impact of critical thinking standards on their oral performance of the target language. Also, according to the qualitative results, critical thinking standards; such as logicalness, accuracy, breadth, depth, clarity and precision, not only motivated the participants to do much effort to achieve communicative success, but also allowed them to negotiate meanings, seek the necessary information and comprehend the entire situation, leading to the improvement of both linguistic and non-linguistic aspects of the target language.

Including some multiple intelligence features (e.g., linguistic, logical-mathematical, music, bodily-kinesthetic, visual-spatial, interpersonal, intrapersonal) into a TBI syllabus, Xu (2021) examined the impact of TBI on students' speaking performance in terms of the three CAF components. Sixty university students were randomly selected then divided into two equal groups of thirty for the research treatment to answer the question about the impact of the study on the three CAF components while three hundred fifty-nine students were selected to complete a questionnaire about their multiple intelligence preferences. A TBI syllabus with multiple intelligence features was developed and employed to the experimental group while the control group was assigned the same TBI syllabus but without multiple intelligences.

To elaborate on the study treatment, the study was conducted in three phases: the first phase aimed to identify the participants' self-perception of multiple intelligence preferences through a questionnaire given out to them. The second phase targeted enhancing students' speaking performance in terms of complexity, accuracy and fluency by integrating the perceived multiple intelligences into a TBI syllabus for the experimental group while the control group was exposed to TBI through the same TBI syllabus provided for the experimental group but without multiple intelligences. The third phase aimed to measure the difference between the two investigated groups in terms of their oral performance by calculating the data collected from the pre-post tests. The data from the pre-post tests was analyzed using paired sample t-test and independent sample t-tests to check any changes in both groups' speaking abilities after the experiment and to compare the results of the experimental group to that of the control group at the end of the experiment.

The researcher relied on some measures in calculating students' speaking performance in terms of the three CAF components. For example, the researcher used six indices to measure complexity: frequency of use of conjunctions, lexical richness (percentage of lexical to structural words), number of turns per minute, amount of subordination (total number of clauses divided by the total number of c-units), percentage of words functioning as lexical verbs and frequency of use of prepositions. Fluency was measured through eight measures: number of repetitions, number of words per run, number of pauses (over one second), mean length of run, number of syllables per minute, number of words per minute, number of reformulations and mean length of pauses (in second). Accuracy was calculated through six measures: number of self-corrections, ratio of indefinite to definite articles, target-like use of verb tenses, percentage of error-free clauses, target-like use of plurals and target-like use of articles.

The findings showed that the musical intelligence feature had the highest mean score (15.66), then came the interpersonal, linguistic, intrapersonal, visual-spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, and logical-mathematical intelligence features respectively, indicating the high perception of students towards the musical intelligence feature and their low perception towards the logical-mathematical intelligence feature. Furthermore, comparing the results of the experimental group on the pre-post tests after the integration of multiple intelligence features using the paired sample t-test showed a statistically significant improvement in students' speaking performance in the three performance areas of complexity, accuracy and fluency. Finally, the comparison between the mean scores of both groups after the integration of multiple intelligence features in the TBI syllabus for the experimental group showed a statistical difference in favor of the experimental group to a significant degree, suggesting this integration in TBI curricula to better improve students' speaking performance in the three performance areas of complexity, accuracy and fluency.

To end with, an interesting research was conducted by Medina Fernández (2021) in which the researcher synthesized and meta-analyzed previous research on the impact of TBI on students' overall speaking performance and their speaking performance in terms of complexity, accuracy and fluency. This mixed-methods research synthesis was adopted by the researcher to fit with the adoption of pretest-experimental-posttest design and the exploration of the most common effects and practices generally used in TBI-related research. To collect the research data, some key words and phrases (e.g., communicative tasks, task-based language teaching, speaking skills, L2 oral production and fluency) were used to do initial search on Google Scholar, on some databases (e.g., Microsoft Academic, ScienceDirect and ERIC) and on other peer-viewed journals that focus on SLA research (e.g., TESOL Quarterly, Language Teaching

Research, Journal of English as an International Language, Applied Linguistics, Modern Language Learning, The Language Learning Journal, International Journal of Applied Linguistics, Advances in Language and Literary Studies, Sage Journal and English Language Teaching Journal).

The searching process was governed by three eligibility criteria determined by the researcher. These criteria included (1) the focus should be on developing L2 oral production within TBI frameworks, (2) the date of publication should range from 2006 to 2021, and (3) the selected studies should measure overall speaking performance or, at least, one or more speaking performance areas; such as fluency, accuracy and/or complexity, through intervention. The screening process resulted in 172 studies matching the above three eligibility criteria, and this was followed by another elimination process to remove any duplicated studies or the studies with poor quality intervention or with insufficient data, and the result was 61 studies representing the data of the research. To enable a systematic review of the selected studies, they were coded and analyzed based on their substantive and methodological features allowing for the easy retrieval of both quantitative and qualitative data that the researcher wanted to synthesize. Moreover, out of the selected 61 studies, 11 studies were selected for meta-analysis based on the use of TBI as a teaching methodology against other teaching methodologies to check their impact on students' speaking performance, the utilization of experimental or quasi-experimental research design and the exploitation of pre-post tests to collect research data.

Some significant results were obtained from this study including: (1) the majority of studies employed the quantitative research approach using the quasi-experimental design while about (20%) of the studies adopted the mixed-methods research approach using interviews to collect the qualitative data, (2) most of the employed tasks through research experiments

included oral narrative, information-gap, problem-solving, opinion-gap, decision making and role play tasks, (3) there was an increased interest in the adoption of TBI in the Asian-South pacific region as most of studies were conducted in contexts where the Indonesian, Japanese, Korean, Chinese and Arabic languages were the native languages, (4) the studies were conducted mainly on students at intermediate level (53%) in comparison to the other proficiency levels; advanced level (2%), pre-intermediate level (19%) and beginners (26%), (5) the employed statistical tests were independent sample t-tests (34%), paired sample t-test (24%), repeated-measures ANOVA (11%), Mann–Whitney U-test (2%), one-way ANOVA (13%), MANOVA (10%), Wilcoxon signed ranks test (2%) and Pearson correlation test (4%), (6) the most frequent measures used to calculate CAF included number of complex AS-units and ratio of clauses to AS-units for complexity, speech rate (number of syllables per minute) for fluency and both percentage of error-free clauses and errors per 100 words for accuracy, (7) most of studies used task types (e.g., dialogic and monologic narrative tasks, decision making tasks, picture-based descriptive tasks, information-gap tasks), task complexity, task planning and task repetition as instructional choices to measure the development of the three CAF components, (8) the use of task repetition proved effective to develop the three CAF components in most of the studies on the basis that task repetition succeeded to manipulate students' attention to both language form and meaning in task execution, (9) the use of task complexity, task planning conditions and task structure reflected a significant improvement on one or two dimensions but not the three CAF dimensions together on the basis that students have limited attentional resources to pay attention to the three CAF components at the same time, and (10) the studies that used holistic rating scales to measure speaking tended to use the quasi-experimental

research design in the form of pre-post tests to collect research data, and these studies proved the positive impact of TBI intervention on students' oral production of the target language.

2.3.2.4. The Impact of TBI on L2 Speaking Performance in Egypt

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, only one study was found in the literature to investigate the impact of TBI on improving L2 students' abilities to communicate effectively using the target language. This study was conducted by Torky (2006) in which the researcher investigated the impact of TBI on first-year secondary students' speaking performance in Giza Governorate; about 4.9 km southwest of central Cairo, through a TBI program designed in light of the cognitive approach to language learning. Considering the CAF components as the three main dimensions of L2 learners' overall interlanguage development by cognitive approach theorists, these three CAF components were used in this study to determine L2 students' speaking development. This study targeted the best instructional practices that can be utilized in the classroom to increase students' abilities to communicate effectively and speak more fluent, accurate and complex language.

The employed TBI program integrated two distinct theoretical frameworks into TBI lesson plans: (1) the socio-cultural theory which focuses mainly on enabling students to achieve communication in real time, as represented in this study by the assigned communicative tasks, and (2) the information processing theory which gives due attention to language performance as well as language competence, believes in the existence of interlanguage system, deals with the second language as a special phenomenon apart from the native language and assumes that humans have limited attentional capacities; namely, they attend to a thing at the expense of others.

The adopted program was validated by a panel of ten EFL specialists and piloted to ensure its suitability for the participating students' linguistic levels and cognitive abilities and to determine the time needed by them to complete the given communicative tasks. The learning objectives of the program included enabling students to (1) speak grammatically correct language, (2) use adequate and wide range of lexical words and collocations, (3) demonstrate intelligible pronunciation, (4) organize speech cohesively and coherently, (5) communicate effectively in proper communicative contexts, (6) speak in a good speech rate, and (7) express a range of spoken functions properly and effectively (e.g., giving directions, expressing opinion, describing houses, pictures and people, making suggestions, giving advice, making offers, apologizing, asking for permission, exchanging personal information, so forth).

The quasi-experimental research design was espoused and the participants (76 students) were randomly divided into two groups; experimental and control groups. Both pre and post tests were administered before and after the experiment for both groups to measure their speaking improvement. The control group received regular instruction (the traditional 3Ps) by the class teacher, while the experimental group received TBI by the researcher herself to ensure proper delivery of TBI throughout the experiment period. The students with regular instruction had little opportunities to engage in classroom communicative activities and most of the teaching time was used by the class teacher to teach them the new vocabularies and linguistic forms necessary to speak about the intended spoken functions. Those students were not offered time to discuss the activities in their textbook, and their practices of the target language were confined to answering the class teacher's questions, doing mechanical drills or completing tightly structured dialogues. Adding to this, the students with regular instruction were not given opportunities to analyze, self-assess or reflect on their own speeches.

Describing the TBI treatment in detail, each speaking lesson was split into three phases: pre-task, during task and post-task phases. During the first phase, the teacher (the researcher) gave two or more consciousness raising activities to prepare the students for the main task. The number of consciousness raising activities was closely connected with the difficulty of the task. Such activities were provided in the form of listening or reading tasks, and the students were asked to analyze the language used to increase their sensitivity towards some particular spoken features intended to be developed during the lesson in particular and throughout the study in general; such as fluency, grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation among other spoken features. In addition to the consciousness-raising activities, as a way to refresh the students' mind before assigning the task, the teacher, on occasion, asked the students to complete some warm-up activities before the actual work on the task, aiming at exposing them to some linguistic patterns and lexical phrases that they may need during their reporting on the task, and the teacher, when necessary, may have to explain the proper contexts and situations where they can be used.

After getting familiar with the task and how to complete it, the teacher gave the students some instructions or guidelines about the time necessary to finish it (which was given based on the difficulty of the task) and about the shape, style and ways of delivery of the task among other necessary information that the students needed to know before working on the task. Also, the teacher provided information on how to organize the speeches by the students to show their understanding of the task and to make their speeches understandable in addition to information on the possible ways to solve any grammar and vocabulary problems encountered by the students. Besides, some examples of similar tasks were occasionally yielded to expose the students to the target language and attracting their attention to the task.

During the task stage, the students were assigned to work in pairs or groups to complete the task, and the role of the teacher was mainly facilitative of language learning. The teacher's role also included giving clarifications, preventing the use of native language and ensuring full participation of the students. This was followed by the second sub-phase in which the students planned to present their work aiming to provide clear, accurate, organized and proper speeches in front of the class. The teacher's role during this sub-phase was confined to answering questions related to pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary. The third sub-stage was the reporting stage in which some students were assigned to report on the task in front of the class while the other students from the same group had to observe the presenter's speech and write comments about the produced language in terms of appropriateness, vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar and discourse organization using a checklist given out to them. The teacher, at this time, worked as a chair person who set the time and gave permission to speak. Some comments on students' performances were written by the teacher for later use during the third phase. Adding to this, the teacher, during this third sub-stage, enhanced the speech flow by reducing interruption to minimum. By the end of the public speech, the other students were invited to ask questions or give comments to speakers, and some comments by the teacher on speakers' performances were also provided using words of praise and encouragement and without giving public corrections at this stage.

During the third phase, the teacher offered constructive feedback on students' performances and provided recommendations for improvement during the next tasks. The students were also asked to do self/peer evaluation of their speeches using a checklist of all examined speaking sub-skills. The students' performances were sometimes recorded to facilitate the process of evaluation. The focus during this phase was directed to some linguistic forms

which were considered important by the teacher to explain while hesitation and false starts by the students were deemed natural and required no intervention by the teacher. Also, during this phase, the students were asked to reflect on and discuss the mistakes made by the other students while reporting on the task, or they were provided with some consciousness-raising activities and asked to identify, classify and investigate these linguistic forms in the given activities. Along with these activities, the students were asked to engage in some practice activities to help them construct the newly learned language and automatize the new linguistic forms. These activities included some drill or repetition activities, pronunciation/ vocabulary/ grammar activities, rearranging parts of conversation activities and so on. Alternatively, as a way to tackle the limited time allocated for the lesson, the recorded speeches were given to the students to re-evaluate them at home using the same checklist, and the comments by the students were discussed individually with the teacher.

A speaking checklist was designed by the researcher to pinpoint the most important speaking skills necessary for first-year secondary students. Some resources were used to identify these skills; such as teachers' guide, previous literature on the area in Egypt, the procedural objectives included in the Ministry of Education directives, students' textbook and the comments of a panel of jury. At its final format, the content of speaking checklist included measuring grammatical competence, discourse competence, pragmatic competence and fluency.

The data was collected through pre-post tests taking the form of interviews. Each interview included eight sections to measure students' performance on eight tasks/ speaking functions (exchanging personal information, expressing future intentions, giving directions, giving advice/ making suggestion, talking about the past, describing, giving opinion and creating social situation). Each interview was allocated a period of 30-35 minutes to complete

the test. The pre-post tests were recorded and scored by three expert raters and the degree of inter-rater reliability was established through correlation coefficients.

The students' speaking performance was measured in view of a detailed rating scale fully developed by the researcher to include 5 points (5 = very good performance and 1 = very poor or unaccepted performance). The scale was developed in light of the most contemporary international EFL speaking tests; such as the Interagency Language Roundtable scale (ILR) speaking scale, ACTFL speaking scale, the Simulated Oral Proficiency Interviews (SOPI), the Cambridge EFL Speaking Test and the Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI).

The results from the study showed the positive effect of the assigned communicative tasks on students' overall speaking performance, their performance in each genre and macro-function (expressing future intentions, interacting in social situations, discussing opinions, giving directions, exchanging personal information, describing, narrating a story, making suggestions and giving advice) and their performance in all measured speaking sub-skills (grammatical competence, discourse competence, pragmatic competence and fluency). They also emphasized the importance of integrating the principles of the cognitive approach in TBI classes by involving students in cycles of mental processes and actual communication through three teaching phases to enhance students' speaking proficiency. The researcher at the end of this study gave some recommendations for future research to encompass duplicating the study in different educational levels and on different speaking genres; such as narrative, expository and descriptive genres, using longer periods of time to be able to generalize the results across the country.

2.3.3. Teachers' Beliefs towards TBI

2.3.3.1. Studies in the Non-Egyptian Context

Abundant studies were conducted in many foreign contexts to explore teachers' beliefs and perceptions towards the application of TBI to promote students' language development in general and their speaking abilities in particular coupled with the factors that negatively affect their implementation in the classroom context (e.g., Ahmed 2017; Bhandari 2020; Bury 2015; Chen & Wright 2017; Douglas & Kim 2014; Duong & Nguyen 2021; East 2019; Hao 2016; Hasnain & Halder 2021; Khoshsima & Shokri 2017; Lam, Nguyen & Nguyen 2021; Liu, Mishan & Chambers 2018; Liu & Ren 2021; Liu & Xiong 2016; McAllister, Narcy-Combes & Starkey-Perret 2012; McDonough & Chaikitmongkol 2007; Pham & Nguyen 2018; Thi & Tran 2017; Tinker Sachs 2009; Tuyen & An 2019; Vázquez, Molina & López 2015; Xiongyong & Samuel 2011; Zhang & Luo 2018). The data from these studies was, in most cases, gleaned either quantitatively in the form of questionnaires or qualitatively in the form of interviews or through the adoption of the mixed-methods research approach using both questionnaires and interviews as research tools.

The research tools were either developed by the researchers themselves based on practical suggestions from scholars specialized in writing, formatting, developing and administrating quantitative and qualitative research tools or adapted from previous research that focused on teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards TBI to fit them with different research purposes. These research tools were designed to know what L2 teachers believe about TBI and also to get insight into other dimensions towards the explored TBI not previously considered by the researchers at the time of planning for their research. The quantitative data was generally analyzed based on the frequency of responses as shown in percentages while the qualitative data

was analyzed in the majority of studies using thematic analysis frameworks where the data was reported as themes and sub-themes within the data set. The participating teachers from these studies reported holding a variety of qualifications in language and education (e.g., certificate, bachelor, diploma, master, Ph.D, etc.) with long-term L2 teaching experiences that qualified them to take part in these studies on a voluntarily basis.

Taken together, the findings from the above studies were positive towards the use of TBI in the classroom to boost students' language development in general and their speaking development in particular. These findings were accounted for the merits of TBI in providing students with the authentic communicative activities essential to improve their professional and academic careers. Not only this, it was also useful to promote students' overall academic progress and meet their needs and interests. Additionally, it enabled students to deal with real-life tasks, triggered them to become more creative, confident and independent and motivated them to interact and practice the target language through work group. For these studies, this resulted in the improvement of students' communicative competence as well as their cognitive and social skills.

Moreover, these studies agreed with many others on some impediments to, or challenges against, the adoption of TBI in the classroom to encompass: (1) teachers' low proficiency levels (e.g., Lam, Nguyen & Nguyen 2021; Liu & Xiong 2016; Pham & Nguyen 2018; Tabatabaei & Hadi 2011), (2) teachers' lack of adequate knowledge, experience and confidence associated with insufficient training on TBI (e.g., Chen & Wright 2017; Duong & Nguyen 2021; Lam, Nguyen & Nguyen 2021; Liu, Mishan & Chambers 2018; Liu & Ren 2021), (3) teachers' inability to assess students' learning based on students' performance on the task (e.g., Duong & Nguyen 2021; East 2019; Lam, Nguyen & Nguyen 2021; Liu, Mishan & Chambers 2018; Liu &

Ren 2021; Liu & Xiong 2016; Pham & Nguyen 2018), (4) teachers' lack of motivation (e.g., Douglas & Kim 2014; Mustafa 2010), (5) teachers' adherence to the old traditional teaching methods due to prior experiences or school regulations (e.g., Chen & Wright 2017; East 2019; Lam, Nguyen & Nguyen 2021), (6) students' low cognitive abilities and proficiency levels (e.g., Chen & Wright 2017; Lam, Nguyen & Nguyen 2021; Zheng & Borg 2014), (7) students' varied language levels especially in large-sized classes (e.g., Bhandari 2020; Duong & Nguyen 2021; Lam, Nguyen & Nguyen 2021), (8) teachers' limited management skills to handle group activities (e.g., Duong & Nguyen 2021; Lam, Nguyen & Nguyen 2021; Liu, Mishan & Chambers 2018; Liu & Ren 2021; Liu & Xiong 2016), (9) teachers' lack of academic guidance and administrative support (e.g., Adamson & Yin 2008; Liu, Mishan & Chambers 2018; Liu & Ren 2021; Nahavandi & Mukundan 2012), (10) the heavy workload on teachers as facilitators (e.g., Hadi 2013; Hao 2016; Liu & Xiong 2016; Mahdavirad 2017), (11) the incompatibility of TBI with the standardized examinations (e.g., Chen & Wright 2017; Deng & Carless 2010; Duong & Nguyen 2021; Hao 2016; Liu, Mishan & Chambers 2018; Zheng & Borg 2014), (12) the extensive use of the native language in EFL classes (e.g., Ahmed 2017; Lam, Nguyen & Nguyen 2021; Mustafa 2010), (13) the lack of appropriate instructional materials (e.g., Chen & Wright 2017; Duong & Nguyen 2021; East 2019; Lam, Nguyen & Nguyen 2021; Liu, Mishan & Chambers 2018; Liu & Ren 2021; Pham & Nguyen 2018), (14) large class sizes (e.g., Bhandari 2020; Duong & Nguyen 2021; Hadi 2013; Hao 2016; Lam, Nguyen & Nguyen 2021; Liu, Mishan & Chambers 2018; Liu & Xiong 2016; Pham & Nguyen 2018), (15) the limited availability of time (e.g., Duong & Nguyen 2021; East 2019; Hao 2016; Lam, Nguyen & Nguyen 2021; Liu, Mishan & Chambers 2018; Liu & Ren 2021; Liu & Xiong 2016; Pham & Nguyen 2018), (16) uncertainty about teachers' role (e.g., Duong & Nguyen 2021; Liu, Mishan

& Chambers 2018; Liu & Xiong 2016), (17) deterioration of students' grammatical competence as a result of the avoidance of correcting students' grammatical errors (e.g., Chen & Wright 2017; Duong & Nguyen 2021; Liu, Mishan & Chambers 2018), and (18) students' lack of motivation for language learning (e.g., Douglas & Kim 2014; Liu, Mishan & Chambers 2018).

By and large, the above studies showed that teachers had conflicting beliefs and attitudes towards TBI; namely, they believed that TBI is advantageous to students; meanwhile, it is arduous to be implemented in the classroom. To give an example of the conflicting attitudes of teachers towards TBI, the results of the study conducted by Carless (2007) showed that the participants (11 secondary school teachers and 10 teacher educators) who had ample knowledge of TBI and its fundamentals, accounted TBI as a good teaching methodology, while at the same time they believed that TBI is not suitable for Hong Kong secondary schools. The unsuitability of TBI was ascribed by Carless (2007) and Duong and Nguyen (2021) to the inappropriateness of TBI for assessment requirements and students' language levels, the large class sizes and the lack of teaching expertise. Carless (2007) argued for the use of the weak version of TBI as more suitable for schooling or at least adapting TBI to enhance the role of grammar instruction and to integrate other language skills (e.g., reading and writing skills) into the language learning and teaching process.

Interestingly, the studies carried out by Bhandari (2020), Hasnain and Halder (2021), Jeon and Hahn (2006), Lin and Wu (2012), Liu, Mishan and Chambers (2018), Liu and Ren (2021) and Liu and Xiong (2016) showed that, although the participating teachers did not have clear understandings of the rudiments and practices of TBI, they had positive attitudes towards TBI. They defined TBI as an effective teaching approach used in the classroom to develop students' language skills and particularly students' communicative skills, but they failed to

describe the task cycle with good examples. Moreover, some teachers thought that TBI concentrates only on speaking and they did not know that TBI can develop all four language skills. Additionally, others thought that TBI does not focus on form and they do not understand that focus on form can be enhanced either implicitly or explicitly though interaction or explicit linguistic instruction in TBI classes. However, despite favoring TBI, the studies by Hao (2016) and Liu, Mishan and Chambers (2018) found that teachers continued with the traditional teaching approaches and methods as a safer way to cover the instructional material within the instruction time limit and as a more secure way to meet with the examination criteria.

Substantiating this, the participants from the studies by Lin and Wu (2012), Liu and Ren (2021) and Zheng and Borg (2014) believed that TBI is laborious to be applied in the classroom context due to large class size, insufficient class time, inflexible syllabus, inadequate assessment system and students' low proficiency level. Because of these constraints, the respondents from the study by Lin and Wu (2012) preferred to use GTM and the respondents from the other two studies preferred to utilize TSLT as more suitable for students than TBI. Adding to this, the participants from the study by Jeon and Hahn (2006) believed that teachers' lack of confidence is the main reason for teachers' reluctance to apply TBI in the classroom. To be able to adopt TBI, the participating teachers recommended conducting intensive training on TBI to include the training on the merits and demerits of TBI, the fundamentals of TBI and the most preferable techniques used with TBI.

Reviewing teachers' beliefs towards TBI from another angle (based on students' school levels), research showed that teachers' beliefs varied largely based on students' school levels. In light of this, research indicated that teachers of primary school levels had positive attitudes towards TBI; such as the studies carried out by Bryfonski (2021), Carless (2004), Leaver and

Kaplan (2004), and Xhaferi and Xhaferi (2013). The results from these studies also referred to some obstacles as detrimental factors against the perfect application of TBI in the classroom; such as students' lack of initiative, teachers' inability to and students' inability to complete certain communicative tasks. To apply TBI with school children, Xhaferi and Xhaferi (2013) argued for simplifying the given tasks or choosing the tasks that are more suitable for students' low cognitive abilities. Bryfonski (2021) uncovered that teachers will be able to teach school children if they are provided with ample training on the key principles of TBI and how to apply them to students at an early age.

Research also showed that teachers of graduate students had positive attitudes towards TBI, believing that TBI is the best to enhance students' language development in general and their communicative language skills in particular (e.g., Hadi 2013; Hao 2016; Lam, Nguyen & Nguyen 2021; Liu, Mishan & Chambers 2018; Liu & Ren 2021; Liu & Xiong 2016; Pham & Nguyen 2018). The researchers of these studies believed that TBI is more effective with college students as they have the cognitive ability to notice the gap and reflect on their own language as required by TBI. They also felt that TBI is appropriate to college students for having the language proficiency level that enables them to use what they know about the target language to complete the given communicative tasks by themselves without assistance from their teachers. They further stated that the difficulty of applying TBI for students at university education levels stems mainly from teachers' adherence to the administrative system mandated by universities with regard to time schedule, teaching outline and instructional materials.

Additionally, research revealed that the studies conducted on teachers at secondary school levels were conflicting. For example, some studies showed that secondary school teachers' beliefs towards TBI were negative (e.g., Deng & Carless 2010; Hasnain & Halder

2021; Zheng & Borg 2014). The participants from these studies expressed that it is hazardous to shift from the traditional teaching methods at this very critical stage in students' learning because TBI contradicts with the assessment systems currently in force which may lead to students failing the final exams. The participants from the study by Zheng and Borg (2014) referred to some other detrimental factors against their implementation of TBI such as mismatching curriculum materials, improper examination systems, time pressure, students' low proficiency levels, large-sized classes, etc. Other studies, on the other hand, showed secondary teachers' positive attitudes towards the use of TBI in the classroom but with some challenges, typically the afore-mentioned challenges, against its perfect implementation in the classroom context (e.g., Bhandari 2020; Carless 2007; Chen & Wright 2017; Duong & Nguyen 2021; Hu 2013; Lin & Wu 2012).

To end with, the study by Hasnain and Halder (2021) was very appealing as the researchers of this study synthesized previous research on teachers' cognition towards TBI, aiming at exploring teachers' understanding and beliefs towards using/ not using TBI in the classroom as well as understanding the instructional procedures that should be followed in the classroom to enhance the perfect implementation of TBI. In collecting the research data, an initial search was conducted by the researchers on some journal databases (e.g., Elsevier, Eric, Sage, Springer, etc.) using some key words and phrases to find some related empirical peer-reviewed articles (e.g., teachers' opinions towards TBI, teachers' attitudes towards the implementation of TBI, teachers' perceptions towards TBI, so forth).

The searching process was ruled out by some eligibility, inclusion and exclusion criteria determined by the researchers of the study. These criteria included that (1) the publication date should range from 2004 to 2019, (2) the studies should focus only on teaching of English as a

second language while other languages should be excluded, (3) the studies should be available and accessible through open access portals, and (4) any duplicate and irrelevant articles should be excluded. The screening process resulted in sixteen studies (fourteen articles and two theses) representing the research data. These studies were then coded, categorized and analyzed under the following headings: (1) authors' name, (2) publication year, (3) nature and size of samples, (4) research context, (5) publication source, and (6) research findings.

The results showed that (1) most of studies were conducted in the Asian countries where there is an urgent need to improve the process of English language teaching; such as Iran, Indonesia, Vietnam, Japan, Taiwan and China, (2) there was a strong tendency towards the use of TBI as an effective teaching strategy to improve students' learning of English as a second language in different contexts, even with the lack of deep knowledge and practical experience of TBI by L2 teachers in some contexts; such as the Chinese and Taiwanese contexts, (3) the exception from the above generalization was found in the Vietnamese teachers who preferred using traditional teaching methods over TBI, despite the call for using the principles of the communicative language teaching paradigm by the Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training to enable L2 students to communicate effectively in proper communicative contexts, (4) the suitability of TBI for graduate but not for primary students for the difficulty of imposing discipline and understanding teachers' instruction by school children, (5) the challenges encountered by teachers in applying TBI in L2 classrooms were typically similar and included teachers' lack of English proficiency level, teachers' adherence to the traditional teaching methodology, teachers' lack of deep knowledge of TBI, improper curriculum and assessment systems, large-sized classes and teachers' inability to assess students' performance based on TBI, and (6) teachers recommended to provide proper training on TBI to maximize the benefit

from its implementation in the classroom context and to conduct both intergroup and intragroup assessments as a way to enable collective and individual assessment of students to overcome the problem associated with the adoption of communicative tasks in pairs or groups.

Overall, literature indicated a general belief and attitude that TBI is able to provide what is necessary to enhance effective language teaching and successful learning development whatever the context is and whosoever learners are. Yet, to date, it did not receive universal acceptance by language practitioners to be used in the classroom as an effective alternative to the well-established teaching methodologies on account of the impediments to its application in the classroom. Therefore, to increase TBI practices while at the same time maximizing its benefits in the classroom, such impediments should be tackled. Not only this, teachers may be given training on TBI to enable them to evaluate its principles, a matter which may enhance reaching new understandings about the successful application of TBI in real-world classrooms.

2.3.3.2. Studies in the Egyptian Context

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, only one study was conducted in the Egyptian context to explore student teachers' beliefs towards TBI. This study was carried out by El-Ebyary (2015) with the aim of knowing the possibility of effective and successful implementation of TBI in the Egyptian classrooms to enhance students' effective language learning in general and the improvement of their speaking abilities in particular after the exposure to intensive training on TBI. The TBI training program was particularly designed by the researcher because the courses provided to student teachers at university levels do not enhance the use of TBI. The participants of this study were eighty eight fourth-year student teachers studying an EFL methodology course at Damanhour Faculty of Education.

The adopted TBI program was designed to enable student teachers to (1) understand the relationship between the instructed communicative language teaching approach and the TBI approach, (2) be familiar with TBI, its major frameworks and its principles, (3) know how to plan, design, teach and assess students based on the TBI approach, and (4) be aware of the results of previous related research. The adopted TBI framework across the course material was an integration of both Willis's (1996) and Ellis's (2000) TBI frameworks. During this program, the student teachers were asked to teach using TBI at micro-teaching sessions under the supervision of junior faculty members and also across different governmental school levels under the supervision of the Egyptian Ministry of Education. That is, each student teacher was given the opportunity to plan, design and teach TBI lessons at microteaching sessions allowing for peer feedback and also during other mandatory sessions at different governmental schools allowing for feedback from a supervisor.

The research data was collected through seven instruments including pre-treatment questionnaire, pre-treatment semi-structured interview, observation of student teachers' implementation of TBI lessons at governmental schools, student teachers' planning for the given tasks at microteaching sessions, student teachers' planning for the given tasks at governmental schools, post-treatment questionnaire and post-treatment semi-structured interview. The results from the study showed the positive beliefs and attitudes of the participants towards the use of TBI as an effective teaching methodology to bolster students' development of the target language in general and their speaking improvement in particular. The findings from the class observation also revealed that, despite their knowledge of TBI principles and their ability to plan for the given tasks, student teachers' practices in the classroom are still influenced by their previous experiences towards the way second language is taught.

The results from the interview uncovered some hurdles to the implementation of TBI in the Egyptian EFL classes including: (1) students' low-proficiency level in EFL classes, (2) students' lack of favorable communicative environment inside and outside the classroom, (3) large class sizes and time insufficiency, (4) the focus in L2 teaching classes is on getting the right answers rather than communicating, (5) students' fear and lack of confidence in communicating effectively using the target language as a result of their speaking weaknesses, (6) teachers' fear of change or the risk of adopting untried teaching approaches/ methods and (7) the less interest by teachers, parents and community in developing students' communicative skills as much as their interest in helping students obtain high scores during the final exams. To end with, this study agreed with previous empirical research on the conflicting beliefs of teachers towards TBI. It also recommended the use of the current findings as a starting point to look further into this critical area of research to identify the best instructional practices that can be adopted to maximize the benefit from the adoption of TBI in the Egyptian EFL classrooms.

2.3.4. Commentary on the Previous Related Studies

It was quite perspicuous from the above literature that TBI is effective and useful to tackle students' speaking weaknesses both inside and outside the Egyptian context. The reasons for this were accredited to the communicative environment created, the cognitive process activated and the mental lexicon developed by TBI. The above literature also showed that when TBI was compared to other traditional teaching strategies such as GTM, TSLT and 3Ps, TBI tended to be more effective, especially with high-proficiency students. This was ascribed to the high cognitive information processing required by TBI to complete the assigned tasks including the

ability of students to notice the gap in their own language, to reflect on the produced language and to connect the newly-learned language knowledge to the existing one.

To differentiate between GTM and 3Ps based on the above reviewed literature, the following five main points were provided. (1) The first language (mother tongue) is the medium of instruction in GTM while the second language (target language) is the medium of instruction in 3Ps. (2) There is a gap between language and thought in GTM while this gap is minimized in 3Ps; that is, students in GTM have to think in their native language before translating their thoughts into the other language while students in 3Ps are learned to think directly in the target language. (3) The rules of grammar in GTM are memorized by students before being illustrated by teachers while the rules of grammar are illustrated by teachers at the very beginning (during the presentation phase of teaching). (4) With regard to classroom interaction or communication, it mostly happens in GTM through the "question and answer" technique while it occurs in 3Ps through some controlled and free practices during the second and third phases of teaching respectively. (5) Regarding the developed skills, GTM enlarges students' knowledge of words as they learn to consult dictionaries to know the meaning of new words and this enhances the development of the translation skill, while 3Ps enriches students with ample knowledge of structure, provides students with opportunities to practice the presented linguistic knowledge and gives feedback on students' produced language, resulting in the development of students' productive language skills.

Additionally, the results from the studies on the impact of TBI on the three CAF components were contradicting with some studies confirmed the trade-off effect between one or two components of CAF with the others as a result of students' limited attentional capacities to attend to all three CAF components at the same time, while other studies rejected the trade-off

effect by corroborating the ability of TBI to draw students' attention to both language meaning and form and then the development of the three CAF components at the same time.

Moreover, the above literature showed that researchers tended to use monologic tasks rather than dialogic tasks in their investigation into the impact of TBI although dialogic tasks seemed to be more effective. This was attributed to the following reasons; (1) monologic tasks are easier to be measured, (2) monologic tasks are more controlled tasks, and (3) students' performance is more predictable with monologic tasks than with dialogic tasks.

In addition, teachers' conflicting beliefs towards the influence of TBI on students' speaking performance were obvious in the related literature. Some recommendations were also given to enhance effective practices of TBI in the classroom, including the adoption of flexible TBI to suit the diversity of students' proficiency levels especially with large class sizes and limited availability of time. Other recommendations included providing extensive training on TBI to promote teachers' familiarity with TBI and its principles, changing the current assessment systems to focus on assessing students' communicative skills and adjusting the current instructional materials to be more goal-oriented and communicative-focused.

Ultimately, having reviewed the related literature, the researcher was able to identify the gap in the previous research, represented in the dearth of studies on TBI as an effective teaching approach and a desirable one by teachers to boost students' speaking performance in Egypt. That is, only one study was executed to examine the impact of TBI on students' speaking performance, and one study was conducted to explore teachers' beliefs towards TBI. Additionally, taking into account the recommendations of the previous related research in Egypt, this study was also an attempt to build on the previous research in the current context;

namely, it was conducted on a larger number of students from a different educational background and school level over a longer period of time.

Hence, this study was conducted to bridge the gap of the literature and build on the previous research in the Egyptian context, leading to a better understanding of the impact of TBI on students' speaking performance, and thus, it was considered a useful attempt to tackle the problem of the current research. Similarly, due to the lack of research on teachers' beliefs towards TBI in Egypt, this study attempted to bridge this gap by looking into teachers' beliefs towards TBI and the challenges against its perfect implementation in the Egyptian milieu, resulting in a thorough understanding of the most favorable elements associated with its application, and then, maximizing its benefits in the classroom.

Indeed, incorporating two major components of research into a TBI-related study; investigating the effects of TBI on students' speaking performance and exploring teachers' beliefs towards TBI, added more strength to this study and made it a unique one. To explain this, unlike previous research in Egypt, it enabled the researcher to collect both quantitative and qualitative data about the research problem and then benefiting from and covering the limitations of using a single research approach and to support the quantitative data with more concrete evidence on the impact of TBI. Thus, it increased the chances of obtaining more valuable information and accurate data about the subject matter of the present research.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This study tended to investigate TBI as an effective teaching strategy to boost secondary students' speaking performance in the Egyptian context. The aim was to reach the preferable instructional practices that can be used in the classroom to enhance students' production of more fluent, lexically sophisticated, lexically diverse and syntactically complex language. Additionally, it explored teachers' beliefs towards the successful application of TBI to support the quantitative results with more tangible evidence and to cover the limitations of a single research approach.

The present chapter, through the following lines, provided reasonable explication of the decisions made by the researcher with regard to the current research approach and methods. This included elaboration on the espoused mixed-methods approach and the embraced pragmatic paradigm. It also encompassed details about the research site, population and instruments. The chapter ended with a discussion of the critical issues anticipated by the researcher throughout all research phases, including all validity, reliability, credibility, objectivity and ethical issues anticipated by the researcher and his plans to deal with those issues.

3.2. Research Approach

Creswell and Creswell (2019) defined research approach as plans that span several decisions by researchers based on the nature of research problems being addressed, researchers' experience and research audiences. They also averred that such decisions should inform the type of research approach whether it is qualitative, quantitative or mixed-methods and research paradigm (the philosophical assumptions) researchers bring to a research. The following lines rationalized the decisions made by the researcher regarding the espoused mixed-methods research approach and the adopted pragmatic paradigm.

3.2.1. The Mixed-Methods Research Approach

The mixed-methods research approach espoused in this paper was defined by Creswell and Creswell (2019), Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018) and Johnson and Christensen (2019) among others as a combination of both quantitative and qualitative research methodologies in which researchers collect both statistical-based and descriptive-based data to find an answer to research questions. The researcher adopted this combination in his study for three main reasons; firstly, he wanted to capitalize on the benefits and overcome the limitations of a single research methodology. Secondly, he believed that it fits well with the current research objectives; namely, it is the best to respond to the current research questions. Thirdly, he wished for obtaining more accurate and reliable results from the study by comparing the results of the quantitative data to that of the qualitative data.

Giving credence to the above three reasons from the related literature, Johnson and Christensen (2019) argued that each research methodology; either qualitative or quantitative, has

its own merits and demerits, and the adoption of a combination of both enables researchers to benefit from the merits and overcome the demerits of each research methodology. They distinguished between the quantitative and qualitative research approach by stating that, the quantitative research approach uses tools; such as experiments and surveys, to collect numerical, accurate, reliable, statistical-based and easy to analyze data. As for the qualitative research approach, it seeks to obtain descriptive-based data by listening to participants' voices about the world around them and observing a particular phenomenon to yield deep insight into the issues being addressed. They also argued that the quantitative research approach has its demerits in its inability to provide an in-deep description for some investigated issues, while the qualitative research approach is disadvantageous in the way it fails to provide accurate data of statistical nature about the addressed issues.

Substantiating this, Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) contended that pure quantitative research methodologies provide accurate and fixed data about the addressed research problem but they fail with the studies that require incorporating the voices of participants, leading to inadequate results if the examined studies require incorporating participants' voices. Differently put, the quantitative research approach is used to provide measurable, numerical and accurate data about some research issues from a large number of participants, and thus, it can have the merits of generalizability, deductiveness and objectivity, but it fails to measure the studies that require a thick description and inclusion of participants' voices towards the surrounding environment.

On the other hand, Glesne (2006, p. 4) described the qualitative research approach by stating that, "qualitative researchers seek to understand and interpret how the various participants in a social setting construct the world around them". She contended that the best

way to understand the surrounding environment is to listen to participants' voices to get a full description of the issues being addressed. According to Seliger and Shohamy (2001, p. 24), "[q]ualitative research is a useful approach wherever an investigator is concerned with discovering or describing second language acquisition on its natural state or context and where there are no assumptions about what the activity consists of or what its role is in acquisition".

Denzin and Lincoln (2005, p. 3) added that the qualitative research approach is used when "attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them". However, the pure qualitative research methodology is always questioned about its objectivity and generalizability because it draws entirely on researchers' understanding of what is being said, and participants' responses may differ from time to time, from context to context or from situation to situation, and then it fails to provide accurate and fixed data about the addressed research problem (Creswell & Creswell 2019).

Based on the above, the researcher integrated both quantitative and qualitative research methodologies into his research in order to capitalize on the benefits and cover the limitations of each research methodology in tackling the stated research problem. In this study, the quantitative research data was collected through the following; placement test, pre-post tests and four automatic tools (Praat, TAALES, TAALED and L2SCA), to obtain numerical data about the effects of TBI on students' speaking performance in terms of fluency, lexical sophistication, lexical diversity and syntactic complexity. Moreover, the qualitative research data was gleaned through the semi-structured interview tool to obtain a thick description on the significance of TBI by listening to various voices from the current research context.

Regarding the second reason linked to the researcher's choice of the mixed-methods research approach, several scholars, researchers and practitioners argued that the adoption of

any research approach depends heavily on the nature of research questions; that is, researchers have to think carefully about the most adequate approaches that can be used to answer research questions (e.g., Creswell & Creswell 2019; Guba & Lincoln 1994; Johnson & Christensen 2019). In the same vein, Creswell and Guetterman (2019) maintained that the interrelationship between the research question and the research approach should be established because it provides a rationale for the use of a specific research approach and shows that researchers are fully aware of the nature of the problem being addressed. Similarly, Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) sustained that, researchers' convictions and beliefs towards the type of research approach that best suits their research are critical factors in deciding the research approach of a study. In this respect, the researcher of this study adopted the mixed research approach because he viewed that it is the most appropriate to respond to the two investigated research questions. In other words, he believed that the first question is best addressed quantitatively to collect numerical data about the research problem and the second one is best transacted qualitatively to get a thick description of the nature of the phenomenon being tackled.

Concerning with the third reason related to the researcher's choice of the mixed-methods research approach, Fraenkel, Wallen and Hyun (2018) averred that the use of mixed-methods research approach in its three different designs: exploratory, explanatory and triangulation, enhances the validity and reliability of research results. Simply put, the congruence of the quantitative and qualitative results adds more strength to research results and refutes the claims of any intrinsic bias ensuring from the adoption of a single research methodology.

It is worth mentioning that the current research followed the explanatory sequential research design which is a type of the mixed-methods research designs as categorized by Fraenkel, Wallen and Hyun (2018). For them, this design is used when the main data of research

is gathered quantitatively while the qualitative data is collected to back up the quantitative data. Following from this, it was decided by the researcher to use this design because the main research question that tackles the major part of the research problem (the first research question) was answered quantitatively while the second research question was answered qualitatively to give additional information to the results of the quantitative data. That is to say, as illustrated in Figure (3), the researcher of this study started the implementation stage by collecting and analyzing the quantitative data to answer the first research question, and then he collected, analyzed and used the qualitative data to support the results of the quantitative data.

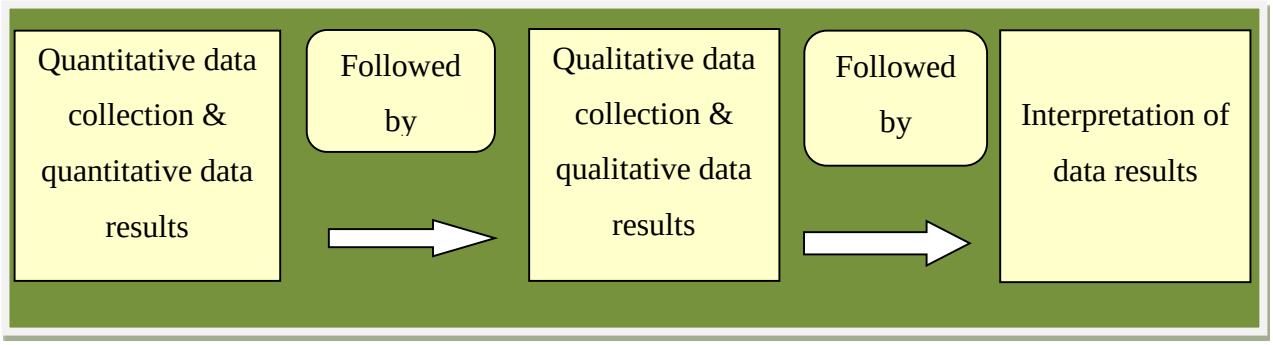

Figure 3: The Explanatory Sequential Mixed-Methods Research Design

3.2.2. The Pragmatic Paradigm

The researcher of this study espoused the pragmatic paradigm for three overarching reasons collectively constituting the characteristics of the pragmatic paradigm; firstly, he believed that, reality is not a fixed but rather flexible matter; namely, he adopted what he thought to be the most appropriate technique to obtain the required data. Secondly, he believed that knowledge is the relationship between actions and consequences (interactive relationships between the knower and the would-be known). Thirdly, the pragmatic paradigm was tightly linked in the literature to the mixed-methods research approach. The researcher starts this sub-section by

defining what is meant with a research paradigm before justifying why he decided to embrace the pragmatic paradigm from the related literature.

Research paradigms are defined by Creswell and Creswell (2019) as philosophical assumptions espoused by researchers to inform their beliefs towards the world and to guide them through their investigation. They are further defined by Guba and Lincoln (1994) and Hall (2013) as the perspectives, thoughts and beliefs of researchers about the world they live in or want to live in. For them, a research paradigm constitutes the principles that govern the way a researcher sees the world and the way he/she acts and interprets the surrounding world.

By way of explanation, research paradigms are the lenses that help scholars and researches look at the world and the different types of research methodologies to choose the most suitable one in view of the posed research questions and the set research goals and that help inform how research data in a particular domain is collected and analyzed. Research paradigms are, thus, important for scholars and researchers in different domains and disciplines because they inform their beliefs towards what is critical to be studied, how it is studied and how the data of a certain study is collected and interpreted, or, as Guba and Lincoln (1994) clarify, they influence every decision made by researchers throughout the research process, including the choice of research approach and research methods. Consequently, they are critical to understand the nature of research problems and to make meanings of the gathered data, and consequently, they can help answer research questions and contribute to finding solutions to research problems.

According to Guba and Lincoln (1994), as illustrated in Figure (4), a research paradigm consists of three essential elements; ontology, epistemology and methodology, and all together constitute the beliefs, assumptions, values and norms that each research paradigm holds. As for

ontology, it is defined by Crotty (2015) as the study of being, and it is concerned with what forms reality. It asks questions like: what is the nature of reality? And how do things really work?

Epistemology in Greek means knowledge, or as Cooksey and McDonald (2019) describe, it is anything counted as knowledge in the surrounding world. In considering research epistemology, Guba and Lincoln (1994) argue that researchers may ask questions like: what is the nature of knowledge? Is it something that can possibly be acquired or personally be experienced? And what is the relationship between knowers and the would-be known?

Methodology refers to the research approach embraced and the research methods used in a research to collect data and gain knowledge about the research problem (Keeves 1997). To reach a decision about the most suitable methodology for a research, Crotty (2015) indicates that researchers have to ask themselves questions like: what, when, why, from where and how the desired data is collected and analyzed? Thus, giving suitable answers to these questions, Crotty (2015) maintains that researchers will be able to obtain the knowledge substantial to answer the posed research questions.

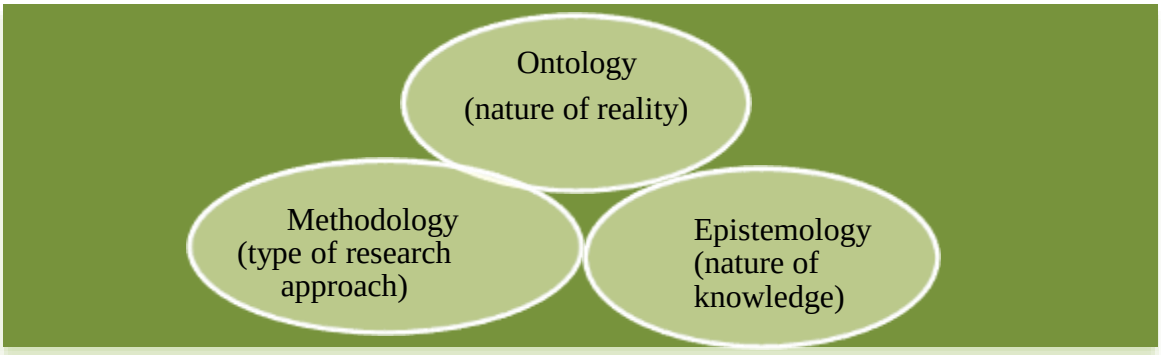

Figure 4: The Three Elements of a Research Paradigm

With regard to the prominent research paradigms espoused in educational research, literature identifies four dominant research paradigms; the interpretivist/ constructivist paradigm, the post-positivist paradigm, the participatory paradigm and the pragmatic paradigm. According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2018), what identifies the most appropriate paradigm for any scholarly paper is the ability of researchers to answer the questions accompanied with the three essential elements of a research paradigm; (1) what is the nature of reality?, (2) what is the nature of knowledge?, and (3) what is the type of research methodologies adopted to obtain knowledge?

Answering those three questions to identify the most appropriate paradigm for the present research, the researcher sees reality as a flexible matter, views knowledge as the interactive relationship between the inquirer and the inquired, and thinks that the mixed-methods research approach is the most suitable to address the two research questions. According to many scholars and researchers, these answers represent the characteristics of the pragmatic research paradigm (e.g., Biesta 2010; Creswell & Creswell 2019; Creswell & Plano Clark 2018; Hall 2013; Tashakkori & Teddlie 2003). Based on this, it is quire perspicuous that the current research strictly adheres to the pragmatic research paradigm, and therefore, it was embraced by the researcher of this study to constitute his views, beliefs and assumptions towards the surrounding world.

3.3. Research Methods

3.3.1. Research Site

Research sites are places where a research is carried out, and they may include, but not limited to, organizations, classrooms and/ or homes (Creswell & Creswell 2019). The current study was implemented at a general governmental secondary school for boys belonging to Mansoura Educational District, a school located in the city of Mansoura, Dakahlia governorate, about 120 km northeast of Cairo, the capital city of Egypt. This school was particularly chosen for three reasons; firstly, it seemed to represent the population of all general governmental secondary schools in Mansoura educational district (both eastern and western educational zones in the urban sector) in terms of the number of schools (a total of 4 schools), the number of classes (a total of 24 classes), the same educational environment and the same teachers' qualifications, as stated by the Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics (CAPMAS 2018) and as also mentioned in the two studies carried out by Stopikowska and El-Deabes (2012) and El-Gilany and Elkhawaga (2012) in the Egyptian context.

Secondly, the access to this school was granted and the consent of its official representatives, teaching staff and students was ensured since the researcher had a close relationship with a number of its teaching and administrative staff. Thirdly, this school was authorized by the Egyptian Ministry of Education to provide several educational services including teaching English as a second language, and the language instructional materials taught in its classes were those circulated by the Egyptian Ministry of Education as suitable for general governmental secondary students.

3.3.2. Research Material

The research material was scanned from 3rd year students' textbook, "*Hello: English for secondary schools*", Simon Haines (2020-2021), revised edition. This textbook consisted of eighteen units designed and arranged around different intriguing topics that touched students' real-life and met their needs, aiming at promoting students' awareness of their history, improving their linguistic, cognitive and social skills as well as preparing them for future professional and academic challenges. The research themes and speaking functions were chosen from the textbook but the tasks/ activities given to the students were adapted from the textbook to suit the employed teaching approaches (see Appendix "G" for all lesson plans).

After the research themes and speaking functions were identified, they were all validated by two external judges assigned by the researcher to review the research material. The most remarkable points in the comments of the two external judges were the following: (1) although the language curriculum is divided evenly over the two academic semesters with the first 9 units in the students' textbook to be taught during the first semester which is the period of the research treatment, it is not mandatory for the class teachers to stick to these units, particularly if there are more motivational themes in the units allocated for the second semester, (2) some themes need more teaching time to practice the related speaking functions than others; such as, the two themes talking about technology and discussing the advantages and disadvantages of modern technology, (3) the theme "summarizing a song or a poem" and its speaking function "summarizing and paraphrasing" may have to be excluded from the research material as this theme is less motivational for students, and (4) the theme "preparing a CV" and its related function "asking and answering personal information" may replace the excluded ones to motivate the current students to fully interact in the classroom. All these comments towards the

identified themes and speaking functions were considered by the researcher and inserted in the final version of the research material as in Table (4).

S/N	Topics/ themes	Relevant speaking functions
1	Talking about jobs and experiences.	Expressing opinion.
2	Talking about problems.	Asking for and giving advice.
3	Talking about the news.	Questioning sources of information.
4	Describing a woman you respect.	Asking for and giving reasons.
5	Discussing a questionnaire about technology.	Agreeing and disagreeing.
6	Discussing the advantages and disadvantages of modern technology.	Talking about advantages and disadvantages.
7	Giving facts about famous people.	Asking for and giving facts.
8	Preparing a CV.	Asking and answering personal questions.

Table 4: Final Version of Research Material

To justify the researcher's choice of these themes and speaking functions rather than using a specific program designed by him, some reasons were provided. Firstly, these themes and speaking functions were suitable for students' current knowledge and educational levels as determined by syllabus designers and accepted by the two external examiners aforementioned. Secondly, the selected themes and functions were of general interest to the students, a matter which ensured their full participation and involvement in the class.

Thirdly, the target speaking functions fitted well with the current study, in that it measured students' ability to exchange information, to solve problems and to express opinions using the target language in accord with the researcher's views towards the types of communicative tasks, see "types of communicative tasks" sub-section in chapter two above. Fourthly, no more themes and functions were selected because of time constraint as this study was conducted over the course of the first semester only; a period of eleven weeks. Finally, the above themes and target speaking functions were selected from the students' textbook to remove

the two assigned class teachers' concerns; one assigned to teach the experimental group and the other employed to teach the control group, towards the availability of time to cover the instructional material.

It should be noted that, the current instructional material was designed not only to develop students' speaking skills but also to improve other linguistic and non-linguistic skills (e.g., grammar, listening, reading, critical thinking, writing, etc.). Therefore, to avoid any concerns regarding the coverage of the whole instructional material which results in a breach of the school instructions, it was decided by the researcher in coordination with both class teachers to conduct the research treatment during the speaking sessions only, a total of twenty two 50-minutes sessions.

3.3.3. Research Sampling

Johnson and Christensen (2019) define research sampling as the process of selecting the participants who take part in a research. Research sampling is further elaborated by Fraenkel, Wallen and Hyun (2018) by saying that it gives details about two things: research population (or accessible population) and research participants. The data of this study was collected from two different representative samples to answer the two research questions.

To clarify this, the main quantitative data was collected conveniently from 92 Egyptian EFL third-year general secondary students. Those participants were chosen from a total of 113 students based on their results on an Oxford Quick Placement Test (OQPT) to ensure the homogeneity of the participants in terms of language proficiency level prior to the experiment, then equally divided into two intact groups of 46 students per each (see Appendix "C" for a copy of the placement test and samples of students' answer sheets).

The selected participants were split into two intact groups because the random assignment of participants was not possible, as each participant did not have the equal chance of being assigned to either group, but rather each group was taken as a whole. Moreover, this sample was conveniently selected from this school for three main reasons. Firstly, the researcher was able to readily access this research site. Secondly, he expected no loss in the research sample during the treatment. Thirdly, more importantly, the research sample seemed to be a representative sample of the accessible population (10 % out of 1000 students).

Furthermore, the qualitative data was collected purposively from eight teachers because they were the only teachers who had ample knowledge of TBI and its practices through a pilot questionnaire conducted before the treatment. This pilot questionnaire was conducted to ensure the participating teachers' awareness of the espoused TBI approach and also to ensure the unfamiliarity of the control group's teacher with TBI. Thus, to rationalize our selection of the qualitative sample, we can say that the qualitative sample was purposively selected from eight teachers for two main reasons. Firstly, the assigned teachers were the only qualified teachers who provided the researcher with the required information. Secondly, this sample seemed to be a representative sample of the accessible population (10 % out of the quantitative sample).

A note to mention is that the regular class size in the current research site is 45 students per class. However, due to Coronavirus pandemic (COVID-19) and the associated social distancing, the school principal, based on a circulation from MoE, decided to split one class into two classes and to confine the attendance of each grade to two days per week. So, to ensure the representative quantitative sample, while at the same time mitigating any external factors that may affect students' performance on the post-test other than the experiment, each group was divided into two classes with 23 students per each and taught by the same teacher. Moreover, it

was decided by the researcher in coordination with the class teachers to expose the participating students to the two investigated teaching approaches during their presence at school. Also, for the purpose of analyzing the quantitative data, the experimental and control groups' scores on the pre-post tests were wholly considered.

It should also be noted that, 93 students were primarily chosen for the experiment based on their results on the placement test. However, one student later apologized for not attending the school during the period of the experiment for health issues and then his inability to participate in the experiment. Thus, the total number of the participating students reached 92 constituting the first research sample. Similarly, the researcher got the initial consent of 9 teachers to do the expected semi-structured interviews. Nevertheless, one teacher was unavailable at the time of conducting this type of interviews, and thus, only 8 teachers, forming the second research sample, were interviewed to get the necessary descriptive data.

Adding more detail to the two research samples, the participants of the quantitative sample, were all Egyptian male students, aging between 17 and 18 years old. They all studied English as a second language for almost eleven years, and thus, it was expected from them to have an adequate English proficiency level to take part in the experiment. Besides, Table (5) displayed the necessary demographic information about the eight participating teachers including their gender, age, qualifications, the total years of experience as English teachers, the type of schools they work in, the educational secondary level of students and finally the number of courses, workshops or programs attended to increase their awareness of TBI and its practices in the classroom context. To easily refer to the eight participating teachers during the analysis phase of this thesis, they were coded as Teachers A, B, C, D, E, F, G and H successively.

Demographic	The participating teachers

information	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
Gender	Male	Male	Male	Male	Male	Male	Female	Female
Age	36	39	29	33	41	32	40	33
Qualifications	Master	Master	1st graduate diploma	Bachelor	Master	2nd graduate diploma	Master	Bachelor
Total years of experience	14	15	9	5	18	8 - 9	16	11
Type of schools	Public	Public	Public	Public	Public	Public	Public	Public
Educational secondary level	3rd year	All secondary levels	1st year	1st year	3rd year	2nd year	1st year	1st year
Courses, and/or workshops	0	0	2	0	0	0	5 or more	0

Table 5: Interviewees' Demographic Information

3.3.4. Research Instruments

According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018), research instruments are what researchers use to collect research data, whether it is qualitative or quantitative or both, to answer the research questions of a study. The following lines discuss in detail the main instruments used by the researcher to collect the current research data; the OQPT tool, the pre-post speaking test tool, the four automatic computer-based tools (Praat, TAALES, TAALED and L2SCA) and the semi-structured interview tool.

3.3.4.1. The Quantitative Tools and Treatment Procedure

3.3.4.1.1. The Placement Test

The first tool exploited in this study was an Oxford quick placement test, and it was used to ensure that the participating students were homogenous in terms of language proficiency level

prior to the study. The placement test was provided with answer sheets for the students to give their answers on, with an answer key to help score the test and with a score interpretation report to know the students' proficiency level (see Appendix "C" for all other test-related information; such as test time, instructions, structure and content).

To measure the participants' homogeneity, the standard score (Z score) test was performed. According to Brase and Brase (2019) and Salkind (2013), the Z score test gives an idea on how far certain scores are from the mean, and it can be placed on a normal distribution curve to measure the normal distribution of a sample. They aver that, the normal distribution ranges between a standard score of "+3" which falls to the far right of the normal distribution curve and a standard score of "-3" which falls to the far left of the normal distribution curve. For them, in order to use the Z score, we first need to calculate the score mean (M) and the standard deviation (SD).

As appended in Appendix "D", the results of the placement test manifested that the score mean of the participants is (34.0088) and the standard deviation is (3.236). To further ensure the homogeneity of the participants, the students who scored between one standard score (Z score) above the mean and one standard score below the mean were chosen as the target participants. This demonstrated that the language proficiency level of the current students is intermediate (B1 level based on CEFR) as displayed in the score interpretation report of the placement test (see Appendix "C").

3.3.4.1.2. The Pre-Post Test

To glean the main quantitative research data, pre-post tests were utilized to measure students' speaking in terms of fluency, lexical sophistication, lexical diversity and syntactic complexity

before and after the experiment. Both tests were designed in the form of monologic tasks to prompt the participating students to produce richer language as dialogic tasks proved ineffective, through a pilot study, in triggering other students with the same level to produce lengthy language. The participating students were given one minute to think and to prepare for their speech and another 2 to 3 minutes to speak, and their speeches on both tests were audio-recorded (see Appendix "E" for details about test instructions).

To ensure the suitability of the two speaking tests for the participants' level, the topics of the two tests were taken from previous Cambridge English: B1 Preliminary tests (PET). Not only this, the tests were also fed with some back-up prompts as used with other examinees of the same level in similar tests. The reason was to reduce the students' cognitive burden, and then, the ability to provide richer language within short time. As demonstrated by the recordings, this technique proved effective since all students spoke for 2 minutes a minimum.

To further ascertain the validity of the two speaking tests, the topics and contents of both tests were checked for suitability and appropriateness for third-year Egyptian general secondary students by a panel of jury (eight external experts). They were particularly chosen because they had long experience in validating speaking tests (nine years of experience a minimum). They read through the different tasks given to them, discussed the provided tasks with the researcher and asked for some modifications to enhance the appropriateness, simplicity and clarity of both speaking tests.

The panel's key comments included the following: (1) choosing monologic tasks in the form of expressive and open-ended questions that are easy for students to picture to enable them to productively reflect and express their opinions, thoughts and feelings, (2) choosing one divergent question for each test to get a variety of non-repetitive answers by students on the

same test, while at the same time enhancing the comparability of both tests and avoiding too much of a particular characteristic of each task if many tasks/ questions are used, (3) suggesting the use of some related questions as prompts to provide students with suggestions about the content, (4) omitting some tasks because they were either below the current level of students or unsuitable for the nature of monologic tasks; such as those requiring exchange of information, asking for directions, giving commands/ imperatives, taking messages on the phone as well as giving and ordering instruction, (5) suggesting the use of tasks that are similar in design but different in content to promote counter balancing, while at the same time reducing the potential effects of task repetition on students' speaking performance, and (6) providing elaborate instructions on both speaking tests to include details about the examined speaking sub-skills and the relative indices used to measure each one.

All comments by the panel were inserted and piloted on other students from another general secondary school whose textbooks and proficiency levels were the same, then included in the final versions of both speaking tests (see Appendix "E"). Using the same pilot study, the test time and the test planning time were adjusted and included in the test instruction. The test time was estimated based on the time taken by the fastest student plus the time taken by the slowest one then divided by two (the fastest + the slowest/ 2).

It is worthy of mentioning that a teacher from the research site other than those assigned for both experimental and control groups was assigned to conduct the pre-post tests on behalf of the researcher. His role was confined to conducting the test, setting the test time and recording the current students' speeches on both tests. Besides, the teacher was fully aware that his role is not to use a teacher style, not to impose his opinion, not to correct the mistakes made by the students and not to interrupt the participants' speech unless there is an urgent need to do so.

As for test scoring procedure, the participating students' speeches on each speaking test were first recorded using a high quality recorder. The data was then transcribed based on the standard discourse analysis conventions as detailed in Wooffitt's (2005) work, and samples of students' transcriptions were added in Appendix "F" at the end of this research paper. The data was then entered into the four automatic computer-based programs to objectively and accurately score and analyze the ninety two spoken samples for fluency, lexical sophistication, lexical diversity and syntactic complexity.

3.3.4.1.3. The Four Automatic Measurement Tools

As indicated in the second chapter above, out of the three types of fluency (cognitive, perceived and utterance fluency), utterance fluency was used in this study to predict students' oral fluency. It was operationalized in this study by four temporal factors (articulation rate, pause frequency, average pause time and phonation-time ratio) and measured by Praat along with a software script written by de Jong and Wempe (2009). This software was particularly chosen because it was exploited in the literature to accurately score utterance fluency in a reliable way (e.g., de Jong, Pacilly & Heeren 2021; Suzuki, Kormos & Uchihara 2021; Tavakoli, Campbell & McCormack 2016; Tavakoli, Nakatsuhara & Hunter 2020; Tavakoli & Uchihara 2019).

Providing reasons for singling out those four temporal factors, according to Bosker et al. (2013) and Lambert and Kormos (2014), fluency was conceptualized in TBI research by (1) speed fluency, which pertains to the rate of speech delivery, (2) repair fluency, which relates to the frequency of self-repairs and repetitions, and (3) break-down fluency, which reflects pausing behavior. In this study, fluency was measured by four temporal factors: pause frequency, average pause time, and phonation-time ratio as indicators of pausing behavior and articulation

rate as a predictor of speech fluency. Repair fluency was not measured in this study as the analysis of students' self-repair and repetition frequencies may also reflect students' attention to the accuracy of their speech (e.g., Gilabert 2007; Kormos 2000b; Préfontaine & Kormos 2015), and this area of speaking performance was not measured in this study.

Not only this, the above four temporal factors were also chosen because they were reported as valid fluency predictors in previous related research (e.g., Bosker et al. 2013; de Jong et al. 2012; Derwing et al. 2009; Ejzenberg 2000; Freed, Segalowitz & Dewey 2004; Iwashita et al. 2008; Kormos & Dénes 2004; Préfontaine & Kormos 2015; Préfontaine, Kormos & Johnson 2016; Rossiter 2009). For example, Préfontaine and Kormos (2015) used phonation-time ratio, average pause time and pause frequency as the most effective indicators of breakdown fluency and utilized articulation rate as the most accurate measure of speed fluency. These four temporal factors were operationalized in this study in the same way as operationalized in the study by Préfontaine and Kormos (2015) as follows:

1. Pause frequency (PF): the total number of pauses (for pauses of 0.25 seconds and above) divided by the total duration of speech in seconds.
2. Average pause time (APT): the total duration of all pauses (for pauses of 0.25 seconds and above) divided by the total number of pauses.
3. Articulation rate (AR): the total number of syllables divided by the total phonation time (including all partial words and asides and excluding all pauses of 0.25 seconds and above).
4. Phonation-time ratio (PTR): the total phonation time divided by the total duration of speech.

With regard to the second automatic tool (TAALES), it was used to automatically measure three lexical features (work frequency, word range and bigram frequency). They were opted for because they were suggested in the literature as important indicators of learners' lexical sophistication knowledge and development (e.g., Adelman, Brown & Quesada 2006; Crossley, Salsbury & McNamara 2012; Crossley, Subtirelu & Salsbury 2013; Kyle & Crossley 2015; Kyle, Crossley & Berger 2018; McNamara, Crossley & McCarthy 2010; Simpson-Vlach & Ellis 2010). TAALES was employed in this study because it was extensively cited in different domains to objectively and reliably predict learners' speaking proficiency, written lexical proficiency, text complexity, word choice and writing quality (e.g., Allen, Crossley & McNamara 2015; Allen & McNamara 2015; Kyle & Crossley 2015; Kyle, Crossley & Berger 2018; Yu 2021). Moreover, this software was chosen because it covers a large number of lexical sophistication indices including the selected lexical sophistication features.

To describe the TAALES software utilized in this study, this software is a tool first developed by Kyle and Crossley (2015) to help researchers assess a large number of texts using a wide range of lexical sophistication indices in an automatic way. It includes over 400 indices pertinent to word and n-gram frequency and range, word neighbors, semantic network, word recognition norms, contextual distinctiveness and n-gram strength of association. It is free and easy to use software and it is compatible with all operating systems (Linux, Mac and Windows). It is written in Python, saved on users' hard drive and accessed via graphical user interface (GUI) and it does not require programming knowledge or internet connection to operate. This tool requires a reference corpus as it measures frequency information and other indices in reference to larger corpora.

The adopted version of TAALES (version 2.2) includes word and n-gram frequencies and range that are register-specific and derived from Davies's (2009) corpus of contemporary American English (COCA). This corpus contains five registers (academic, fiction, magazine, news and spoken) and includes about 520 million words. For the purpose of this study, the COCA corpus option, spoken register, in TAALES (version 2.2) was used to automatically calculate and analyze the ninety two spoken samples in terms of three features of lexical sophistication: WF, WR and bigram frequency (BF). The researcher singled out the spoken register because it is mostly used to reflect the degree of lexical sophistication and formality in spoken language (Keller 2018) and the focus of the present study is on spoken language proficiency. The current version of TAALES takes plain text files as input and produces a comma separated values spreadsheet that is easily read by Microsoft Excel or any other spreadsheet software. For measuring the current students' lexical sophistication knowledge and development, the "all words" results in TAALES were only reported.

Concerning with the third automatic tool (TAALED), it was exploited to objectively measure three robust lexical diversity indices (MTLD Original, MTLD-MA Wrap and MATTR). These three indices were specifically picked out because they were reported in the literature as the most resistant to text length of all other lexical diversity indices, and then they were considered the most reliable indices of students' lexical diversity knowledge and development (e.g., Covington & McFall 2010; Hammou, Larouz & Fagroud 2021; Koizumi 2012; Koizumi & In'nami 2012; McCarthy 2005; McCarthy & Jarvis 2010; Zenker & Kyle 2021). TAALED was especially selected because it was largely cited in a wide variety of research to precisely and reliably predict students' lexical diversity development across different proficiency levels, to evaluate the relationship between text length and lexical diversity indices

and to assess students' lexical proficiency, lexical knowledge, text complexity, speech clarity, speaking development and writing quality (e.g., Baese-Berk et al. 2021; Gregori-Signes & Clavel-Arroitia 2015; Hammou, Larouz & Fagroud 2021; Yu 2021; Zenker & Kyle 2021). Also, one of the privileges of this software was that it covered many lexical diversity variables including the three lexical diversity indices selected for this study.

To describe the TAALED software used in this study, it is free, easy to use and open-source software. It works with most of operating systems including Windows and Mac and uses GUI. Moreover, the various lexical diversity indices are calculated in TAALED using lemma forms with options to use all words, content words or function words. This tool, unlike TAALES, does not require a reference corpus because it measures lexical diversity within a single spoken text. The adopted version of TAALED (version 1.3.1) is developed by Kyle, Crossley and Jarvis (2021), written in Python and can be saved on a hard drive, and it does not require internet connection to operate. It takes plain text files as input and produces a comma separated values spreadsheet that is easily read by Microsoft Excel or any other spreadsheet software. For measuring the current students' lexical diversity level, the "all words" option in TAALED was selected; namely, the whole words were analyzed together.

As for the fourth automatic tool (L2SCA), this program was utilized in this study to predict students' syntactic complexity in terms of four syntactic measures: clauses/T-unit (C/T), mean length of clause (MLC), mean length of T-unit (MLT) and dependent clauses/clause (DC/C). These measures were specifically singled out because they were most common measures used with syntactic complexity in SLA research (e.g., Bulté & Housen 2012; Ortega 2003; Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki & Kim 1998). L2SCA was particularly picked out for being an accurate and reliable tool largely used in the literature to measure and analyze L2 learners'

syntactic complexity development, the difference in L2 syntactic complexity development across proficiency levels, the quality of writing, the impact of learner or task-related variables on L2 syntactic complexity development, the relationship between lexical and syntactic complexity measures and the difference among writers with diverse L1 background (e.g., Jiang, Bi & Liu 2019; Jin, Lu & Ni 2020; Lu 2010, 2011, 2017; Lu & Ai 2015; Lu, Casal & Liu 2020; Lu & Xu 2016; Yang, Lu & Weigle 2015; Yin, Gao & Lu 2021; Yoon & Polio 2017). Adding to this, it contained a wide range of syntactic complexity measures including the four measures picked out for this study.

To describe the L2SCA tool, it is a free web-based L2 syntactic complexity tool developed by Lu (2010). It contains many indices covering the five dimensions of syntactic complexity as specified by Yin, Gao and Lu (2021): phrasal complexity, amount of coordination, amount of subordination, length of production unit and overall sentence complexity. The web-based L2SCA does not need for the command line interface, and the results can be obtained in seconds. There are two modes of the web-based L2SCA: single mode and batch mode. The single mode allows for analyzing a single sample for selected syntactic complexity measures at a time, while the batch mode allows for analyzing up to 30 English samples at a time.

3.3.4.1.4. Treatment Procedure

The first step in collecting the quantitative data was to select the participating students based on their results on the placement test. Out of 113 students, 92 intermediate (B1) language learners based on CEFR were chosen as the participants of the study. Afterwards, the participants were randomly divided into two intact groups; experimental and control groups. After that, a

researcher-made speaking pre-test was run to both groups to measure their speaking level in terms of fluency, lexical sophistication, lexical diversity and syntactic complexity before the intervention. After the pre-test, the experimental group was exposed to TBI over the period of intervention which lasted for eleven weeks, while the control group was assigned 3Ps over the same period of time. At the end of the intervention, another speaking test (post-test) was administered to both groups to determine the impact of the treatment on their speaking in terms of fluency, lexical sophistication, lexical diversity and syntactic complexity.

To explain what happened in the experimental group's two classes during the intervention, this group was exposed to a language teaching strategy of three sequential stages. During the first stage, the students were given topics/ themes and they had a pre-task activity to refresh their mind of the related vocabularies, phrases, expressions and idioms that they may need while discussing and reporting on the main task. These activities were provided in the form of speaking and reading tasks, and the students were asked to work on the assigned tasks. These activities included, for example, describing a picture, matching and/ or ordering some spoken functions in terms of agreement/ disagreement and advantages/ disadvantages. Also, the students, during this first phase, were introduced the main task, the time needed to complete it and all other task-related information. The aim was to get the students familiarized with the assigned task and to get them prepared to complete it by themselves.

During the second stage, the students worked in small groups on the assigned communicative tasks, whether they were information exchanging, problem solving or opinion-gap tasks. They used their prior knowledge and personal thoughts and opinions to complete the assigned task on time. To further explain this stage, the experimental group's students discussed the task in small groups, expressed their ideas and opinions towards it, then they prepared

themselves to report on the task by doing rehearsals and by reviewing the content of their speech for any grammatical mistakes, and finally they reported on it in front of their classmates. The teacher's role during this stage was important as he attempted to encourage the students to actively participate and aid with some vocabularies needed by the students to continue the discussion and he also ensured that the task was completed on time. Additionally, the teacher worked as a chairperson who set the time and gave permission for the assigned students to speak. By the end of the public presentation, the class was invited to ask questions to speech performers, and the teacher commented on students' performance in a more constructive way without giving public corrections at this stage.

During the third stage, the teacher focused on some grammatical mistakes made by the students during their reporting on the task or on some other linguistic features considered important by the teacher. To this end, he used some conscious-raising activities that enabled the current students to do two more mental processes of identification and classification, leading to the ability to automatize the newly learned language through more language practices. These activities included, for example, some repetition activities, grammar activities, rearranging parts of conversation activities and so on.

To elucidate what happened in the control group's two classes during the intervention, this group was also exposed to a language teaching strategy of three sequential stages, but, unlike the experimental group, the teaching style here was more of teacher-centered. During the first stage, the new language knowledge was first presented by the teacher on the board supplemented with examples to help construct, fixate and restructure the newly learned grammar in the students' mind. This was followed by teaching the new vocabularies, usually by exposing the students to the target words in proper authentic contexts using the reading passages

in the students' textbook. In this respect, some students were assigned to read the passage loudly and the target words were written on the board as the students read through, then the students were asked to think of the proper meanings for the new words, and finally they were asked to read the new words with the corresponding meanings after being presented by the teacher. Also, the students during this stage were given opportunities to pronounce the target words by repeating the new words after the teacher as a class or individually and to receive feedback.

During the second stage, the teacher provided the students with opportunities to apply what they learned during the first stage through some controlled practices. This included asking them to repeat a word, a phrase or a sentence as a class, between two halves of a class or in pairs. If the time permits, the teacher may ask the students to repeat the target words or sentences in chorus then he appoints some certain students to repeat them individually and then he corrects the mistakes in the produced language. This technique followed the behaviorist theory of language learning in which language learning occurs through habit-formation drills. Other exercises; such as multiple-choice exercises, gap-and-cue exercises and transformations, were also used as controlled activities to enhance students' understanding of the target grammar. Also, during this stage, the teacher asked the students to work in small groups on some lexical activities to make sure that they already took the target words in, and this encompassed, for example, the work on some matching and filling in the blank lexical activities. The teacher's role extended during this stage to provide the students with corrective feedback, to ask questions to check the students' comprehension of the new grammar and their retention of the new lexical items and also to ensure the maximum involvement of the students in the assigned activities.

During the third stage, the teacher offered the students more opportunities to freely practice the target language to develop their speaking skill. This included asking the students to

use the newly learned lexical items, grammar and speaking functions to make sentences of their own. Another technique used by the teacher was the assignment of students to work in small groups to freely discuss the questions given at the end of each unit in the students' textbook, making sure that all learned grammar, words, expressions and speaking functions were used in the discussion. The teacher here worked as a monitor of students' full engagement in the discussion without having to intervene in the discussion unless in urgent cases only.

To further illustrate what actually happened during the intervention including what has been done and said by class teachers, what tasks and activities were employed and what type of interaction was prevalent in the speaking classes, lesson plans of all teaching materials including two detailed lesson plans for the two examined teaching strategies were prepared by the class teachers in collaboration with the researcher and added in Appendix "G" to this paper. Not only this, two classes, one from each group, were also observed by the researcher, and the result of these two observations were included in Appendix "H" at the end of this study.

It is worthy of noting that, the pre-tests were 2-3 min speeches administered 2 days before the intervention, the immediate post-tests were 2-3 min speeches run 3 days after the intervention, and the delayed post-tests were also 2-3 min speeches carried out 2 weeks after the intervention to a focus group of 6 students randomly selected from both the experimental and control groups. All tests and classroom interventions took place during regular school hours, and the participating students were given an introductory session about the test procedures the day before the pre-test and repeated right before each test.

Another note to mention is that, the observation form utilized by the researcher was adapted from a combination of Ron Schwartz's observation form used to record students' talks and English in Action (EIA) program concerned with recording both teachers' and students'

talks in the classroom. Ron Schwartz is an emeritus professor from the University of Maryland who used to capitalize on this form for years to observe many students from different countries to assess their English speaking language. As for the EIA program, it is a language program for educational purposes designed through a mutual collaboration between the UK government and the Bangladesh government to help record classroom interaction with the aim of reaching best teaching practices to enhance both teacher-student and student-student interaction in the classroom.

To enhance the suitability, appropriateness and consistency of the current research data and results, it was decided by the researcher to instruct the experimental group's teacher on one of the most effective TBI frameworks; Willis's (1996) framework (see Appendix "A"). This framework was particularly chosen for three main reasons; firstly, it is highly advised by a huge array of scholars, theoreticians, language teachers and researchers to be used to promote language speaking in ESL classrooms (e.g., Baralt & Gómez 2017; Ellis 2003; Hung 2014; Skehan 2003; Yuan 2016), and this perfectly suits the purpose of the present study. Secondly, it fits well with the current trends in L2 teaching; that is, (1) the purpose is to improve students' communicative skills, (2) the assigned tasks should be authentic and related to real-life situations, (3) the focus should be given to language meaning rather than language form, and (4) the employed tasks should carefully be selected to enhance student-student interaction and improve students' critical thinking and problem-solving skills. Thirdly, it is practical and useful since it meets the four conditions of language learning; exposure, use, motivation and explicit instruction on language form (see Appendix "B").

3.3.4.2. The Qualitative Semi-Structured Interview Tool

The researcher used the semi-structured interview tool to collect some data of descriptive nature for the purpose of answering the second research question. This tool is defined by Creswell and Creswell (2019) as being a type of interview instruments used by researchers to collect descriptive qualitative data by asking both closed-ended and open-ended questions. According to Arskey and Knight (1999), it is an invaluable qualitative research tool because it helps researchers gather descriptive data about participants' feelings, attitudes and opinions towards the surrounding environment. Boyce and Neale (2006, p. 3) add that it is a "qualitative research technique that requires conducting intensive individual interviews with a small number of respondents to explore their perspectives on a particular idea, program, or situation".

Additionally, Creswell and Creswell (2019) argue that the semi-structured interview may be conducted on a face-to-face basis or via any other communication means such as mobile phones and internet. They aver that this type of interview may also be conducted on an individual-by-individual basis or to a group of individuals at once, and it is very useful because it has the characteristics of both structured and unstructured interviews in that interviewers have some per-conceived questions at hand before the interview (structured interview) and can ask follow-up questions based on participants' responses (unstructured interview).

This study was an example of the semi-structured interviews that followed the face-to-face and individual-by-individual techniques. This tool was fully developed by the researcher to ensure its suitability for both the current research purpose and design (see Appendix "I"). The questions provided in this appendix were considered guiding questions to direct the discussion towards achieving its purpose. They were also used to facilitate posing other related questions based on the interviewees' responses to expound more on a particular response. Therefore, any

misunderstanding, whether from the researcher's questions or the interviewees' responses, could effectively and immediately be made clear, leading to more accurate and reliable results.

Consequently, we can say that this instrument was designed by the researcher of this study for three main reasons; firstly, it fits well with the purpose of this study since it enables the researcher to explore the eight participating teachers' beliefs in-depth; that is, it helps the researcher not only to get into the participants' mind to know what beliefs they hold about the investigated approach but also it directs the researcher's thoughts towards some new views, values or ideas not considered by him while planning for the current research in general and for the implementation stage in particular (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2018). Secondly, it helps validate the research data since it simultaneously removes any ambiguity and enhances clarity through the follow-up questions (Hatch 2002). Thirdly, it covers the limitation of using a single research methodology and then it helps strengthen the research results (Creswell & Creswell 2019).

Since the semi-structured interview was conducted on a one-on-one basis, the total number of the interviews executed to collect the qualitative data was eight interviews. They were all executed in teachers' room at the investigated research site at the end of the school day, and the average interview time was 25 minutes. They were completely recorded using an audio recorder to keep accurate records of teachers' speech. Finally, the data from the eight recordings were transcribed by the researcher with the help of Google Docs (see Appendix "J" for samples of the participating teachers' speeches) and reviewed by two external judges before being analyzed to obtain more accurate results.

3.4. Validity, Reliability, Credibility & Objectivity Issues

According to Mills and Gay (2019), research validity is the extent to which research instruments are accurate and appropriate to gauge what they are supposed to gauge, while research reliability is the extent to which same or similar results are obtained when the study is repeated using the same participants. Credibility is a way to convince potential researchers and readers that research results can be trusted (Guba & Lincoln 2003), while objectivity is another way to show that research results are not affected by researchers' personal feelings or intrinsic bias (Creswell & Creswell 2019). For the purpose of establishing the current research validity, reliability, credibility and objectivity, the following strategies and procedures, as suggested by several scholars and researchers in the field, were considered by the researcher of this paper.

Firstly, the researcher adopted the mixed-methods research approach to benefit from the advantages and cover the disadvantages of a single research approach (Denzin 2017). Secondly, it was contended by Creswell and Creswell (2019) that one of the best strategies to ensure the validity and credibility of research tools and results is through a thorough revision of the research process, the content of research tools and the research results against its raw data by qualified external judges, and this technique was utilized by the researcher to check the suitability of the current research material and tools in addition to the accurateness of the current data transcriptions, analyses and results. Thus, to ensure that the current research tools and results are valid and credible, the research material, the semi-structured interview questions guide, the participating teachers' responses, the students' recorded speeches and the results were reviewed by two external examiners while the two speaking tests were checked by a panel of eight external judges.

Thirdly, to further strengthen the validity of the qualitative data, the researcher followed the six steps recommended by Braun and Clarke (2006) for interview investigation: familiarization, generating initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes and lastly presenting the results. Fourthly, the reliability of the quantitative data was confirmed through a delayed post-test to a focus group of six students haphazardly selected from both the experimental and control groups and administered within two weeks from the post-test; a technique propounded by Creswell and Creswell (2019) to enhance the reliability of experimental research design.

Fifthly, Creswell and Creswell (2019) averred that conducting the research treatment by researchers may raise questions towards the objectivity of research results. Hence, to eliminate this issue and to further enhance the validity of the research results, it was decided by the researcher to assign this mission to the class teachers and to instruct the experimental group's teacher on how to perfectly employ TBI during the speaking sessions using one of most effective TBI framework; Willis's (1996) TBI framework.

Sixthly, Creswell and Guetterman (2019) among others argued that there is always a validity threat associated with the use of non-random samples in research experiments. So, to mitigate or reduce this validity threat to minimum, Fraenkel, Wallen and Hyun (2018) suggested some strategies and procedures to be taken into account by researchers, and one of which was to use the matching-only design strategy. According to them, this strategy has been used to ensure the homogeneity of both experimental and control groups prior to the study, and therefore, it was utilized by the researcher of the current study to make sure that both groups are homogeneous in terms of speaking proficiency level prior to the experiment.

Seventhly, the researcher relied on objective measurement tools in calculating and analyzing the participating students' speaking performance in terms of fluency, lexical sophistication, lexical diversity and syntactic complexity and this included the use of Praat, TAALES, TAALED and L2SCA automatic computer-based programs. According to Michel (2017), the growing use of computerized tools to measure CAF in TBI-related research enhances the validity, objectivity and reliability of research data and results.

Lastly, to further reinforce the validity and reliability of the quantitative data and results, the following procedures were considered by the researcher of the present study: (1) the students' speeches on both speaking tests were transcribed based on the standard discourse analysis conventions as detailed in Wooffitt's (2005) work, (2) the researcher observed two classes; one from each group, to make sure that the examined teaching strategies were effectively employed by the two class teachers, (3) the control group teacher's lack of TBI knowledge was assured through a pilot questionnaire, (4) the same instructional materials were used by both groups' teachers, (5) the lesson plans were prepared by the class teachers in collaboration with the researcher, (6) the participants were not given a prior notice on the date of the post-test, (7) both groups were not asked to do any activity-related assignments outside the classroom, and (8) the test time, scoring system and atmosphere were ensured the same during both speaking tests.

3.5. Ethical Considerations

Elliott (2011) defines research ethics as any issues accruing from the relationship between research participants and researchers and from the effect of the research process on research

participants. According to Israel and Hay (2008), such issues should be anticipated then considered by researchers throughout all research phases and particularly during the implementation stage to promote accountability, trust, respect, data confidentiality, participants' protection and privacy, research integrity and any other issues that may cause harm to research sites and/ or participants. In doing so, the researcher adhered to the British University in Dubai's (BUiD) ethics guidelines which emphasized the necessity of obtaining all required permissions and approvals from all concerned educational authorities and all investigated site's official representatives. These guidelines also underscored the importance of maintaining the confidentiality of research data and the anonymity of research sites and participants, the importance of clarifying the research purpose when asked to do so, and the importance of paying a visit to research sites by researchers before conducting their research to ensure no loss in research samples as well as making all other research-related arrangements with research participants.

To be more specific, the following ethical issues were identified by the researcher as potentially occurring during the implementation stage of this study with proper solutions to each issue. Firstly, the researcher was fully aware that conducting the research experiment at the present research site and recording the current two samples' speeches were not easy tasks as they required having prior permissions from both the school representatives and the participants. To this end, the researcher managed to obtain all necessary consents before the experiment, a matter which opened the door of the research site wide for him to successfully finish the practical phase of the thesis.

Secondly, the researcher expected some concerns by the school principal and other official representatives on the one hand and by the research participants on the other hand

towards the misuse of the research data, especially with the use of audio recorders to record the participants' speeches. To tackle this issue, the researcher paid a visit to the investigated school before conducting the research treatment to clarify the main aim and specific objectives of the research as well as explaining the procedures adopted before, during and after collecting the research data to assure the confidentiality of the research data and the privacy and dignity of the research site and participants.

3.6. Summary of the Chapter

Table (6) outlines the decisions made by the researcher with regard to the current research methodology, particularly with regard to the espoused research approach and paradigm and also regarding the current research methods.

Research questions	Research approach	Research paradigm	Participants	Instruments
Q1. What change, if any, does task-based instruction have on third-year general governmental secondary students' speaking performance in terms of fluency, lexical sophistication, lexical diversity and syntactic complexity after eleven weeks of intervention in Egypt?	Quantitative	Pragmatism	92 students	Placement test, pre-post tests and four automatic measurement tools
Q2. What beliefs do Egyptian's general governmental secondary teachers hold about the task-based instruction?	Qualitative		8 teachers	Semi-structured interview

Table 6: Research Methodology

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS & RESULTS

4.1. Introduction

Judd, McClelland and Ryan (2017) define data analysis as a process for obtaining data that is raw in nature, and then converting it into useful and meaningful information, based on which logical conclusions or sound decisions about research problems are made. For the purpose of this study, the SPSS software, version 23, was used to deductively analyze the main quantitative data, while the content analysis was inductively applied to analyze the qualitative data.

To justify the use of deductive analysis with the quantitative data and inductive analysis with the qualitative data, Trochim and Donnelly (2008) distinguish between the deductive and inductive approaches to data analysis by stating that, deduction works from the top down; namely, the theory is there in the literature and the aim is to approve or disprove that theory by testing research hypotheses. They also aver that induction works from the bottom-up to explore new phenomena using participants' views. Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) restate this by saying that the deductive approach is commonly linked to quantitative research while the inductive approach is generally associated with qualitative research.

To further explain the analysis process of the present study, the quantitative data was gathered through pre-post tests designed mainly in this study to answer the first research question. By putting the first question for investigation, the researcher aimed to know the impact of TBI on L2 students' speaking performance after eleven weeks of intervention in Egypt. Four sub-research questions were developed from this principal research question:

1. What is the impact of TBI on L2 students' oral production of more fluent language after eleven weeks of intervention in Egypt?
2. What is the impact of TBI on L2 students' oral production of more lexically sophisticated language after eleven weeks of intervention in Egypt?
3. What is the impact of TBI on L2 students' oral production of more lexically diverse language after eleven weeks of intervention in Egypt?
4. What is the impact of TBI on L2 students' oral production of more syntactically complex language after eleven weeks of intervention in Egypt?

After the quantitative data was collected, it was automatically scored using four automatic computer-based programs: Praat to measure fluency, TAALES to score lexical sophistication, TAALED to rate lexical diversity and L2SCA to calculate syntactic complexity. The quantitative data was then put for statistical analysis using SPSS to answer the first research question. Table (7) summarized the four investigated speaking dimensions and the fourteen measures selected to measure students' performance on these dimensions.

No. of measures	Speaking dimensions	Names of measures
1	Fluency	Articulation rate (AR)
2		Pause frequency (PF)
3		Average pause time (APT)
4		Phonation-time ratio (PTR)
5	Lexical sophistication	Word frequency (WF)
6		Word range (WR)
7		Bigram frequency (BF)
8	Lexical diversity	Moving-average type-token ratio (MATTR)
9		Measure of textual lexical diversity-original (MTLD original)
10		Measure of textual lexical diversity moving-average wrapped (MTLD-MA Wrap)

11	Syntactic complexity	Mean length of T-unit (MLT)
12		Mean length of clause (MLC)
13		Clauses/T-unit (C/T)
14		Dependent clauses/clause (DC/C)

Table 7: Summary of the Examined Measures

Lastly, aiming to answer the second research question while at the same time ensuring the appropriateness of the qualitative data analysis, the following six phases, as introduced by Braun and Clarke (2006) for interview analysis, were followed by the researcher. This included researchers getting familiarized with the data, creating initial codes to describe the content, searching for themes in the codes, reviewing and refining the themes, defining and naming the themes, and finally presenting the results. These six phases of thematic analysis will be discussed later in this chapter when we come to answer the second research question.

4.2. Answering the First Research Question

This section analyzes the four examined speaking dimensions quantitatively and assesses the changes in the participating students' speaking performance in terms of fluency, lexical sophistication, lexical diversity and syntactic complexity after the exposure to the research treatment; TBI for the experimental group and 3Ps for the control group. We will start this section by presenting the results of the descriptive analysis, followed by presenting the results of the inferential analysis.

4.2.1. Descriptive Statistics Analysis & Results

The scores obtained from the four automatic measurement tools were first grouped in an Excel spreadsheet and then imported for statistical analysis using SPSS. The data was descriptively analyzed using the mean score (M) and the standard deviation (SD) to provide an overview score and assess the data distribution on fluency, lexical sophistication, lexical diversity and syntactic complexity for both the experimental and control groups. Adding to this, the data was descriptively analyzed for gain scores (post-test scores minus pre-test scores) to show the observed differences in L2 oral production on each measure for both groups after the experiment. Table (8) exhibited and compared the mean scores and standard deviations of the spoken samples for both groups on the pre- and post-tests.

Dimensions	**Measures**	**Experimental Group**				**Control Group**			
		Pre-test		**Post-test**		**Pre-test**		**Post-test**	
		M	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**
Fluency	**AR**	3.88	.366	3.83	.48	3.90	.36	3.81	.41
	PF	.25	.057	.26	.062	.22	.04	.23	.05
	APT	2.95	.74	2.52	.65	3.11	.53	2.94	.74
	PTR	.29	.05	.35	.12	.32	.07	.34	.09
Lexical Sophistication	**WR**	.64	.05	.62	.03	.63	.04	.62	.03
	WF	8239.85	1235.98	6802.56	924.04	8614.35	1501.92	6657.12	1214.45
	BF	392.08	169.72	213.90	76.25	378.99	168.77	225.45	97.30
Lexical Diversity	**MATTR**	.65	.04	.68	.05	.64	.05	.68	.05
	MTLD original	30.24	8.24	37.98	10.30	27.28	7.88	36.38	11.70
	MTLD-MA Wrap	28.996	7.39	36.38	9.65	27.855	7.68	36.54	11.79
Syntactic Complexity	**MLT**	7.87	1.20	7.62	1.13	8.03	1.48	6.98	1.19
	MLC	6.53	.89	6.13	.68	6.94	1.26	5.76	.88
	C/T	1.21	.12	1.25	.13	1.16	.13	1.22	.14
	DC/C	.22	.07	.24	.07	.17	.09	.21	.08

Table 8: Comparison of Means

Table (8) demonstrated that both groups performed better on only two fluency measure (APT & PTR) where the students' score decreased from the pre-test to the post-test on APT (from 2.95 to 2.52 for the experimental group and from 3.11 to 2.94 for the control group) and increased from the pre-test to the post-test on PTR (from 0.29 to 0.35 for the experimental group and from 0.32 to 0.34 for the control group), while the mean scores on speed fluency (AR) and the other break-down fluency measure (PF) did not show any improvement from the pre-test to the post-test. This exhibited the success of both TBI and 3Ps in enabling students to reduce the time of pauses in their speech and increase the time spent in speaking but they both failed to reduce the number of pauses and increase the rate of their speech after the intervention. As for lexical sophistication, the mean scores for both groups declined from the pre-test to the post-test on the three lexical measures (WR & WF & BF) after the intervention, indicating the drastic effect of intervention on both groups' production of more advanced and sophisticated words in their speeches. Regarding lexical diversity, the mean scores for both groups on the three lexical diversity measures (MATTR & MTLD original & MTLD-MA Wrap) after the intervention were higher than their mean scores before the intervention, showing the strong impact of intervention on both groups' production of more diverse words in their speeches. Concerning with syntactic complexity, the mean scores increased for both groups on only two measures (C/T & DC/C), while the mean scores on the other two measures (MLT & MLC) did not show any positive change from the pre-test to the post-test for both groups, indicating mixed results regarding the impact of intervention on students' production of more syntactically complex language.

Moreover, to compare the observed differences between both groups after the experiment, gain scores for both groups on each variable were calculated and then presented in Tables (9 & 10). It should be noted that the numbers in bold in both tables represent gains;

namely, a positive change in students' performance after the experiment. Also, "+ change" in Tables (9 & 10) refers to the number of the participants whose performance improved after the experiment, and consequently "- change" reflects the number of those participants whose performance declined after the treatment.

S	Experimental Group													
	AR	**PF**	**APT**	**PTR**	**WR**	**WF**	**BF**	**MATTR**	**MTLD original**	**MTLD-MA Wrap**	**MLT**	**MLC**	**C/T**	**DC/C**
1	**0.08**	**-0.01**	0.03	0.03	**-0.03**	**-251.72**	**-24.49**	**0.05**	**25.01**	15.84	-1.24	**0.60**	-0.35	-0.26
2	-0.06	0.00	**-0.05**	0.00	**-0.09**	**-2219.12**	**-142.46**	**0.11**	**21.78**	20.22	-0.78	**0.04**	-0.15	-0.05
3	**0.05**	0.04	**-0.37**	0.03	0.07	100.30	**-47.71**	**0.04**	**11.66**	11.64	**1.77**	**0.23**	**0.23**	**0.14**
4	-0.08	0.03	**-0.60**	0.05	**-0.01**	**-1165.05**	**-143.68**	-0.02	-14.70	-6.63	-0.42	-0.63	**0.06**	**0.00**
5	**0.36**	**-0.01**	**-0.07**	0.05	**-0.01**	**-2958.21**	**-427.43**	**0.10**	**14.95**	14.06	-1.32	-1.25	**0.04**	-0.02
6	-0.27	0.08	**-1.81**	0.08	**-0.06**	367.70	**-196.18**	-0.04	-8.31	-11.60	**0.71**	**0.95**	-0.09	-0.14
7	**0.54**	**-0.02**	**-0.24**	0.10	**-0.11**	**-3506.33**	**-365.57**	-0.04	-2.78	-3.93	**1.29**	**1.10**	**0.00**	**0.14**
8	**0.28**	0.04	**-0.60**	0.10	**-0.01**	74.43	**-179.00**	**0.00**	**2.77**	18.34	-1.89	-1.00	-0.10	-0.04
9	0	0.09	**-1.07**	0.08	0.01	**-1921.85**	**-86.13**	**0.03**	**3.72**	-1.45	**1.54**	**0.55**	**0.13**	**0.13**
10	-0.02	**-0.06**	0.18	0.07	**-0.05**	**-5696.06**	**-476.17**	**0.00**	-4.01	-1.96	-1.49	-1.04	-0.03	**0.07**
11	-0.24	**-0.09**	0.34	0.03	**-0.01**	118.88	35.63	-0.08	-14.11	-15.16	**0.65**	-0.37	**0.19**	**0.11**
12	-2.62	**-0.27**	**-2.38**	0.75	**-0.03**	1224.25	94.01	**0.08**	**14.66**	11.54	-3.19	-1.79	-0.16	-0.08
13	-0.01	**-0.01**	0.34	**-0.03**	0.03	**-2675.22**	**-154.34**	**0.05**	**11.06**	12.42	**0.95**	**1.53**	-0.10	**0.02**
14	**0.29**	**-0.02**	0.43	**-0.07**	**-0.04**	**-835.64**	37.75	-0.02	-3.38	-6.13	**0.69**	**0.87**	-0.06	**0.03**
15	**0.03**	**-0.01**	**-0.04**	0.04	0.04	**-1913.42**	**-226.52**	**0.10**	**5.17**	15.03	**0.49**	**0.53**	-0.02	**0.01**
16	-0.29	0.07	**-0.47**	0.02	**-0.05**	**-1787.03**	17.74	**0.01**	**0.66**	2.23	**0.50**	**0.24**	**0.03**	**0.10**
17	0	0.05	0.12	**-0.15**	**-0.01**	1764.51	58.04	**0.02**	**16.21**	2.99	**1.62**	**1.05**	**0.04**	**0.03**
18	**0.07**	0.00	0.30	**-0.06**	0.00	**-1755.57**	**-291.49**	**0.05**	**9.18**	9.67	-1.06	-0.96	**0.03**	**0.01**
19	**0.19**	0.01	**-0.18**	0.03	0.04	**-345.99**	**-36.99**	-0.04	**11.80**	9.75	**1.06**	**0.75**	**0.02**	-0.05

20	-0.09	0.05	**-0.27**	0.01	**-0.01**	**-2112.91**	**-147.92**	**0.03**	**12.11**	8.17	**0.88**	-1.67	**0.45**	**0.22**
21	-0.03	0.03	**-1.08**	0.10	**-0.05**	**-430.98**	**-251.64**	-0.09	-3.56	-11.50	-0.71	-1.37	**0.13**	**0.05**
22	-0.32	0.12	**-1.81**	0.21	**-0.05**	**-226.74**	**-64.15**	-0.03	**5.07**	7.95	**1.19**	-0.47	**0.24**	**0.08**
23	**0.51**	0.05	**-1.20**	0.07	**-0.07**	**-1617.97**	**-234.62**	**0.08**	**9.51**	9.25	-0.39	-0.38	**0.01**	-0.06
24	0	0.02	**-0.50**	0.06	**-0.06**	**-1755.85**	**-176.46**	**0.07**	**16.50**	11.25	-0.43	-1.29	**0.17**	**0.09**
25	**0.2**	**-0.01**	**-0.22**	0.07	**-0.05**	196.32	**-491.43**	**0.06**	**7.51**	11.72	**0.95**	**0.18**	**0.14**	**0.05**
26	**0.24**	0.10	**-2.32**	0.03	0.11	**-261.84**	197.96	-0.01	**7.34**	3.22	**1.16**	**0.07**	**0.15**	**0.13**
27	**0.34**	**-0.02**	0.47	**-0.03**	**-0.03**	**-492.60**	**-100.39**	**0.10**	**8.85**	5.18	**1.31**	**1.05**	**0.00**	-0.08
28	**0.29**	0.10	**-1.40**	0.12	**-0.05**	**-1699.05**	40.69	**0.04**	**9.03**	4.84	-3.13	-2.60	**0.03**	**0.12**
29	-0.33	**-0.01**	0.26	**-0.03**	**-0.03**	**-1771.31**	**-141.25**	**0.08**	**1.69**	8.24	-1.35	-1.54	**0.07**	**0.04**
30	**0.04**	0.09	**-1.46**	0.10	0.03	**-1624.92**	**-165.15**	**0.05**	**9.06**	7.82	-1.55	-1.67	**0.07**	-0.01
31	-0.21	0.01	0.01	**-0.03**	0.00	**-2258.18**	**-180.57**	**0.08**	**35.17**	29.31	-2.12	-1.21	-0.11	-0.09
32	**0.13**	0.01	**-0.96**	0.14	**-0.01**	**-1852.92**	**-561.68**	**0.01**	-10.43	-0.88	**0.31**	**0.12**	**0.03**	**0.04**
33	-0.07	0.02	**-0.52**	0.06	**-0.02**	**-1913.47**	16.26	**0.05**	-5.14	-3.98	-0.20	**0.13**	-0.05	-0.03
34	-0.08	**-0.01**	0.18	**-0.03**	**-0.04**	**-14.79**	238.87	**0.12**	**29.35**	25.80	**1.46**	**0.79**	**0.08**	**0.04**
35	**0.08**	**-0.09**	0.40	0.03	0.05	**-1762.82**	**-269.60**	**0.09**	**4.55**	8.53	**1.08**	**0.95**	**0.00**	-0.02
36	**0.17**	0.02	**-0.65**	0.14	**-0.05**	**-5182.69**	**-446.63**	-0.02	**9.11**	6.26	-2.61	-2.47	**0.09**	-0.01
37	-0.37	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.04	**-786.20**	**-324.86**	**0.00**	-22.81	-23.04	-1.49	**0.57**	-0.33	**0.00**
38	-0.1	**-0.01**	**-0.04**	0.03	**-0.02**	**-2498.75**	**-370.42**	**0.00**	**6.95**	4.52	-1.37	-0.54	-0.12	**0.01**
39	-0.74	0.01	**-0.74**	0.12	0.09	**-1952.53**	**-418.12**	**0.13**	**11.87**	19.01	**0.08**	-0.92	**0.20**	**0.04**
40	**0.13**	0.02	**-0.96**	0.17	0.06	**-334.50**	**-234.74**	**0.00**	**17.76**	-2.03	**1.72**	**0.69**	**0.16**	**0.18**
41	**0.06**	0.02	**-0.65**	0.09	**-0.05**	**-3355.75**	**-53.67**	**0.13**	**21.35**	23.18	-1.95	-1.80	**0.05**	-0.02
42	-0.17	0.02	**-0.35**	0.05	0.03	**-1895.91**	**-482.45**	**0.14**	**46.00**	53.15	-2.33	-2.94	**0.13**	**0.21**

43	-0.25	0.01	**-0.26**	0.05	**-0.08**	**-2562.14**	**-30.23**	**0.14**	**17.70**	21.52	-2.15	-0.26	-0.31	-0.16
44	**0.05**	**-0.04**	0.21	0.04	**-0.03**	**-838.51**	**-172.79**	-0.01	-4.60	-0.28	-0.47	-0.56	**0.07**	-0.03
45	-0.02	0.01	**-0.32**	0.05	0.00	**-3540.29**	**-526.92**	**0.04**	**4.14**	5.98	**1.90**	-1.46	**0.55**	**0.14**
46	-0.18	**-0.06**	0.63	0.00	0.09	**-186.86**	**-289.36**	**0.08**	**10.47**	9.86	-1.25	-0.96	-0.02	**0.03**
+ change	21	17	31	8	30	39	37	35	35	33	22	21	31	29
- change	25	29	15	38	16	7	9	11	11	13	24	25	15	17
Total	-2.42	0.37	-19.67	2.79	-0.52	-66115.31	-8196.27	1.77	355.90	339.88	-11.57	-18.17	1.59	1.11
Mean	-0.05	0.01	-0.43	0.06	-0.01	-1437.29	-178.18	0.04	7.74	7.39	-0.25	-0.40	0.03	0.02
SD	0.46	0.06	0.73	0.12	0.05	1477.59	192.89	0.06	12.82	12.76	1.45	1.11	0.17	0.10

Table 9: Gain Scores of the Experimental Group on all Measures

S	Control Group													
	AR	**PF**	**APT**	**PTR**	**WR**	**WF**	**BF**	**MATTR**	**MTLD original**	**MTLD-MA Wrap**	**MLT**	**MLC**	**C/T**	**DC/C**
1	-0.12	0.01	0.03	**-0.03**	0.01	**-3042.67**	**-272.74**	**0.03**	**18.56**	**9.96**	-1.80	-1.90	**0.07**	**0.08**
2	-0.3	0.01	**-0.05**	**-0.01**	**-0.03**	**-1369.40**	**-28.68**	**0.03**	**4.09**	**1.24**	**0.46**	-0.01	**0.08**	**0.00**
3	-0.12	**-0.01**	**-0.33**	0.11	0.01	**-1017.11**	**-201.61**	-0.02	-8.69	-3.47	-1.56	-2.15	**0.18**	**0.14**
4	-0.1	**-0.03**	**-0.19**	0.11	**-0.04**	**-2024.45**	**-326.51**	**0.11**	**11.11**	**9.59**	-1.40	-1.08	-0.03	-0.03
5	-0.07	**-0.01**	0.24	**-0.01**	**-0.02**	**-1524.67**	**-374.44**	-0.01	-0.23	-1.79	-0.77	-1.02	**0.12**	-0.06
6	0	0.08	**-1.53**	0.10	0.00	**-3293.24**	64.55	**0.03**	**12.80**	**18.36**	-1.56	-2.72	**0.24**	**0.11**
7	**0.07**	0.02	**-0.09**	**-0.05**	**-0.05**	**-3646.25**	**-410.92**	**0.13**	**35.19**	**29.93**	-0.88	-1.92	**0.29**	**0.19**
8	-0.25	0.07	**-1.45**	0.14	**-0.01**	**-1686.72**	**-172.97**	**0.07**	**26.35**	**23.91**	-2.74	-3.58	**0.24**	**0.18**
9	-1.3	0.24	**-2.54**	0.13	**-0.01**	**-2029.29**	0.05	**0.08**	**3.70**	-2.06	**0.36**	-0.23	**0.12**	**0.05**
10	**0.07**	**-0.04**	0.63	0.05	0.08	137.80	**-128.59**	-0.05	-3.29	-1.94	-1.48	-1.73	**0.15**	**0.08**
11	-0.07	0.07	**-1.16**	**-0.04**	0.00	266.62	**-44.69**	**0.01**	**3.90**	**0.01**	-0.49	-0.53	**0.02**	**0.11**

12	-0.01	**-0.06**	0.54	0.08	**-0.05**	**-899.84**	4.60	**0.09**	**12.91**	**11.31**	-1.28	-1.16	**0.01**	**0.05**
13	**0.24**	**-0.04**	0.57	**-0.03**	0.00	**-1271.70**	114.88	-0.03	**3.50**	-7.81	-0.67	-1.67	**0.20**	**0.08**
14	**0.23**	0.04	**-0.22**	**-0.06**	**-0.01**	2551.30	85.65	**0.04**	-10.42	**1.27**	**0.60**	**0.26**	**0.05**	**0.01**
15	**0.4**	0.02	**-0.58**	0.06	**-0.04**	**-5414.41**	**-72.90**	**0.11**	**46.05**	**38.88**	-1.85	-1.81	**0.04**	-0.06
16	**0.19**	0.02	**-0.53**	0.01	**-0.01**	**-2466.01**	**-100.87**	-0.01	-2.95	-17.62	-0.96	-1.19	**0.08**	**0.07**
17	-0.28	**-0.03**	0.19	0.02	0.00	**-1435.51**	**-67.16**	**0.07**	**11.02**	**3.39**	-0.04	-0.67	**0.11**	**0.12**
18	-0.14	0.02	**-0.63**	0.08	**-0.05**	**-1732.87**	**-117.59**	**0.05**	**10.66**	**6.81**	-0.86	-0.63	-0.02	-0.03
19	**0.07**	**-0.03**	0.17	0.07	**-0.02**	**-1516.51**	**-317.51**	**0.04**	-10.53	-3.17	**0.98**	-3.46	**0.82**	**0.23**
20	-0.16	**-0.02**	0.44	**-0.04**	**-0.02**	144.78	**-103.83**	**0.01**	-0.88	-10.96	-2.65	-0.95	-0.21	-0.19
21	**0.01**	**-0.04**	0.53	**-0.01**	**-0.03**	**-4511.55**	**-498.03**	**0.06**	**1.77**	**0.51**	**0.55**	**1.39**	-0.17	-0.12
22	-0.23	0.01	**-0.31**	0.06	**-0.09**	**-3336.60**	**-166.03**	**0.01**	-3.28	**3.49**	-1.12	-0.69	-0.04	**0.01**
23	-0.34	0.02	**-0.31**	0.02	**-0.06**	**-3613.97**	**-415.22**	**0.10**	**25.52**	**27.96**	-1.20	-2.17	**0.21**	**0.15**
24	-0.3	**-0.02**	0.33	**-0.02**	**-0.01**	**-1800.27**	**-66.23**	-0.02	-8.82	**1.26**	-4.13	-5.99	**0.24**	**0.15**
25	-0.09	**-0.02**	0.28	0.00	**-0.03**	**-1406.20**	**-189.20**	**0.06**	**8.62**	**22.21**	-0.26	-1.49	**0.17**	**0.13**
26	**0.36**	**-0.01**	0.19	**-0.03**	**-0.02**	**-4040.54**	**-124.21**	**0.08**	**21.05**	**19.30**	-2.33	-0.20	-0.38	-0.18
27	**0.21**	0.08	**-1.29**	0.12	0.09	**-2317.98**	**-61.98**	-0.04	**1.95**	-2.61	-2.45	-3.64	**0.24**	**0.08**
28	-0.32	**-0.01**	**-0.15**	0.07	**-0.01**	**-2324.50**	**-14.36**	**0.05**	**9.16**	**11.70**	**2.23**	**0.41**	**0.26**	**0.12**
29	-0.01	0.00	**-0.29**	0.04	0.00	**-3781.97**	**-224.77**	-0.02	**7.36**	**2.96**	-0.61	-0.99	**0.10**	**0.13**
30	**0.13**	**-0.01**	**-0.03**	0.04	**-0.04**	**-1743.82**	**-247.35**	**0.15**	**23.98**	**15.31**	-2.22	-1.39	-0.07	**0.07**
31	**0.02**	0.01	**-0.48**	0.09	0.03	**-2521.80**	**-122.61**	**0.11**	**26.29**	**41.61**	-1.10	-1.33	**0.09**	**0.03**
32	-0.33	**-0.03**	0.78	**-0.04**	**-0.02**	2137.23	14.80	-0.01	**26.70**	**7.50**	-4.21	-2.94	-0.09	**0.07**
33	-0.14	0.01	**-0.08**	**-0.01**	**-0.09**	**-1485.42**	**-276.42**	**0.10**	**17.26**	**16.61**	**0.76**	**0.48**	**0.04**	**0.07**
34	-0.13	0.09	**-2.36**	0.19	**-0.05**	**-1188.47**	167.95	**0.01**	**8.44**	**3.06**	**0.42**	-0.29	**0.13**	**0.08**

35	**0.31**	0.02	**-0.47**	0.07	**-0.09**	**-3887.43**	**-360.45**	**0.06**	**11.84**	**15.10**	-1.86	-2.12	**0.07**	**0.08**
36	**0.02**	0.01	**-0.04**	**-0.03**	0.03	**-617.87**	27.35	-0.03	-4.91	-9.61	**0.20**	**0.68**	-0.09	-0.01
37	-0.01	0.02	**-0.29**	0.03	0.01	**-3961.86**	25.03	**0.05**	**8.29**	**7.65**	-0.19	-0.21	**0.01**	-0.03
38	**0.17**	0.07	**-0.68**	**-0.02**	0.05	**-902.85**	**-137.44**	**0.05**	-2.67	-1.01	-0.39	-0.11	-0.05	**0.05**
39	-0.39	0.02	**-0.25**	0.02	**-0.01**	**-5027.72**	**-663.87**	**0.11**	**23.42**	**32.88**	-0.63	-1.42	**0.14**	**0.19**
40	-0.31	0.04	**-0.41**	**-0.02**	**-0.13**	**-3438.06**	**-233.21**	**0.07**	**7.62**	**21.04**	-5.31	-0.81	-0.56	-0.27
41	**0.15**	**-0.01**	0.06	0.01	0.05	**-4501.09**	**-456.78**	**0.07**	**1.12**	**0.64**	-2.17	-1.26	-0.10	-0.07
42	-0.25	**-0.02**	0.58	**-0.05**	0.00	**-1863.94**	**-115.35**	**0.04**	**13.15**	**13.98**	-0.66	**0.10**	-0.13	**0.01**
43	-0.1	0.01	**-0.01**	**-0.02**	**-0.02**	**-2305.46**	**-106.75**	**0.02**	**3.26**	**2.17**	**0.26**	-0.44	**0.12**	-0.08
44	-0.33	**-0.11**	2.75	**-0.09**	0.03	**-1752.68**	**-373.98**	**0.08**	**13.52**	**12.91**	**2.42**	**2.00**	**0.01**	-0.03
45	-0.43	**-0.04**	0.61	**-0.01**	0.08	2128.67	**-57.28**	**0.04**	-5.40	**7.55**	-0.72	-0.24	-0.07	**0.01**
46	**0.14**	0.00	0.22	**-0.04**	**-0.06**	**-696.01**	84.41	**0.07**	**20.79**	**19.50**	-4.88	-3.42	-0.15	-0.27
+ change	17	20	28	21	29	40	36	36	34	35	11	7	31	32
- change	29	26	18	25	17	6	10	10	12	11	35	39	15	14
Total	-3.84	0.41	-7.61	1.05	-0.62	-90032.33	-7063.24	2.09	418.90	399.51	-48.20	-54.22	2.47	1.51
Mean	-0.08	0.01	-0.17	0.02	-0.01	-1957.22	-153.55	0.05	9.11	8.69	-1.05	-1.18	0.05	0.03
SD	0.28	0.05	0.84	0.06	0.04	1765.64	178.50	0.05	12.54	12.98	1.61	1.44	0.20	0.11

Table 10: Gain Scores of the Control Group on all Measures

Tables (9 & 10) provided a more specific, though still general, analysis of students' speaking performance in terms of fluency, lexical sophistication, lexical diversity and syntactic complexity by comparing the gains of both groups after conducting the post test. The results from both tables showed the positive impact of both TBI and 3Ps on improving students' speaking performance in at least one measure from the four speaking dimensions. More

generally speaking, the results indicated a general and mixed improvement in both groups' speaking performance.

To explain this, the findings revealed that both groups' speaking performance changed mainly in WF (39 students from the experimental group and 40 students from the control group), followed by a positive change in eight measures for the experimental group; BF (37 students), MATTR and MTLD original (35 students), MTLD-MA Wrap (33 students), APT and C/T (31 students), WR (30 students) and DC/C (29 students), and also a positive change in the same eight measures for the control group; BF and MATTR (36 students), MTLD-MA Wrap (35 students), MTLD original (34 students), DC/C (32 students), C/T (31 students), WR (29 students) and APT (28 students). Moreover, the findings disclosed that the other two syntactic complexity variables (MLT & MLC) and the remaining two break-down fluency variables (PF & PTR) and the speed fluency variable (AR) were the variables that had few positive changes in both groups' oral production of the target language (22 & 21 & 17 & 8 & 21 for the experimental group respectively and 11 & 7 & 20 & 21 & 17 for the control group respectively).

Additionally, considering all fourteen measures, it was noticed from the gains in Tables (9 & 10) that the students with TBI slightly outperformed those with 3Ps. To prove it statistically, the gains in bold for each group were counted, and then, the total number of gains was divided by the number of observations in that group. The results showed that the total number of gain scores for the experimental group was 389 out of 644 observations, indicating improvement for 60.4% of observations, and the total number of gain scores for the control group was 377 out of 644 observations, showing improvement for 58.5% of observations, and the difference between both gains was not big (less than 2%).

4.2.2. Inferential Statistics Analysis & Results

At first, a Shapiro-Wilk normality test was conducted to check the normal distribution of data on each measure to be able to select the adequate analysis method. The test was run under the null hypothesis of non-normality data distribution, with data was normally distributed when p-value > 0.05. Table (11) presented the results of the Shapiro-Wilk normality test and exhibited the suggestions regarding the adequate analysis methods based on the test results.

Group	Measure	Pre-test	Post-test	Adequate analysis method
Experimental	**AR**	.378	.000	Non-parametric
Control		.203	.150	
Experimental	**PF**	.377	.002	Non-parametric
Control		.645	.054	
Experimental	**APT**	.057	.028	Non-parametric
Control		.783	.065	
Experimental	**PTR**	.014	.000	Non-parametric
Control		.004	.427	
Experimental	**WR**	.261	.757	Parametric
Control		.285	.444	
Experimental	**WF**	.558	.712	Parametric
Control		.284	.585	
Experimental	**BF**	.075	.370	Non-parametric
Control		.006	.025	
Experimental	**MATTR**	.707	.110	Non-parametric
Control		.001	.020	
Experimental	**MTLD original**	.000	.222	Non-parametric
Control		.133	.243	
Experimental	**MTLD-MA Wrap**	.026	.017	Non-parametric
Control		.022	.141	

Experimental	**MLT**	.061	.058	Non-parametric
Control		.032	.012	
Experimental	**MLC**	.260	.833	Non-parametric
Control		.026	.527	
Experimental	**C/T**	.397	.001	Non-parametric
Control		.063	.001	
Experimental	**DC/C**	.871	.808	Parametric
Control		.417	.664	

Table 11: Results of the Shapiro-Wilk Normality Test

The results from Table (11) showed that the data from both groups on both speaking tests was normally distributed in three measures (WR & WF & DC/C) where the significance value was greater than 0.05 ($p > 0.05$). This suggested the use of parametric analyses to compare the differences in both groups at the pre-post tests for those three measures. Therefore, these measures were analyzed in this study by performing repeated-measures factorial ANOVA tests using SPSS general linear model to compare the improvement between groups (experimental and control groups) and over time (pre-to post-test).

Moreover, the results from Table (11) revealed that the data from both groups on at least one speaking test (pre-test or post-test or both) was not normally distributed in eleven measures (AR & PF & APT & PTR & BF & MATTR & MTLD original & MTLD-MA Wrap & MLT & MLC & C/T) where the significance value was lower than 0.05 ($p < 0.05$). This suggested the use of non-parametric analyses to compare the differences in both groups at the pre-post tests for those eleven measures. Therefore, these measures were analyzing in this study using SPSS nonparametric tests; a two independent-samples Mann-Whitney U test to compare the difference

between groups on the pre-post tests and a Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test to compare the difference within groups on the pre-test and the post-test. Also, whenever there were statistical differences between both groups on the pre-test for a measure, the gain scores of that measure were analyzed using a Mann-Whitney U test to confirm the other results.

Adding to the above inferential statistics, effect sizes were calculated to know the magnitude of difference in the results (Dancey & Reidy 2020). In this respect, the partial eta-squared (η_p^2) effect size was calculated in conjunction with the use of parametric statistics in the current study (the use of repeated measures ANOVA test) while the effect size (r) was calculated in conjunction with the use of no-parametric statistics in the present study (the use of Mann-Whitney U and Wilcoxon Signed-Rank tests). According to Cohen's guidelines, as explained in the work of Plonsky and Oswald (2014), the effect size (η_p^2) ranges between small (0.4), medium (0.7) and large (1.0) when the comparison is between groups while it ranges between small (0.6), medium (1.0) and large (1.4) when the comparison is within groups. The effect size (r) varies from small (0.25) to medium (0.4) to large (0.6). The general assumption is that, the larger the effect size is, the greater the difference in means is and vice versa.

4.2.2.1. Fluency

4.2.2.1.1. Inferential Analysis of AR

The two independent-samples Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to compare the different between the experimental and control groups on the pre-test and the post-test. The results indicated no statistical difference between both groups on the pre-test since P-value was greater than 0.05 (mean rank for the experimental group = 45.98 & mean rank for the control group = 47.02 & P = 0.851 & U = 1034 & Z = -0.187). Similarly, the results on the post-test showed also

no statistical difference between the experimental and control groups as P-value was higher than 0.05 (mean rank for the experimental group = 48.20 & mean rank for the control group = 44.80 & P = 0.542 & U = 980 & Z = -0.609).

For measuring the difference within groups over time (from the pre-test to the post-test), the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test was carried out and the results revealed that the AR score for the experimental group did not have a significant improvement from the pre-test (mean rank = 22.17) to the post-test (mean rank = 21.84), p = 0.928 and Z = -0.091. In the same vein, the results from the test did not show any statistical improvement for the control group from the pre-test (mean rank = 20.65) to the post-test (mean rank = 24.43), p = 0.060 and Z = -1.880. Therefore, we can conclude from these results that both TBI and 3Ps were unable to enhance students' oral production of faster language between pauses.

4.2.2.1.2. Inferential Analysis of PF

The two independent sample Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to compare the different between the experimental and control groups on the pre-test and post-test. The results indicated a difference between both groups on the pre-test in favor of the control group and this difference was statistically significant (mean rank for the experimental group = 53.57 & mean rank for the control group = 39.43 & P = 0.011 & U = 733 & Z = -2.544). Similarly, the results on the post-test showed also a difference in favor of the control group and this difference was statistically significant (mean rank for the experimental group = 54.54 & mean rank for the control group = 38.46 & P = 0.004 & U = 688 & Z = -2.897). The effect sizes were small on both the pre-test (r = 0.27) and post test (r = 0.30).

For measuring the difference within groups over time (from the pre-test to the post-test), the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test was carried out and the results revealed that the PF score for the experimental group was not statistically significant from the same group's score before the experiment (P = 0.101 & Z = -1.640). In the same vein, the results from the test did not show any positive change for the control group from the pre-test to the post-test (P = 0.572 & Z = -0.565). These findings were also confirmed by the Mann-Whitney U test which analyzed the gain scores of both groups over time. The results showed no significant gains obtained by the experimental group (mean rank = 46.14) when compared to the control group (mean rank = 46.86), P = 0.897, U = 1041.5 and Z = -0.129. Thus, we can infer from these results that both TBI and 3Ps failed to make any significant improvement in students' ability to reduce the number of pauses in their speeches.

4.2.2.1.3. Inferential Analysis of APT

The results from the two independent-samples Mann-Whitney U test disclosed no statistical difference between both groups on the pre-test (mean rank for the experimental group = 41.86 & mean rank for the control group = 51.14 & P = 0.095 & U = 844.5 & Z = -1.667). However, the results on the post-test showed that the APT scores differed in favor of the experimental group, and this difference was statistically significant but with a small effect size (mean rank for the experimental group = 38.75 & mean rank for the control group = 54.25 & P = 0.005 & U = 701.5 & Z = -2.784 & r = 0.29).

The results from the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test revealed that the APT score for the experimental group after the experiment decreased from the same group's score before the experiment and this decrease was statistically significant but with a small effect size (P = 0.001

& Z = -3.431 & r = 0.36). Contrary to this, the results from the same test did not show any significant decrease for the control group from the pre-test to the post-test (P = 0.209 & Z = -1.257). Accordingly, despite the small effect size of TBI, these results encouraged the use of TBI as a more effective teaching strategy than 3Ps to promote students' abilities to reduce the time of pauses in their speeches.

4.2.2.1.4. Inferential Analysis of PTR

The results from the two independent-samples Mann-Whitney U test disclosed no statistical difference between both groups on the pre-test (mean rank for the experimental group = 41.49 & mean rank for the control group = 51.51 & P = 0.071 & U = 827.5 & Z = -1.805). Similarly, the results on the post-test showed also no statistical difference between the experimental and control groups (mean rank for the experimental group = 46.72 & mean rank for the control group = 46.28 & P = 0.938 & U = 1048 & Z = -0.078).

The results from the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test revealed that the PTR score for the experimental group increased significantly from the pre-test to the post-test with a medium effect size, showing the positive impact of TBI on students' abilities to increase the ratio of time spent in speaking (P = 0.00 & Z = -4.119 & r = 0.43). However, the results from the same test showed that the difference in the control group's score on PTR from the pre-test to the post-test was not statistically significant (P = 0.06 & Z = -1.935). This result demonstrated the inability of 3Ps to increase the ratio of time spent in speaking to a significant degree.

4.2.2.2. Lexical Sophistication

4.2.2.2.1. Inferential Analysis of WR

The repeated-measures ANOVA test with one within-subjects variable (time: pre-test and post-test) and one between-subjects variable (group: experimental group and control group) was performed. The results showed the significant main effect of time and this effect was very small ($F = 6.073$ & $P = 0.016$ & $\eta_p^2 = 0.063$), but the significant main effect of group was not detected from the test ($F = 1.676$ & $P = 0.199$ & $\eta_p^2 = 0.018$). Moreover, the results from the repeated-measures ANOVA test revealed no significant time * group interaction since P-value was higher than 0.05 ($F = 0.048$ & $P = 0.826$ & $\eta_p^2 = 0.001$) as illustrated in Figure (5). These results indicated the equal positive impact of TBI and 3Ps on students' abilities to produce less repetitive words in their speeches.

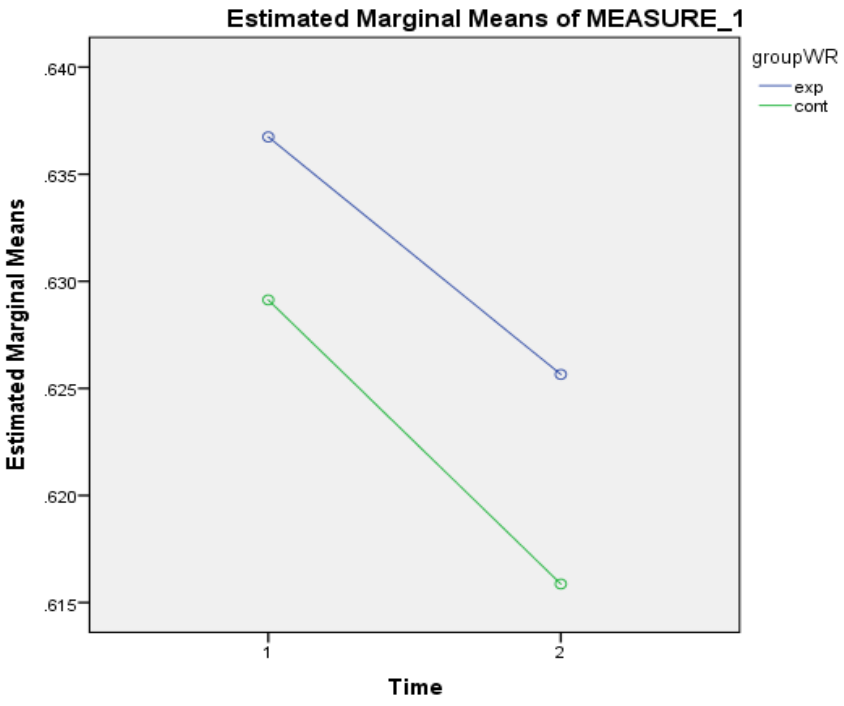

Figure 5: Means of WR

4.2.2.2.2. Inferential Analysis of WF

The repeated-measures ANOVA test with one within-subjects variable (time: pre-test and post-test) and one between-subjects variable (group: experimental group and control group) was performed. The results showed the significant main effect of time and this effect was very large ($F = 99.994$ & $P = 0.000$ & $\eta_p^2 = 0.526$), but no significant main effect of group was detected from the test ($F = 0.349$ & $P = 0.556$ & $\eta_p^2 = 0.004$). Additionally, the results from the repeated-measures ANOVA test revealed no significant time * group interaction since P-value was higher than 0.05 ($F = 2.346$ & $P = 0.129$ & $\eta_p^2 = 0.025$) as illustrated in Figure (6). It was then concluded that both TBI and 3Ps had equal positive impact on students' abilities to produce less frequent and more sophisticated words in their speeches.

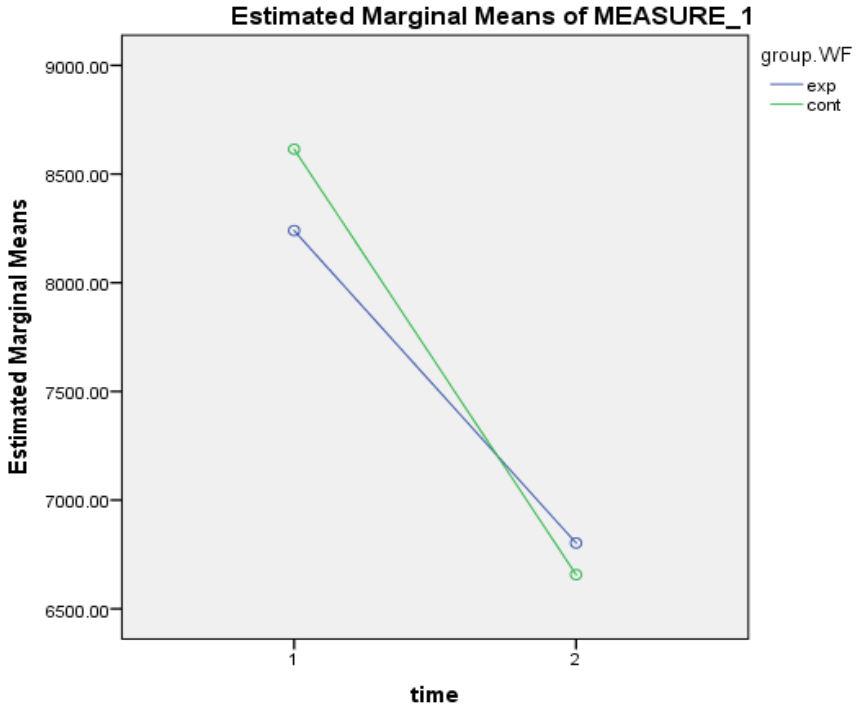

Figure 6: Means of WF

4.2.2.2.3. Inferential Analysis of BF

The results from the two independent-samples Mann-Whitney U test disclosed no statistical difference between both groups on the pre-test (mean rank for the experimental group = 48.20 & mean rank for the control group = 44.80 & P = 0.542 & U = 980 & Z = -0.609). Similarly, the results on the post-test showed also no statistical difference between the experimental and control groups (mean rank for the experimental group = 46.07 & mean rank for the control group = 46.39 & P = 0.876 & U = 1038 & Z = -0.156).

The results from the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test revealed that the BF score for the experimental group after the experiment had a significant decrease from the same group's score before the experiment and this decrease was statistically significant with a medium effect size (P = 0.000 & Z = -4.747 & r = 0.49). Similar to this, the results from the same test showed a statistically significant change in the control group's BF score from the pre-test to the post-test with a medium effect size (P = 0.000 & Z = -4.725 & r = 0.49). These results suggested the equal positive impact of TBI and 3Ps on students' abilities to combine words in their speeches.

4.2.2.3. Lexical Diversity

4.2.2.3.1. Inferential Analysis of MATTR

The results from the two independent-samples Mann-Whitney U test indicated no statistical difference between both groups on the pre-test (mean rank for the experimental group = 47.57 & mean rank for the control group = 45.43 & P = 0.701 & U = 1009 & Z = -0.384). Similarly, the results on the post-test showed also no statistical difference between the experimental and control groups (mean rank for the experimental group = 46.85 & mean rank for the control group = 46.15 & P = 0.900 & U = 1042 & Z = -0.125).

The results from the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test revealed that the MATTR score for the experimental group after the experiment had a significant increase from the same group's score before the experiment and the increase was statistically significant with a medium effect size (P = 0.000 & Z = -3.903 & r = 0.41). Similar to this, the results from the same test showed statistical improvement in the control group's score from the pre-test to the post-test with a medium effect size (P = 0.000 & Z = -4.678 & r = 0.49). These results suggested the equal positive impact of TBI and 3Ps on students' abilities to use a wide range of vocabularies in their speeches.

4.2.2.3.2. Inferential Analysis of MTLD Original

The results from the two independent-samples Mann-Whitney U test indicated no statistical difference between both groups on the pre-test (mean rank for the experimental group = 51.9 & mean rank for the control group = 46.1 & P = 0.06 & U = 806.5 & Z = -1.964). In the same way, the results on the post-test showed no statistical difference between the experimental and control groups (mean rank for the experimental group = 48.99 & mean rank for the control group = 46.01 & P = 0.371 & U = 943.5 & Z = -0.894).

The results from the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test revealed that the MTLD-original score for the experimental group after the treatment had a significant increase from the same group's score before the experiment and the increase was statistically significant with a medium effect size (P = 0.000 & Z = -3.742 & r = 0.4). Similar to this, the results from the same test showed significant improvement in the control group's score from the pre-test to the post-test with a

medium effect size (P = 0.000 & Z = -4.135 & r = 0.43). These results implied the equal positive influence of both TBI and 3Ps on students' abilities to use varied words in their speeches.

4.2.2.3.3. Inferential Analysis of MTLD-MA Wrap

The results from the two independent-samples Mann-Whitney U test exhibited no statistical difference between both groups on the pre-test (mean rank for the experimental group = 48.96 & mean rank for the control group = 44.04 & P = 0.378 & U = 945 & Z = -0.882). The results on the post-test also showed no statistical difference between the experimental and control groups (mean rank for the experimental group = 47.03 & mean rank for the control group = 45.97 & P = 0.848 & U = 1033.5 & Z = -0.191).

The results from the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test revealed that the MTLD-MA Wrap score for the experimental group after the treatment had a significant increase from the same group's score before the experiment and this increase was statistically significant with a medium effect size (P = 0.000 & Z = -3.698 & r = 0.4). Similar to this, the results from the same test showed statistical improvement in the control group's score from the pre-test to the post-test with a medium effect size (P = 0.000 & Z = -3.877 & r = 0.4). These results confirmed the MATTR and MTLD-original results regarding the equal positive impact of TBI and 3Ps on students' abilities to use a wide range of lexical items in their speeches, with medium effect sizes of improvement on the three lexical diversity indices.

4.2.2.4. Syntactic Complexity

4.2.2.4.1. Inferential Analysis of MLT

The results from the two independent-samples Mann-Whitney U test corroborated no statistical difference between both groups on the pre-test (mean rank for the experimental group = 46.30 & mean rank for the control group = 46.70 & P = 0.944 & U = 1049 & Z = -0.070). However, the results on the post-test showed a statistical difference between the experimental and control groups in favor of the experimental group, and this difference had a small effect size (mean rank for the experimental group = 54.12 & mean rank for the control group = 38.88 & P = 0.006 & U = 707.5 & Z = -2.737 & r = 0.29).

The results from the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test revealed that the MLT score for the experimental group after the treatment did not statistically differ from the same group's score before the experiment (mean rank for the experimental group before the experiment = 20.23 & mean rank for the experimental group after the experiment = 26.50 & P = 0.297 & Z = -1.043). Notwithstanding, the results from the same test showed a statistical decrease in the control group's score after the experiment, and this decrease had a medium effect size (mean rank for the control group before the experiment = 15.50 & mean rank for the control group after the experiment = 26.01 & P = 0.000 & Z = -4.042 & r = 0.42). These results demonstrated the failure of 3Ps and TBI to promote students' lengthy production of words per T-unit in their speeches.

4.2.2.4.2. Inferential Analysis of MLC

The results from the two independent-samples Mann-Whitney U test corroborated no statistical difference between both groups on the pre-test (mean rank for the experimental group = 42.85 &

mean rank for the control group = 50.15 & P = 0.190 & U = 890 & Z = -1.312). However, the results on the post-test showed statistical improvement in the MLC score in favor of the experimental group, and this improvement had a small effect size (mean rank for the experimental group = 53.10 & mean rank for the control group = 39.90 & P = 0.018 & U = 754.5 & Z = -2.370 & r = 0.25).

The results from the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test revealed that the MLC score for the experimental group after the treatment statistically decreased from the same group's score before the experiment, and the effect size of decrease was small (mean rank for the experimental group before the experiment = 16.67 & mean rank for the experimental group after the experiment = 29.24 & P = 0.037 & Z = -2.081 & r = 0.22). Also, the results from the same test showed a significant decrease in the control group's mean scores at the end of the experiment, and the effect size of that decrease was medium (mean rank for the control group before the experiment = 16.00 & mean rank for the control group after the experiment = 24.85 & P = 0.000 & Z = -4.682 & r = 0.49). These results indicated the negative impact of both TBI and 3Ps on students' lengthy production of words per clause in their speeches.

4.2.2.4.3. Inferential Analysis of C/T

The results from the two independent sample Mann-Whitney U test indicated a difference between both groups on the pre-test in favor of the experimental group and this difference was statistically significant and had a small effect size (mean rank for the experimental group = 52.00 & mean rank for the control group = 41.00 & P = 0.048 & U = 805 & Z = -1.977 & r = 0.21). Nevertheless, the results on the post-test showed no statistical difference between both

groups (mean rank for the experimental group = 50.16 & mean rank for the control group = 42.84 & P = 0.188 & U = 889.5 & Z = -1.317).

The results from the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test revealed that the C/T score for the experimental group was not statistically significant from the same group's score before the experiment (P = 0.109 & Z = -1.600). However, the results from the same test showed statistical improvement in the control group's score from the pre-test to the post-test and this improvement had a small effect size (P = 0.023 & Z = -2.268 & r = 0.24). The results from the gain scores analysis using the Mann-Whitney U test showed no significant gains obtained by the experimental group (mean rank = 42.98) when compared to the control group (mean rank = 50.02), P = 0.206, U = 896 and Z = -1.265. The above results demonstrated that, although the control group improved better than the experimental group on the post-test regarding students' production of more clauses per T-unit, this improvement was not statistically significant between both groups.

4.2.2.4.4. Inferential Analysis of DC/C

The results from the repeated-measures ANOVA test with one within-subjects variable (time: pre-test and post-test) and one between-subjects variable (group: experimental group and control group) showed the significant main effect of time and this effect was very small (F = 6.841 & P = 0.010 & η_p^2 = 0.071). Moreover, the significant main effect of group was detected from the repeated-measures ANOVA test and this effect was very small (F = 8.502 & M = 0.036 & P = 0.004 & η_p^2 = 0.086). Furthermore, the results from the repeated-measures ANOVA test revealed no significant time * group interaction since P-value was higher than 0.05 (F = 0.176 & P = 0.676 & η_p^2 = 0.002) as illustrated in Figure (7). These results demonstrated that both groups

managed to enhance students' abilities to produce more dependent clauses per clause after the treatment but this performance was statistically significant for the control group only.

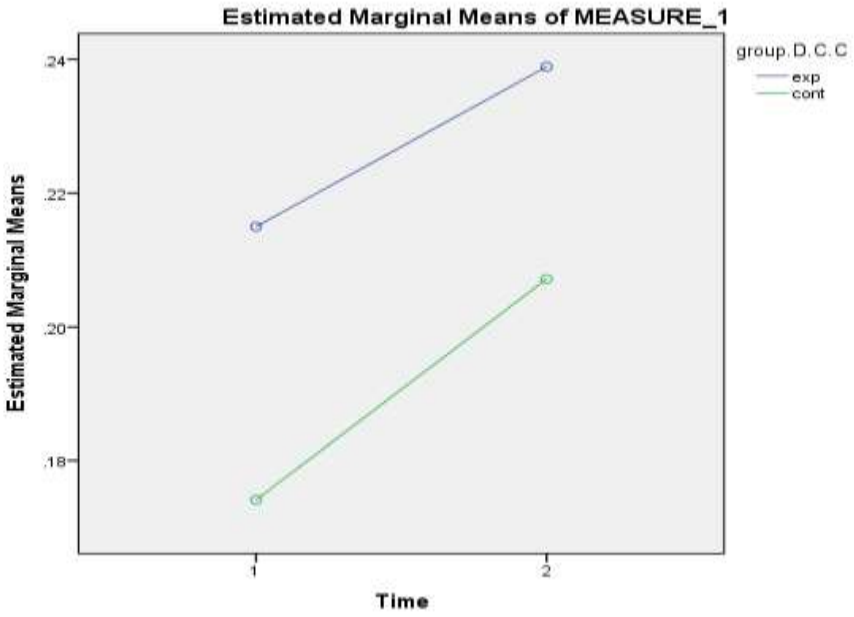

Figure 7: Means of DC/C

4.3. Answering the Second Research Question

The second research question explored teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards TBI as an effective teaching methodology to bolster students' speaking performance. To answer this question, eight semi-structured interviews were conducted to collect the qualitative research data from eight EFL teachers after the quantitative data was collected and analyzed. After the qualitative data was collected and transcribed, the researcher used the thematic content analysis method to inductively analyze the data. This method was defined by Braun and Clarke (2006) as a process which involves reading through a set of data of qualitative nature, and then, identifying themes from such data. They considered the thematic analysis method as one of the

most important qualitative methods that researchers should master early in their academic journey as it paves the way for doing various other types of analyses.

Out of various approaches to thematic analysis, the researcher adopted the one recommended by Braun and Clarke (2006) in that the thematic analysis is a process of six stages: (1) getting familiarized with data, (2) coding data, (3) searching for themes from data, (4) reviewing themes, (5) defining and naming themes, and (6) presenting the results. To further elucidate the analytic procedures followed by the researcher, the six-stage thematic analysis process was elaborately explained in the following lines.

During the first stage, the researcher got himself familiarized with the collected data, and this happened by first transcribing the audio interview files into written forms with the help of Google Docs. The transcription process was done by the researcher to make sure that the information provided by the participants was fully retained and also to start making sense of the data as the researcher transcribes it. After the data was transcribed, the researcher started to read the content of each interview from the beginning to the end and highlight the key words and sentences as he read through the content to help him understand the main ideas provided in the interview.

During the second stage, the researcher started to create codes for the data, in that he chunked the data into smaller meaningful parts, and then he briefly described what was said and labeled each description with a code. The coding/ description process took place by selecting the chunk the researcher wanted to describe, and then clicking “New Comment” on the “Review Tab” in the word document that contained the content of the interview. After all data was coded, the chunks with the same codes were put together using copy-paste. This was beneficial for the researcher as it enabled him to organize the data into meaningful groups.

During the third stage, it was the time when the researcher started to look closely at the codes and their associated chunks aiming to find key themes from the data. The researcher here combined interrelated codes to form broader themes while some other codes became either themes themselves for having interesting information or sub-themes to other broader themes. The redundant themes were kept at this stage in a temporary mixed theme for further review during the fourth stage.

During the fourth stage of the process, the researcher reviewed the themes initiated during the third stage by reading the codes and their associated chunks again and then confirming that they supported the key themes. To avoid any overlap or contradiction within a theme, the researcher kept refining all themes by dividing the contradicting themes into separate ones or moving the contradicting codes and their associated chunks to a more fitting theme until the researcher felt that all themes were lucid, distinctive and consistent.

During the fifth stage, it was the time when the researcher started to define and name the themes reviewed during the fourth stage. To do so, the researcher started to describe each theme separately by talking about the theme itself, its importance in terms of the information it provided and the reasons why this information was important. This was followed by the last stage of the thematic process in that the researcher presented the results using themes defining and naming as a basis for the presentation. Also, the researcher, during the presentation, referred to some quotes from the participants to substantiate the results.

To further elucidate the thematic analysis process, Table (14) was an example on how the transcribed texts were developed from chunks into codes and into key themes and sub-themes from one of the participating teachers' responses (Teacher A).

Chunks	Code for each chunk	Broader themes from the codes	Sub-themes from the codes
One of the communicative strategies to language teaching	Focus on communication	Understanding	----------
Focuses on communication	Focus on communication	Understanding	----------
Focuses also on teaching through interaction	Focus on interaction	Understanding	----------
Teachers work on as supervisors for students, direct them and also advise them and correct their mistakes	Teachers as facilitators	Understanding	----------
Yes, I did. I tried it before	Applied it	Experiencing	----------
I do not use it much in my classroom, because the class is big	Large classes as a challenge	Negative opinion towards classes	Inadequate classes
Students are a little bit weak	Weak students as a challenge	Negative opinion towards students	Students' low proficiency level
I give the students general instruction about the lesson	Introduce the lesson	Knowledge by experience	----------
I give them a brief about the task	Introduce the task	Knowledge by experience	----------
I divide the students into small groups	Work in small groups	Knowledge by experience	----------
Ask each group to work together	Work in small groups	Knowledge by experience	----------
Give the students time to prepare	Preparation time	Knowledge by experience	----------
Choose some students from different groups to speak about the task	Reporting	Knowledge by experience	----------
I comment or give my comments on their work	Provide feedback	Knowledge by experience	----------
Give feedback	Provide feedback	Knowledge by experience	----------
Explain the mistakes in their language	Provide feedback	Knowledge by experience	----------
It [TBI] improve [sic] the teachers' speaking skills	Improve teachers' speaking skill	Positive opinion towards teachers	Improving teachers' speaking skills

Allow [sic] them to use the second language as much as possible	Improve teachers' speaking skill	Positive opinion towards teachers	Improving teachers' speaking skills
It reduces the burden from [on] teachers	No pressure on teachers	Positive opinion towards teachers	Making the teaching process easier
It gives teachers the chance to know the weak points of students	Easy for teachers to identify students' weakness	Positive opinion towards teachers	Easy for teachers to set the objectives based on students' need
In task-based the focus is on the students themselves	Student-centered learning	Positive opinion towards students	Student-centered learning
Change the students from passive to active students	Students as active players	Positive opinion towards students	Students are more active
Our classes are very big	Large classes as a challenge	Negative opinion towards classes	Inadequate classes
More time to enable the students to interact	Limited time as a challenge	Negative opinion towards TBI	Time constraint

Table 14: Example of Developing Chunks into Codes and into Themes and Sub-themes

Considering the above six stages in analyzing the current interview data, four key themes were identified in the present study to include (1) teachers' understanding of TBI, (2) teachers' teaching experience using TBI, (3) teachers' opinions towards TBI and (4) teachers' current teaching practices. Additional findings from each theme, as extracted from the eight semi-structural interviews, were also included in the analysis. Moreover, as a way to better understand the key themes in view of the information provided by the participating teachers before presenting the results, they were clearly defined in the following lines.

Teachers' understanding of TBI was defined as the ability of teachers to explain the principles of TBI and know how to employ them in the classroom context. From this definition,

it was quite perspicuous that teachers' understanding of TBI was pivotal for the successful application of it in the classroom, without which teachers may avoid implementing it or may implement it inappropriately. Adding to this, teachers' understanding of TBI research was considered critical by the participants of this study to foresee teachers' abilities to overcome the obstacles they may encounter when applying this teaching strategy in the classroom for the close nexus between teachers' understanding and their training both in theory and practice.

Teachers' teaching experience using TBI referred to teachers' implementation of TBI in the classroom context. It was not just teachers' willingness to apply it based on theoretical backgrounds, but it was also the actual implementation of TBI and its principles in the classroom. Experiencing TBI in the classroom was very beneficial by the participants as it enables teachers to teach the speaking skill the students need, to be creative and to make the learning process exciting and full of fun. Moreover, the participants of this study claimed that teachers' implementation of TBI is closely linked to their understanding of TBI and their training on it. Therefore, as demonstrated through the current qualitative analysis, we came to conclusion that the participants of this study were reluctant to implement TBI because the knowledge they had about TBI was theoretically based.

Teachers' opinions towards TBI were thought be either positive, negative or conflicting. Having positive perceptions towards TBI was an indication that teachers valued TBI and they were able to apply it despite difficulties, and having negative perceptions was evidence that teachers did not value TBI and they were reluctant to apply it in the classroom, while having conflicting perceptions was a sign that teachers valued TBI but the difficulties they had hindered them from using it in the classroom. Since the study participants expressed their conflicting perceptions towards TBI, it was very important to understand the reasons why TBI is

advantageous and what prevents teachers from applying it in the classroom. As a result, this broader theme was divided into sub-themes to talk about the advantages and disadvantages of using TBI in the current context. This was significant for reporting the favorable elements associated with its implementation as well as the challenges against its perfect application which if carefully considered will lead to effective adoption of TBI in the classroom.

Teachers' teaching practices referred to the teaching methodologies or styles teachers currently use in teaching the target language. The communicative teaching style was considered essential by the participants of this study for enabling students to communicate effectively using the target language. For this reason, according to the participants, the Ministry of Education in Egypt provided opportunities for teachers to use the communicative style in EFL classrooms; however, the majority of the participants did not follow this communicative style for many reasons including the limited academic support, inadequate assessment system, improper instructional materials and inappropriate class sizes among other challenges as will be explained later in this section. The current teaching practices explained why students still suffer weaknesses when they try to communicate using the target language in the Egyptian milieu.

The first six questions in the semi-structured interview questions guide were used as warm up questions to create a friendly environment and ease any associated tension and also to collect some demographic information about the participants. The first six questions in the semi-structured interview included seeking details about the participating teachers' age, qualifications, total years of experience as English language teachers, types of schools they worked in, the educational level of students, and finally all courses and/ or workshops attended to enhance their awareness of TBI and its practices in the classroom context. We will start this

section by analyzing the participants' demographic information, followed by a deep analysis of the information that focused on TBI.

4.3.1. Teachers' Demographic Information

The data taken from the first six questions in the semi-structural interview as presented earlier in Table (7) in the "research sampling" section in the methodology chapter of this paper, exhibited that the percentage of male teachers was high (75%) when compared to the percentage of female teachers (25%). The low percentage of female teachers was accredited by the researcher to the minimal number of female teachers assigned to teach at general governmental secondary schools allocated for boys. The data also indicated a slight fluctuation in the number of the participants with regard to their age. In view of this, it was noticed that most of the participating teachers (62.5%) were middle-aged (between 30 and 39 years old), (25%) of the teachers were older and the remaining participants (12.5%) were younger. The data also revealed an equal balance between the participants who had a master degree (50%) and those who had a bachelor degree or additional postgraduate diplomas (50%).

Interestingly, the data showed that the total teaching experience is not directly proportional to the age of the teachers but to their academic level, which means that the higher qualifications the teachers get, the more teaching experience they have. This was ascribed by the researcher to the low teaching opportunities given to young teachers after graduation from universities. Also, it was noticed from the data that there is no correlation between teachers' genders, ages or qualifications and the number of courses taken to improve their teaching practices in the classroom with a very low percentage of teachers who received two or more courses (25%) while the other teachers (75%) did not receive any courses or training. This

demonstrated the lack of academic support by school administrators and/ or the absence of motivation among teachers to improve their teaching skills to cope with the latest patterns of language teaching.

4.3.2. Teachers' Understanding of TBI

Although all eight teachers constituting the whole qualitative research sample confirmed their understanding of TBI and its fundamentals through their academic studies at different educational levels, the data suggested that many of them have some basic but not deep knowledge of this approach. To explain this, several key constructs of TBI were provided by the teachers in their definition of the TBI approach (e.g., the use of authentic material, communicative approach, pair or group work, student-oriented, speaking-focused, goal-centered, teachers as facilitators, students' previous knowledge, scaffolding, zone of proximal development, cooperative learning).

Some of teachers' utterances were as follows:

> Well, this strategy is one of the communicative strategies to language teaching...It focuses on communication in classroom. It focuses also on teaching through interaction with students…Teachers work on as supervisors for students, direct them and also advise them and correct their mistakes when they make them. (Teacher A)

> This technique focus [sic] on achieving the outcome which is, improve [sic] students' communicative skills. This is the main goal of this strategy. Also, this technique allows students to discover and also to think critically…It requires that, students have pervious knowledge about the language to use it when they work by themselves in the classroom. (Teacher C)

> It is student-centered strategy. The students help each other to learn with some help from the teacher when they need it… it is goal-centered that students work in pairs or small groups to achieve it. The role of material providing [sic] teachers with appropriate tasks challenging students' ability to reach their zone of proximal development. (Teacher E)

> Task-based instruction is a student-centered and the strategy focus [sic] on student, and the teacher provide [sic] the student with the task to work on, and this is how they develop certain skills like speaking. (Teacher G)

All teachers' responses regarding the question about the definition of TBL were quite accurate and congruent with TBI concepts. This was probably because they all studied this approach in an academic setting whether at bachelor or master levels. However, when the teachers were asked about what is meant with a task in TBI, the responses were different with only (50%) of teachers providing accurate and detailed answers about it, while the remaining teachers viewed tasks as activities, and this was a critical misconception adversely affecting the implementation of TBI in the classroom as tasks play important roles in TBI lessons.

The responses of those providing inaccurate definitions were as follows:

> The task is the activity in the classroom since the students work on it…Do not also ask students to work on very difficult task [sic] like task [sic] related to space or science. They do not have information about it and words even in Arabic. We should use general task. (Teacher B)

> Teachers give to each group a task and the students in this group should finish it by themselves… Any task can be used but it should be challenging for students to enhance interaction between students by asking each other and learn from each other. (Teacher D)

> It is an activity teachers give to students to compete it themselves through mutual cooperation… There are many tasks in students' textbook we can use. Those tasks can be used in task-based classes. (Teacher F)

> The task is an activity given by the teacher to the students... tasks should be finished through the interaction between students only, while the activities can be finished through the interaction between students or between teachers and students. (Teacher H)

By the same token, when the teachers were asked about the different TBI frameworks, only one teacher (Teacher G) was able to provide clear elaborations on them while (62.5%) of them mentioned that they do not know or remember them, and only (25%) of teachers gave general information about these frameworks.

The following three descriptions were an example of teachers' responses:

> I only know the framework should have three steps. The first step is introduction to the task. The second step is the work on the task and the third step is the final step which the students speak about the task and the teacher correct the errors in their language. (Teacher D)

> There are so many. There is Prabhu's task-based frame. There is also Long's task-based framework and there is Nunan's, and there is Willis, and Willis is the most famous, and this is the one I used in my classroom. (Teacher G)

> I know that there are different frameworks for the task-based, but I do not remember them. (Teacher H)

It was then concluded that, very few teachers (only 12.5% of the participants) had full awareness and knowledge of TBI. They were able to define TBI, explain its characteristics and fundamentals, and give elaborate and clear explanations of what is meant with a task and different TBI frameworks while the remaining teachers' understanding and familiarity were vague, inaccurate and/ or limited. This was put down by the researcher to the only theoretical knowledge they had during their academic study and the lack of practical experience in EFL classroom contexts, as will be explained further through the following theme.

4.3.3. Teachers' Teaching Experience Using TBI

In response to the question about teachers' implementation of TBI in EFL classrooms, only two teachers (A & G) reported that they had already implemented it but they all (100%) stated that they do not, at the moment, apply it in their classes for several reasons. To start with those who implemented this strategy, they mentioned factors such as big class sizes, students' low levels and the current teaching context as obstacles they faced in their implementation of TBI in the classroom.

The following two descriptions were an example of teachers' utterances:

> Yes, I did. I tried it before, but to be honest I do not use it much in my classroom, because the class is big and the students are a little bit weak. (Teacher A)

> I did this when I taught the task-based when I was teaching in IB school [sic]… but now, because I am teaching in, you know, governmental school [sic], we implement the 3Ps strategy not the task-based. (Teacher G)

It was also noticed from the above two teachers' speeches that their practical experience towards TBI enabled them to provide detailed explications on how TBI lessons are instructed:

> Well, first I give the students general instruction about the lesson. How it will be conducted. Then, I give them a brief about the task, trying to refresh their minds of the topic. Then, I divide the students into small groups, and ask each group to work together… I also give the students time to prepare, and then I choose some students from different groups to speak about the task. After the students finish, I comment or give my comments on their work, and give feedback and also explain the mistakes in their language. (Teacher A)

> It goes into steps. So, the first steps [sic] is to make the information or the task easier for the students through an introduction, where we refresh the students' information through the vocabulary, and anything related [to] the task. Then the second step is where [when] the student, they work on the task and they reflect and report on the task, and this is the most important steps [sic], because the teacher will take what the student reflected on the task and what they reported, and the teacher will focus on the mistakes and explain it again, whether it was grammar, whether it was any mistake or any information, so the student will improve. (Teacher G)

On the other hand, the lack of teaching experience using TBI made the other teachers (B, C, D, E, F & H) unable to answer the question about how TBI lessons looked like in the classroom, and the reasons why they never implemented TBI in the classroom varied to include the lack of ample knowledge towards TBI, the unsuitability of TBI for students' level, and the lack of academic and administrative support.

Some of teachers' descriptions were as follows:

> It is difficult for the students. You can imagine the students get lost from me and do not understand with regular strategies, what do you expect from them if you use more advanced strategy? They will not understand it and this will waste time. (Teacher B)

> No, I have not implemented it. I not trained [sic] on this strategy. The school should give us this training if it wants us to use this new strategy. It is new for the most of us. (Teacher D)

> No, I think I need to learn more about it before I use it in my classroom. Also, it will be difficult to use it in the classroom before we attend workshops about it. If I use it in the classroom and do not know it very well, I will be hesitant in the class and the students will notice it. (Teacher F)

Based on these results, it was implied that the Egyptian teachers have limited teaching experience with TBI and even those who tried to apply it, they were faced with some intractable problems that hindered them from using it regularly in the classroom; such as class sizes, students' low levels and teaching contexts. Moreover, it was sustained that, teachers' experience towards TBI greatly affected their awareness of what is meant with a task and the different TBI frameworks as explained in "teachers' understanding of TBI" theme above, and also affected their understanding of how TBI lessons are instructed as elucidated through the current theme.

4.3.4. Teachers' Opinions towards TBI

In accord with the related literature, the participating teachers expressed conflicting perceptions and opinions towards the use of TBI in the classroom to improve the speaking skill in general and the speaking fluency sub-skill in particular. For them, TBI is effective since it provides students with more opportunities and time to practice the target language in the classroom but at the same time it is difficult to be implemented in the Egyptian classroom context. Given the huge information collected from the participating teachers towards this theme, it was, then, split into the following sub-themes and sub-categories to easier analyze and understand the gathered qualitative data.

Benefits of Applying TBI

The participating teachers categorized the benefits of using TBI in the Egyptian classrooms into the following three sub-categories; benefits for teachers, benefits for students and benefits for L2 classes and lessons.

A. Benefits for teachers

- **Improving teachers' speaking skills**: Teachers (A & D) underscored that since this strategy belongs to the communicative approach in which the focus is on the use of the target language in the classroom through interaction, it triggers teachers to work on themselves more to be able to fill the class time with interaction and also to be ready for any unexpected questions that often occur with the application of this type of teaching strategies.
- **Making the teaching process easier**: Teacher (A) highlighted that this strategy is student-centered, and thus, teachers' roles are restricted to assisting students' learning by encouraging, monitoring and supervising them when they need it most. For him, teachers do not have to initiate the talk and to speak two-thirds of the classroom discourse.
- **Improving teachers' creativity**: Teacher (C) underlined that, going to the class with pre-conceived lesson plans does not help much with this strategy because students are the source of information who determine the content, and this requires teachers to be more creative.

- **Easy for teachers to set the objectives based on students' need**: Teacher (A) commented that, this strategy ensures that there will be much interaction between teachers and students, a matter which enables teachers to easily identify students' weaknesses and then making effective lesson plans to enhance students' learning.

Some of teachers' responses were put in the following words:

> … it [TBI] improve [sic] the teachers' speaking skills and allow [sic] them to use the second language as much as possible… it reduces the burden from [on] teachers… it gives teachers the chance to know the weak points of students. (Teacher A)

> … no content, and this means more creativity by the teacher, means more searching and reading by the teacher. (Teacher C)

B. <u>Benefits for students</u>

- **Students are more active**: Many teachers (A, B, C, F & G) or about (62.5%) of them agreed on the significance of TBI in making a shift in students' roles in L2 classes from being passive to active players during the process of language teaching and learning.
- **Students' better attainment and retention of the target language**: Teacher (B) argued that much exposure and use of the target language through TBI enable students to practice it regularly, and the result is better achievement and longer memorization of the newly learnt language knowledge in students' mind.
- **Creating critical thinkers**: Around (75%) of teachers (A, B, C, D, G & H) talked about the significance of TBI in facilitating students' development of critical thinking skills. They claimed that this strategy pushes students to notice the gap in their own language and reflect on it. They added that, it triggers students to think of the assigned tasks

themselves with little support from their teachers, leading to an improvement in students' critical thinking skills.

- **Enhancing students' motivation**: Teachers (A, B & E) maintained that TBI uses authentic and meaningful tasks from real-life situations, and this motivates students to participate in the employed tasks and activities, resulting in effective language learning.
- **Improving students' speaking**: Almost (62.5%) of teachers (A, D, E, G & H) informed the positive impact of TBI on students' speaking development in general and speaking fluency in particular, arguing that TBI facilitates access to the exemplar-based system which is responsible for the development of language meaning, leading to language automatization with regular practice of the target language.
- **Improving students' other language skills**: out of (62.5%) of teachers who informed us of the positive effect of TBI on students' speaking development, almost half of them (A, E & G) added that TBI is significant in improving the other language skills such as listening, reading, writing, grammar and vocabulary since it provides students with the four conditions for learning in addition to the necessary time to plan for their speeches.
- **Improving students' confidence and feeling of responsibility**: According to Teachers (A, E & F), assigning students to work in pairs or small groups on certain communicative tasks increases their confidence that they can finish the task without teachers' help and eliminates any concerns associated with the use of the target language. They also referred to the importance of work group in promoting students' responsibilities towards each member in the group.

- **Improving students' social skills**: Teachers (D, F & H) added further advantages to the use of TBI in the Egyptian classroom context by saying that, through working in groups, students will get used to each other, and their shyness to ask or speak with team members will be diminished to minimum, and the social relationship between or among them will be developed as a consequence.

Some excerpts from teachers' speeches were as follows:

> … our students cannot speak proper English and this is a good strategy to improve this skill. Not only this, it can also improve their grammar and vocabulary when they work with other and receive feedback from teachers. It also makes the students active in class. Also, make them responsible students and not passive students. Also, it creates interaction and also allow [sic] to [for] use [sic] the tasks that touch the students, and this would help to [sic] motivate students to speak… it breaks the barrier and fear among students when they interact with other students in the class and allow the students also to think of the task themselves with help from the teacher. (Teacher A)

> Students will be active as they are required to work with their colleagues. And, this strategy will make the students thinks more and then not easy to forget the information. The students will also be motivated to engage because the task are [sic] meaningful and it is talking about a real-life. (Teacher B)

> …and the students will be more engaging. Also, the students will develop their thinking and will be critical thinkers. (Teacher C)

> The students will be more close to their classmates, and learn to work with them in groups. They will learn to think also. (Teacher D)

> I can imagine that it will improve the four language skills because it encourage [sic] students to speak and also listen to the other students and to write about the task. Also it helps learning grammar when the students make a mistake and the teacher comments on it…. It will also encourage students to speak because they have to, and because the task come [sic] from real situations…. Also, the strategy will make the students more confident when they speak, and remove their fear when they speak. (Teacher E)

> It will have so many advantages. Firstly, students will be more active because they will work more with their classmates and this is important for students to learn. Also, with this strategy students will feel confident because the information is reviewed with other students... Also,

students work together and this strengthen [sic] the relationship between the students. This will not make students feel shy from their classmates. (Teacher F)

C. <u>Benefits for L2 classes and lessons</u>

- **Enjoyable and fun classes**: Teachers (B & H) supposed that EFL classes would be places for fun particularly if the deployed tasks are very interactive. They added that teachers will feel more relaxed as they do not have to talk too much, and then, there would be opportunities for showing the sense of humor in the classroom.
- **Use of technology**: Teachers (B & C) referred to the significance of TBI in urging teachers to use the available facilities and resources including the use of computer and internet and other effective teaching aids. According to them, this will enhance the smooth delivery of lesson, create a quicker communication between students in the class, help students make a connection between the previous and new knowledge and enable students to understand the content better.
- **Student-centered learning**: Teachers (A, B, C & E) stated that the current teaching style is teacher-centered where teachers are the main source of knowledge and whose roles are not restricted to teaching certain parts of the content of a lesson, but rather to teaching the entire content. However, with TBI, they expressed that, teachers' roles will be transferred to students who will become the main source of knowledge in congruence with the new patterns of language teaching and learning.
- **Task-based syllabus design**: Teacher (E) pointed out that there will be a great shift in the way syllabus is designed, from being a content-based where the content is used as a vehicle to teach the second language and the classroom activities are less interactive and

more rigid to a task-based where the assigned tasks are considered as the main unit of teaching and the classroom tasks are more flexible, fun and interactive. Based on this, task-based syllabus is more motivational for students to learn and then better language learning could be achieved.

- **Speaking-focused teaching**: Teacher (F) reported that there will be a huge change in the way language is viewed, from being a system of structurally related elements for coding meanings (structural view of language), to being a tool to establish and maintain social relations (interactional view of language), leading to a change in the way language is taught from grammar-focused to speaking-focused.
- **Language lessons have clearer goals**: Teacher (B) voiced that TBI tends primarily to improve students' speaking skills and this makes the language lessons more directed towards achieving this goal, leading to effective language teaching practices and then effective language learning.

Some of teachers' answers were put in the following words:

> … teaching now focus [sic] on teachers while in task-based the focus is on the students themselves. This will change the students from passive to active students. (Teacher A)

> The lesson will be simple with clear goals, and the goals can be achieved if the level of students is good, and the use of modern technology in the classroom. (Teacher B)

> It will make a shift in teaching indeed. The teaching will meet the new ways of teaching also, in which students are the source of the knowledge not the teacher, as we do now in our classes. (Teacher C)

> It will make a huge change from the focus on grammar to the focus on speaking. This also require [sic] a huge change in the evaluation system in Egypt. (Teacher F)

> It will be enjoying for the teachers and the students. The teachers do not have to talk all the time. Also, the students will be interacting all the time and this helps pass the time of the class in useful things. (Teacher H)

Table (12) summarizes the benefits of applying TBI in Egypt according to the beliefs, attitudes and opinions of Egyptian general secondary teachers.

Main categories	Sub-categories
Benefits for teachers	Improving teachers' speaking skills
	Making the teaching process easier
	Easy for teachers to set the objectives based on students' need
	Improving teachers' creativity
Benefits for students	Students are more active
	Students' better attainment and retention of the target language
	Creating critical thinkers
	Enhancing students' motivation
	Improving students' speaking skill
	Improving students' other language skills
	Improving students' confidence and feeling of responsibility
	Improving students' social skills
Benefits for L2 classes and lessons	Enjoyable and fun classes
	Use of technology
	Student-centered learning
	Task-based syllabus design
	Speaking-focused teaching
	Language lessons have clearer goals

Table 12: Benefits of TBI

Challenges against the Application of TBI

Compatible with the reviewed literature, the challenges faced by the participating teachers were mostly related to the teaching context not to the TBI approach itself. These challenges were

classified by the researcher into the following three categories; challenges emerging from TBI, challenges arising from decision makers of the educational process and challenges stemming from the educational system. Other findings as inferred from teachers' speeches were included in each category.

A. <u>Challenges emerging from TBI</u>

- **Time constraint**: Teachers (A, C & H) talked about the insufficiency of class time associated with the application of TBI as an obstacle against its implementation particularly with large class sizes. They contended that, this strategy requires full interaction and engagement of students in the assigned tasks and activities, and this needs longer lesson periods to enable all students to participate.
- **Language fossilization**: Teacher (E) stated that because of students' low language level, the interaction in the classroom may be of poor quality, leading to the use of structurally bad language during interaction. He went on to say that, since the focus in this strategy is on language meaning, this may lead to grammar fossilization as the grammatical mistakes may be kept uncorrected. He further stated that, since students' proficiency level is low, their language production is expected to be full of poor pronunciation, leading to students' fossilization of this poor language if accessed the lexically-based system.

Some of teachers' descriptions were as follows:

> … our classes are very big, and this need [sic] more time to enable the students to interact in class. This also hinder [sic] me from focusing on the weakness of students which is the main reason for using it. (Teacher A)

> It also need [sic] more time because, as you know, it is full of interaction, and this, is needs [sic] more time. (Teacher C)

> Also, this strategy needs the students to be dependent on themselves and finish the task, and this is dangerous because the language the students may use in the class may be very bad and instead of improving each other they may learn [teach] each other in a wrong way. (Teacher E)

B. Challenges arising from decision makers of the educational process

(1) Teachers

- **Teachers' poor qualifications**: The majority of teachers (75%) described the lack of training and knowledge of the main principles of TBI as an obstacle against the implementation of TBI. They (A, C, D, F, G & H) highlighted that the unfamiliarity with TBI makes teachers afraid of using it for having a negative impact on their confidence in the classroom. Teacher (C) added that, this strategy is flexible and requires teachers to be good syllabus designers to modify the tasks when necessary to suit students' levels, and very few teachers can do this.
- **Teachers' lack of TBI experience**: Teacher (A) argued for the negative effects of teachers' inadequate experience with TBI on its effective application in the classroom. He maintained that, through good experience with TBI, teachers will be more able to deal with different classroom situations, leading to teachers' confidence in delivering the content, and then effective teaching practices in the classroom.
- **Teachers' lack of confidence**: Teachers (A & C) informed of the close link between teachers' poor qualifications and experience on the one hand and their fear and hesitation in the classroom on the other hand. They maintained that teachers' lack of

confidence make them feel uncomfortable, resulting in poor classroom management skills and then less effective teaching practices in the classroom.

- **Teachers' attitudes towards TBI**: Teacher (A) felt that this strategy is not an easy one because it requires high mental process of information on the part of students to notice the gap and reflect on the produced language and also because it requires highly qualified teachers to manage the class time, impose discipline and create interactive environment for language learning.

(2) <u>Students</u>

- **Students' low motivation**: Teachers (B & G) viewed that students have low tendency for learning, claiming that many students go to the school only to get an academic degree with very few expectations that this degree can shape their future life or direct their future careers. Not far from this, they maintained that students underestimate the importance of learning English as a second language in providing better job opportunities.
- **Students' low proficiency level**: About (62.5%) of teachers (A, C, E, G & H) expressed that, TBI is an effective strategy but it cannot be implemented in the classroom because of students' current low language proficiency level. For them, this strategy uses what students know to report on the task, and the lack of necessary knowledge base leads to a failure in completing the assigned tasks and then improper application of the strategy.

- **Students' lack of creativity**: Teacher (G) stated that this strategy requires students to be creative to find several solutions to the problems faced by them. She further stated that, many students cannot think in English because of their low vocabulary knowledge base, and the result is that, they avoid being in the spotlight.
- **Students' lack of confidence**: Teachers (E & G) established a connection between students' low proficiency levels and their lack of confidence. They articulated that the inability of students to express their ideas and feelings through the assigned communicative tasks will make them reluctant, hesitant and unwilling to perform the tasks as they will be afraid of making mistakes in front of their classmates.
- **Students' negative attitudes towards English as a second language**: Teachers (B & E) underscored that English language learning is viewed as a difficult language by students, and this discourages them to use it in L2 speaking classes in disagreement with the fundamentals of the TBI approach.

(3) <u>School administration/ administrators</u>

- **Inadequate classes and improper teaching aids**: Almost (75%) of teachers (A, B, D, F, G & H) listed the lack of necessary resources and facilities including the access to internet and library, the use of smart boards, the proper arrangement of desks and the proper size of classes as the main impediments to the successful implementation of TBI. For them, school administrators have to made critical decisions about these issues as necessary to urge students to interact and search for the information

themselves and also to help teachers take control and impose discipline in the classroom.

- **Reliance on traditional teaching strategies**: Teachers (B & G) talked about the place where TBI is conducted as a crucial element in implementing or disregarding this new teaching strategy. They vocalized, unlike international schools, the public governmental schools still adopt the old and long-lasting teaching strategies where the native language is extensively used in second language classes, and these strategies are preferable in these classes because of students' low proficiency levels.
- **Lack of academic support**: Teachers (C & H) highlighted that school administrators do not provide training for teachers to promote their teaching skills. According to teacher (D), school administrations should provide the necessary training if they want teachers to adopt this new strategy in L2 classes.
- **Lack of material incentives**: Teacher (H) identified the absence of financial incentives by school administrations as a potential detriment against the perfect implementation of TBI. For her, this incentive could play a crucial role in urging teachers to work harder to improve their teaching abilities and skills.

Some teachers used the following words to express their opinions:

> … it is difficult and need [sic] teachers to be good speakers of English or fluent in English. (Teacher A)

> The students do not want to learn. They only learn to have a certificate…They should be self-motivated before anything else. Also, we are talking about big classes and it is difficult to implement this strategy in big classes. Another thing, students used to [use] the old strategy in the classroom…Another thing here also, the students want to use Arabic in the English classroom because they feel comfortable with it. (Teacher B)

> … it is a new strategy and require [sic] the presence of new facilities to apply it. It needs modern classes with the modern technology available, like smart boards and new desks for the students to facilitate their work in groups. We have a large number of students in one class and this hinder [sic] the arrange [sic] of desks … I not [sic] trained on this strategy. The school should give us this training if it wants us to use this new strategy. (Teacher D)

> … some student [sic] are not being [sic] creative, and they do not have the ability to do the research and they do not like to, you know, being in the spotlight and to lead… they lack the language and they do not like to learn English, and they do not understand… this is [sic] will make it difficult for them… most of us, teachers, are not trained to apply this strategy in the classes…And, you know that the class size also is huge… I feel that, in my opinion, this strategy will be successful more in the IB schools because the teachers are more trained, the students are well aware of what [sic] happening more than the governmental schools. (Teacher G)

> This strategy needs qualified teachers and good schools and also advanced students. The teachers are neglected from the school. Not training and no financial allowances. The schools are not qualified. The classes are very big and the interaction needs time…Also, students should be at a good level to interact with other students, otherwise they will be just listeners and this will not developed [sic] their language. (Teacher H)

C. <u>Challenges stemming from the educational system</u>

(1) Curriculum: Almost (75%) of teachers agreed on the unsuitability of the current curriculum for TBI since it is content-based and focuses more on developing the grammar and reading skills, while the curriculum in TBI should be task-based in which the focus should be given to developing the speaking skill. They also maintained that it is hard to adapt the current curriculum because we are obliged to cover the textbook given out by the school administration and also because the current curriculum is the only one approved by the Ministry of Education to be used in EFL classes. On this matter, Teacher (H) added that some of tasks in the present textbook do not enhance group work and interaction in the classroom. However, the remaining (25%) of teachers (A & F) pointed out to the suitability of the current curriculum for having many speaking

activities that promote pair work and they can be used in TBI classes to improve students' speaking abilities.

(2) Students' evaluation: All teachers (100%) believed in the unsuitability of the current evaluation system for TBI since TBI assesses students' production skills, particularly the speaking skill, while the current evaluation system assesses students' recognition skills, particularly memorization of words and grammar.

Some of teachers' utterances were as follows:

> For curriculum, I think it is suitable because, you know, the textbook gives many speaking activities, which encourages [sic] students to work in groups…Because the exams evaluate memorization of words and if students are able to write proper English, and task-based focus [sic] on speaking not on words and not on writing. (Teacher A)

> No, they [curriculum and evaluation] do not promote the application of it… The curriculum includes many activities not important or interesting for students... Also, the curriculum focus [sic] on the content and the task-based focus [sic] on the communication. The same also for evaluation system, it focus [sic] on content and the task-based not [sic] focus on it. (Teacher B)

> Textbook is content-based while the task-based is goal-based, … we are asked to cover the students' book from the first page to the last page… the evaluation system needs more reviews by education experts in order to improve the education system in Egypt. The current one depends only on knowing the grammar, and nothing to test the communication skills. (Teacher C)

> For the curriculum yes but the evaluation I do not think so. The curriculum has many cooperative activities that teachers can use especially those asking student to work in pairs or groups. For evaluation I said no because the evaluation system is still following the traditional approach which focus [sic] on teaching of grammar and the task-based follow [sic] the communicative approach which focus [sic] on the teaching of speaking. (Teacher F)

Table (13) summarizes teachers' perceptions towards the challenges against the perfect application of TBI in the Egyptian classroom context.

Main categories	Sub-categories	
Challenges emerging from TBI	Time constraint	
	Language fossilization	
Challenges arising from decision makers of the educational process	Teachers	Teachers' poor qualifications
		Teachers' lack of TBI experience
		Teachers' lack of confidence
		Teachers' attitudes towards TBI
	Students	Students' low motivation
		Students' low proficiency level
		Students' lack of creativity
		Students' lack of confidence
		Students' negative attitudes towards English as a second language
	School administration/ administrators	Inadequate classes and improper teaching aids
		Reliance on traditional teaching strategies
		Lack of academic support
		Lack of material incentives
Challenges stemming from the educational system	Curriculum	
	Students' evaluation	

Table 13: Challenges against the Application of TBI

4.3.5. Teachers' Current Teaching Practices

Although all participating teachers believed in the positive impact of TBI on students' speaking development and particularly speaking fluency development, most of them (87.5%) preferred using the traditional teaching methodologies (e.g., GTM, 3Ps, etc.) in their speaking classes for four main reasons. The first reason is related to students' low proficiency level. They restated

that students' current level is not suitable for the implementation of TBI as it requires students with advanced language level capable of interacting and expressing different ideas and opinions using the target language.

The second reason is connected with the content-based syllabus currently approved by the Ministry of Education and encouraged by different school administrations. On this matter, the teachers said that they are asked to cover the textbook from cover to cover and this is against the principles of TBI in that TBI does not have a specific syllabus but rather a flexible one based on the continual analysis of students' needs.

The third reason is closely linked to the current examination system which focuses heavily on grammar and memorization of some vocabularies and linguistic phrases in dispute with TBI where the focus is on speaking. The fourth reason pertains to the limited teaching time and large class sizes as being two critical obstacles to the successful implementation of TBI. The teachers indicated that TBI needs more time to apply the group work technique in the classroom, and with the current class sizes, it will be difficult to get every student involved in the classroom activities.

Interestingly, the same above teachers (87.5%) contended that the priority in English speaking classes should be given to language form to overcome the problems facing them in EFL classes, particularly those related to the current low proficiency level of students, the large size of classes, the insufficient teaching time and the inadequate evaluation system and syllabus design. The remaining teacher (Teacher F) favored using the cooperative learning strategy in his speaking classes for being an effective strategy for L2 speaking development. He also pointed out to the positive attitude of his students towards this strategy as another reason for applying it in his speaking classes. Regarding his opinion towards what teachers should prioritize in L2

speaking classes: language meaning or language form, he averred that both of them are of equal importance. He argued that, without grammar, the message cannot accurately be delivered and without meaning, the message cannot be understood.

Some extracts from teachers' speeches were as follows:

> I am currently using the grammar translation method because it is suitable for the level of students and also because it is suitable for the number of students and the time of the class. I can cover almost the whole material also. Most important, I teach the final-year and the students in this year is [sic] interested in getting high marks only, and my teaching methods help students more in this matter…I think the focus is [sic] on the form is more important because it does not require high level of students. The focus on meaning would be the next steps [sic] after the students know the basic [sic] of the language. (Teacher A)

> … I follow the presentation- practice- production strategy…it is the one approved by the Ministry…it is suitable for my students…no negative comments from the administration on it…we should first look at the students' level. If they are good, the focus on meaning is more important, but if they are weak, I think the focus on form is more important. I will waste the time of lesson if I focus on the meaning because my students will not gain any good results from it. (Teacher D)

> I use cooperative learning strategy… my students like it more than the old strategies... Both [focus on meaning and focus on form] are important for learning. The focus on form will not make students speak, and the focus on meaning will not make them speak. (Teacher F).

> I use the regular grammar-translation method and do not use this strategy. The reason is that I know the grammar-translation very well and I use it in many classes for years in my classes, and I do [sic] not use the task-based before. And also, I think that the student level in English do [sic] not allow them to think themselves and interact with each other… Also, the time of the class is ok with the grammar-translation…while in the task-based the time will be too short and many of students will not have the time to interact…exams support the use of grammar-translation strategy… the focus on form is more important. It will help the students answer the final exams.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

5.1. Introduction

This study was, mainly, designed to investigate the influence of TBI on students' speaking performance in the Egyptian context. The underlying assumption was the ability of TBI to enhance students' oral production of more fluent, lexically sophisticated, syntactically complex, and lexically diverse language due to the huge opportunities yielded by TBI to allow students to interact, test, reflect on and practice the target language. Moreover, this study looked into teachers' beliefs and concerns towards the application of TBI as an effective and successful teaching approach to improve students' speaking abilities in the Egyptian classroom setting. Gleaning both quantitative and qualitative data, the researcher aimed to prevail over the limitation of a single research method and support the quantitative research data with more concrete evidence to boost the accuracy of the research results and also to reach a clear-cut conclusion about the useful application of TBI to tackle students' speaking weaknesses in the Egyptian classroom milieu. The researcher starts this section by presenting the key findings from the quantitative and qualitative analyses and then discussing these findings in view of the reviewed literature.

5.2. Key Findings

The analyses of both quantitative and qualitative data underscored several key findings to include the following:

1. The equal positive influence of both TBI and 3Ps on the three lexical sophistication measures (WR & WF & BF) but with different effect sizes from one measure to another (small effect size for WR, large effect size for WF and medium effect size for BF).
2. The equal positive impact of both TBI and 3Ps on the three lexical diversity measures (MATTR & MTLD original & MTLD-MA Wrap) with the same medium effect sizes on the three measures.
3. The positive change made by both TBI and 3Ps on students' abilities to reduce the time of pauses in their speeches (APT) and increase the time spent in speaking (PTR). However, this change was statistically significant for the experimental group only with a small effect size on APT and a medium effect size on PTR.
4. The negative effects of both TBI and 3Ps on students' abilities to increase their speech rate (AR) and reduce the number of pauses (PF) in their speeches.
5. Despite the difference in both groups in favor of the experimental group after the treatment, the inferential analysis revealed the failure of both TBI and 3Ps to enhance students' abilities to produce lengthy words per T-unit (MLT) and lengthy words per clause (MLC) in their speeches as the pre-test scores on these two measures were greater than the post-test scores to a significant degree, except the non-significant difference from the pre-test to the post-test for the experimental group on the MLT measure.

6. The positive change in both groups from the pre-test to the post-test on two syntactic complexity measures (C/T & DC/C) but the change was statistically significant for the control group only.
7. Teachers had basic but not deep understanding and knowledge of TBI as a result of the theoretical knowledge they had during their academic study and their lack of practical experience in EFL classroom contexts.
8. Teachers had conflicting beliefs and attitudes towards TBI; that is, TBI is effective but, at the same time, it is difficult to be implemented in the Egyptian classroom context.
9. Teachers were reluctant to adopt TBI due to the challenges accompanied with its implementation; such as teachers' poor qualifications, teachers' lack of experience using TBI, teachers' lack of confidence, students' low motivation, students' low proficiency level, students' lack of creativity, students' lack of confidence, students' negative attitudes towards English as a second language, inadequate classes, limited availability of time, improper teaching aids, reliance on traditional teaching strategies, lack of academic support and lack of material incentives.

5.3. Discussion of Q1-Related Results

This section discusses the results of the quantitative data as collected from the pre-post tests aiming to get insight into the impact of two teaching strategies (TBI and 3Ps) on L2 students' speaking performance. The quantitative data results revealed mixed improvement in both groups' speaking performance after the intervention. To explain this, both TBI and 3Ps impacted approximately equally on all lexical sophistication and diversity measures (WR & WF

& BF & MATTR & MTLD original & MTLD-MA Wrap) but they both impacted differently on two break-down fluency measures (APT & PTR) and two syntactic complexity measures (C/T & DC/C). Moreover, they both had negative impacts on the remaining fluency and syntactic complexity measures (AR & PF & MLT & MLC). The following sub-sections will further discuss these results in terms of the impact of both TBI and 3Ps on each speaking component and the connection between these results and previous related research.

5.3.1. Impact on Fluency

Four measures were used to measure oral fluency quantitatively: AR, PF, APT and PTR, and the results showed the positive impact of TBI on two measures (APT & PTR) and the negative impact of both TBI and 3Ps on the remaining measures. These results were put down by the researcher to the following five reasons:

Firstly, the positive impact of TBI on APT and PTR, and the insignificant effect of 3Ps on the four fluency measures may have been accounted for the meaning-focused activities and the explicit instruction provided by TBI and 3Ps respectively. To elucidate this, the meaning-focused activities applied through TBI probably managed to draw students' attention to language meaning at the expense of language form while the explicit instruction succeeded to draw students' attention to language form at the expense of language meaning. This was in accord with the remaining results of the current study which showed the outperformance of the control group over the experimental group in providing more syntactically complex language. The current results also agreed with the results of the study by Ellis, Li and Zhu (2019) in which the researchers demonstrated that the students with explicit instruction improved in terms of the production of more structural language but this was at the expense of reducing the number and

length of pauses. Additionally, Namaziandost, Hashemifardnia and Shafiee (2019) proved the superiority of TBI over 3Ps in enhancing students' oral fluency, referring this to the nature of meaning-focused activities adopted through TBI which allowed for more opportunities for natural and cooperative learning, negotiation meaning, self-confidence and communicative practices in the classroom context than did 3Ps, leading to the significant difference in students' oral fluency in favor of the three groups assigned TBI. Moreover, in harmony with the current results, the study by Tavakoli, Campbell and McCormack (2016) indicated the success of TBT through a four-week pedagogic intervention using awareness-raising tasks in enabling students to give high phonation-time ratio. However, in disagreement with the negative impact of TBI on pause frequency, the study by Ferrari (2012) indicated the success of communicative tasks through the work in groups over a period of four consecutive years in enhancing students' ability to reduce the average number of pauses in their speeches.

Secondly, the positive impact on TBI on APT and PTR might have been attributed to the current students' proficiency level. To explain this, the current students were 12th second language grades with an intermediate proficiency level based on an Oxford placement test run prior to the study. Comparing the current study results with the study by Ellis, Li and Zhu (2019), it was noticed that the participants of the study by Ellis, Li and Zhu (2019) were 8th second language graders who practiced the target language only inside the EFL classes and those participants suffered difficulties in producing fluent speech as appeared clearly in giving longer pauses. This assumption was also substantiated by many studies in which the researchers argued for the use of TBI with more proficient students to improve students' oral fluency as TBI requires high mental information processing to easily construct the new language knowledge and quickly retrieve it when needed (e.g., Ellis 2003; Hassanein & Abu-Ayyash 2018; Murad

2009; Rasakumaran 2017; Salehi & Koorabbashloo 2016). In the same vein, Swain (2005) and Swain and Lapkin (2001) contended that TBI is not suitable for low-proficiency students as TBI aims to improve students' language based on their prior language knowledge using motivation as a means to reach this goal. They maintained that this motivation will do nothing with low-proficiency students as they need more than motivation; they need to have ample language knowledge to be used as a building block for any potential language development. Nevertheless, the allegation of the use of TBI only with more proficient students to improve their fluent production of the target language was debated by Nunan (2004) and Richards and Rodgers (2015) among others. They averred that TBI is a flexible approach, and then, it encourages the use of different types of tasks with different complexity levels to suit the diversity of students' proficiency levels and cognitive abilities. To maximize the benefit from its use in the classroom, they recommended the gradual employment of tasks in terms of difficulty based on students' language proficiency levels and cognitive abilities.

Thirdly, the positive impact of TBI on two breakdown fluency measures and its negative impact on the speed fluency measure may have been accredited to the existence of a certain trade-off between breakdown and speed fluency in our data set as the students of the experimental group seemed to increase the phonation-time ratio and decrease the average of pausing time at the expense of increasing their articulation rate. This trade off effect between speed and breakdown fluency also appeared in the study conducted by Préfontaine and Kormos (2015) in which the researchers found that the students increased their articulation rate at the expense of reducing the average of pausing time. However, they referred this result to the characteristics of pausing patterns in the native language (the French language in their study).

Fourthly, the different nature of tasks given through the speaking tests (monologic tasks) from those employed during intervention (dialogic tasks) as well as the short time given before the speaking tests to allow the students to prepare for their speech in comparison to the ample time given to the students of both groups when doing pair or group discussions may have influenced the experimental group's ability to produce faster language and less frequent pauses as well as the control groups' ability to produce faster language, higher phonation-time ratio, less frequent pauses and less pausing time. This inexperienced environment during the speaking tests may have affected both groups' abilities to use the back-up prompts effectively and to plan appropriately and systematically for their speeches using what they have already learned throughout the intervention period.

Fifthly, the low effect size of both TBI and 3Ps on fluency may have been understood as a result of students' exposure to these two teaching strategies for a short period of time (11 weeks). The current students were not advanced language learners (B1 level based on CEFT) and this required longer time for them to automatize the controlled processes which happens only through the continual practice of the target language for a long period of time, leading to more fluent production of the target language. Agreeing with this, Trevisol and D'ely (2021) argued that the speaking process is a complex process and therefore it is not expected for students to develop language automatization overnight but rather it requires practicing the newly restructured language in the mind to move from the controlled process to automatization, leading to a significant large change in students' fluent production of the intended language.

5.3.2. Impact on Lexical sophistication & Diversity

The results from the quantitative data analysis showed that both groups performed better on the post-test for all lexical sophistication and diversity indices to a significant degree and there was no significant difference between both groups on the post-test. These results confirmed the equal positive influence of both TBI and 3Ps on students' ability to produce more sophisticated and diverse words in their speeches. These results may have been ascribed to the following five reasons:

Firstly, both implicit and explicit instructions were effective and successful in drawing students' attention to the new lexical items, allowing them to go through further mental information processing and leading to students' acquisition, retrieval and production of lexical items with the continual use of the target words as reflected in both groups' performance on the post-test. However, these results were partially contracting with those concluded from the study by Ellis, Li and Zhu (2019) in which the researchers substantiated the significance of implicit instruction only in enhancing students' acquisition, retrieval and production of lexical items. For them, the students with implicit instruction outperformed those with explicit instruction on the three CAF triads to a significant degree. They rationalized these results by saying that the students with TBI had to rely more on their own resources in completing the assigned communicative tasks and this required them to do high cognitive information processing and to be more creative in order to produce richer and more diverse words. On the other hand, the students with explicit instruction were not required to do deep mental information processing or to be creative as the target words were instructed explicitly during the speaking classes.

Secondly, the form-focused processing and meaning-focused processing were both able to access the lexically-based system; a system responsible for organizing and connecting the

new lexical items and units with the existing ones in the mind, leading to better acquisition and richer production of L2 lexical items. Similar to these results were found in the two studies conducted by Trevisol and D'ely (2021) and Vercellotti (2017) in which the researchers investigated the impact of TBI on students' acquisition and production of L2 vocabularies. The results from these two studies indicated that the employment of communicative tasks that enhance meaning-focused processing led to a positive change in students' abilities to produce richer and more diverse words. For them, the implicit exposure to lexical items through social interaction (working in pairs or small groups) has led to the development of students' vocabulary knowledge base which soon appeared in their language production after being well-accommodated in the mind. To explain this further, TBI, through implicit learning, allowed for deeper L2 vocabulary processing in the mind which resulted in the ability to access the lexically-based system. Once accessed, the new words were organized and adapted with the existing ones, leading to richer production of L2 words.

Thirdly, the dialogic tasks employed throughout the study treatment were successful in enhancing both groups' negotiation of meaning, which was characterized as having good quality and quantity, leading to an increase in the participating students' vocabulary knowledge base. This suggested that, the participating students, while working on the assigned dialogic tasks in small groups, listened attentively to more knowledgeable peers, a matter which enabled them to notice the gap between what they know and what they need to know about the target words. Moreover, by receiving negative feedback from more knowledgeable peers on their language production, the students were able to modify their own hypothesis towards the new words conductive to L2 vocabulary learning. In agreement with this, Trevisol and D'ely (2021) contended that by testing, reflecting on and practicing the new words in pair or small groups

through the process of negotiation of meaning, the L2 students were able to develop their vocabulary knowledge base.

Fourthly, the results may have been put down for the success of the principle of scaffolding during the classroom social interaction in fostering both groups' abilities to produce less repetitive and more diverse words. On this point, the students perhaps relied much on the already existing word knowledge as a way to connect the new words with the existing ones, and the result was better retention of words in students' speeches. This was confirmed by Yaprak and Kaya (2020) who allowed for their students to choose their partners in each group/ sub-group to maximize their interaction in the classroom, leading to mutual assistance within zone of proximal development (ZPD), and then, better performance not only on students' linguistic abilities in terms of lexical diversity but also on the other socio-behavioral and cognitive development dimensions.

Fifthly, the current results may have been understood as a result of students' limited attentional resources to focus on lexis, fluency and syntactic complexity at the same time. The higher attention to lexical items and fluency led to the improvement of these two speaking sub-skills at the expense of producing more syntactically complex language as it was the case for the experimental group. Similarly, the higher attention to lexical items and syntactic complexity led to the development of these two speaking sub-skills at the expense of producing more fluent language as it was the case for the control group. It seemed that the retention of more varied and sophisticated words with the production of more fluent language required the current students to use simple sentences, and the retention of more varied and sophisticated words with the production of more complex sentences required them to make frequent and long pauses, to give less phonation-time ratio and to speak slower, showing that the students sacrificed either fluency

or syntactic complexity for the development of the other two speaking sub-skills. Notwithstanding, this was in contraction with the study by Vercellotti (2017) in which the development of lexical diversity positively correlated with the development of fluency and syntactic complexity. The results were rationalized by Vercellotti (2017) to the ability of students to retrieve the lexical items before constructing the syntactic frame not during the formulation stage of speech processing, and this promoted the production of more fluent and syntactically complex language as well.

5.3.3. Impact on Syntactic Complexity

Four measures were used to predict the syntactic complexity of the participating students: mean length of T-unit (MLT), mean length of clause (MLC), clauses/ T-unit (C/T), and dependent clauses/ clause (DC/C). The statistical results exhibited a significant decrease in both groups' scores on two syntactic measures from the pre-test to the post-test (MLT & MLC), showing the negative impact of both TBI and 3Ps on these two measures. The results also indicated a positive change in both groups' scores on the other two measures from the pre-test to the post-test (C/T & DC/C) but this change was statistically significant for the control group only and this change had a small effect size. These results were accredited by the researcher of this study to the following five reasons:

Firstly, the positive impact of 3Ps on C/T and DC/C and the insignificant impact of TBI on the four syntactic complexity measures may have been accredited to the success of explicit instruction during the adopted communicative language exercises, in comparison to implicit instruction during the employed communicative tasks, in drawing students' attention to a wide range of basic and sophisticated language structures, a matter which enabled them to restructure

these language structures in the mind, and then, getting access to them quickly during the language production process. However, these results were at odds with the results of the study by Ellis, Li and Zhu (2019) which corroborated the outperformance of the students with implicit instruction over those with explicit instruction regarding the production of more syntactically complex language. According to Ellis, Li and Zhu (2019), the students with TBI managed to use their linguistic and non-linguistic resources, a matter which made them more creative in their use of the target language.

Secondly, the results of this study may have been attributed to the nature of the communicative tasks and activities employed during the study treatment. That is, the communicative tasks and activities in the study treatment were assigned only with some time to enable the students to plan for their speeches themselves but they were not provided with guided planning or instructional techniques to focus on the syntactic complexity of the intended language. However, in conflict with the current results, the results from the study by Ferrari (2012) exhibited the success of the participants to produce more syntactically complex language even though they were not provided with additional materials at the speech preparation time.

Thirdly, the small effect size of the treatment may have been accredited to the nature of the speaking tests. That is, the speaking tests were not challenging enough to trigger the students to produce more syntactically complex language. Besides, the students were not given adequate time to prepare carefully for their speech (only one minute) and this resulted in the small effect of the treatment on students' production of lengthy words per T-unit, lengthy words per clause, more clauses per T-unit and more dependent clauses per clause. Nevertheless, these results were not in line with the results of the study by Vercellotti (2017) in which the participants managed to produce more complex language even with the use of less challenging speaking tests (2-

minute recorded monologue tasks taken from the tasks studied during an intensive English program), with the allowance for only one minute for the students to plan for their speech and with the restriction to take notes or use reference materials during the speaking tests.

Fourthly, the inability of both TBI and 3Ps to enhance students' production of longer words per T-unit and per clause as measured by the two length of production unit indices (MLT & MLC) was understood as a result of the language proficiency level of the current students (B1 based on CEFR) for the close link between length of production units and students' proficiency level, with higher proficiency levels indicate longer word production and vice versa. This was in harmony with the study by Gyllstad et al. (2014) in which the researchers found that both MLT and MLC discriminated two proficiency levels, and with the two studies by Wolfe-Quintero et al. (1998) and Bulté and Housen (2014) in which the researchers corroborated that length production units distinguished different proficiency levels.

Fifthly, the greater complexity performance of students at the level of subordination (C/T & DC/C) and their less complexity performance at the level of words/ clauses (MLT & MLC) as classified by Bulté and Housen (2012) and Ortega (2003) may have been attributed to the characteristics of complexity performance in L2. That is, the development of students' syntactic complexity starts with the complexity at subordination level before developing complexity at clausal level which is a higher complexity level. So, we can say the greater development probably happens as a result of the higher cognitive demand and the deep mental process required to produce advanced syntactic complexity speeches, and this also shows the close link between students' higher proficiency levels and their ability to produce advanced syntactic complexity speeches.

5.4. Discussion of Q2-Related Results

The results of the qualitative data analysis showed the positive beliefs and attitudes of teachers towards the use of TBI to improve the Egyptian students' speaking levels but with some challenges that hinder teachers from implementing it in the Egyptian context. This constituted a conflict in teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards impact of TBI on students' speaking development in the classroom setting. To maximize the benefit from the application of TBI in the classroom setting and ensure TBI effective practices, the examined teachers suggested taking decisive decisions by both class teachers and school administrators to prevail over the challenges.

More elaborately, almost all teachers (100%) expressed their understanding of TBI, but only few of them (12.5%) showed deep knowledge of its fundamentals. This was quite lucid in the inability of the majority of teachers (87.5%) to concisely define what is meant with a task and to elaborate on the different types of TBI frameworks. The results also uncovered that, almost all teachers do not currently apply TBI in their speaking classes with only (25%) of them happened to use it before. This was put down by the researcher to teachers' unfamiliarity and lack of practical experience with TBI.

Interestingly, despite their lack of practical experience, all teachers had a positive propensity towards TBI for being beneficial to L2 teachers, to L2 students and to L2 classes and lessons. As for teachers, it was believed by the participating teachers that TBI is significant as it improves teachers' speaking skills (25%), makes the teaching process easier (12.5%), enables teachers to easily set the objectives based on students' need (12.5%), and finally improves teachers' creativity (12.5%). As for students, it was thought that TBI is effective to be

implemented in the classroom because it makes students more active (62.5%), allows for better attainment and retention of the target language (12.5%), creates critical thinkers (75%), enhances students' motivation (37.5%), develops speaking (62.5%), improves other language skills (62.5%), increases confidence and feeling of responsibility (37.5%), and lastly promotes social skills (37.5%). Concerning with L2 classes and lessons, it was claimed that TBI is momentous as it creates enjoyable and fun classes (25%), has clear goals (12.5%), allows for the use of modern technology (25%), fosters student-centered learning (50%), enhances the use of task-based material (12.5%), and encourages speaking-focused teaching (12.5%).

Nevertheless, the same participating teachers, who had positive opinions towards TBI, expressed their concerns towards the use of this strategy in the classroom to improve students' speaking abilities. The participating teachers' concerns were classified into three main categories; concerns towards the strategy itself, concerns related to decision makers of the educational process and concerns about the current educational system. With regard to the first category, some teachers looked at time constraint (37.5%) and language fossilization (12.5%) as detrimental factors against the execution of TBI in the Egyptian milieu. As for the second category, teachers' poor qualifications (75%), teachers' lack of TBI experience (12.5%), teachers' lack of confidence (25%), teachers' attitudes towards TBI (12.5%), students' low motivation (25%), students' low proficiency level (62.5%), students' lack of creativity (12.5%), students' lack of confidence (25%), students' negative attitudes towards English as a second language (25%), inadequate schools, classes and teaching aids (75%), the total reliance on the traditional teaching approaches (25%), the lack of academic support (25%) and the lack of material incentives (12.5) were together viewed as obstacles to the successful application of TBI in Egypt. Regarding the third category, it was believed that the inadequate curriculum (75%)

and the unsuitable evaluation system (100%) were further hindrances to the successful implementation of TBI in the current context.

Furthermore, the data from the qualitative analysis disclosed that most of teachers (87.5%) were inclined to use the traditional teaching approaches (e.g., 3Ps, GTM, etc.) and to give the priority to language form before language meaning in their speaking classes to best handle the above-mentioned obstacles. Out of all participating teachers, only one teacher constituting (12.5%) of teachers favored using the cooperative learning strategy and gave a strong tendency to create an equal balance between both language meaning and language form in language speaking classes to better tackle students' speaking weaknesses.

By comparing these qualitative results to the related literature, the results of this study were in line with a plethora of other studies in which teachers had conflicting perceptions, thoughts and feelings towards TBI as an effective teaching strategy to improve students' speaking abilities (e.g., Ahmed 2017; Bhandari 2020; Chen & Wright 2017; Duong & Nguyen 2021; East 2019; Khoshsima & Shokri 2017; Lam, Nguyen & Nguyen 2021; Liu, Mishan & Chambers 2018; Liu & Ren 2021; Pham & Nguyen 2018; Thi & Tran 2017; Tuyen & An 2019; Zhang & Luo 2018). The results from all these studies revealed that TBI was advantageous to students since it yielded students with authentic communicative tasks that met their professional and academic needs, a matter which motivated them to learn and speak the target language. The results also revealed that TBI yielded students with opportunities to become more independent through full participation and engagement with other classmates in the assigned communicative tasks. Yet, they thought that TBI is strenuous to be implemented in the classroom setting.

To further discuss the results of the qualitative data in view of the four key themes and other related sub-themes, the results of this study were endorsed by scores of studies which

revealed teachers' familiarity with only the basics of TBI with no deep understanding and knowledge of its fundamentals (e.g., Chen & Wright 2017; Duong & Nguyen 2021; Lam, Nguyen & Nguyen 2021; Liu, Mishan & Chambers 2018; Liu & Ren 2021). Together, the results from these studies magnified the importance of providing teachers with practical training to enhance their understanding of TBI and its principles, and then, maximizing its benefits when applied in the classroom setting. They also agreed with many others that, even with having deep knowledge of TBI, teachers still suffer difficulties in implementing this strategy due to other problems they encounter when adopting it in the classroom setting such as large class size, insufficient class time, inflexible syllabus, inadequate assessment system and students' low proficiency level (e.g., Lin & Wu 2012; Liu & Ren 2021; Zheng & Borg 2014).

Moreover, the results of this study lent support to many others which disclosed the positive belief of teachers towards TBI, attributing this to the fact that TBI creates an interactive, encouraging and enjoyable environment for learning (Hu 2013), promotes teachers' speaking skills and consequently their confidence in using the target language in the classroom (Jeon & Hahn 2006), encourages small group work (Tabatabaei & Hadi 2011), allows teachers to focus on small groups instead of focusing on the whole class (McAllister, Narcy-Combes & Starkey-Perret 2012), enhances students' motivation (e.g., Jeon & Hahn 2006; Tabatabaei & Hadi 2011; Tinker Sachs 2009; Xiongyong & Samuel 2011) and boosts the academic progress of students (Xiongyong & Samuel 2011). Other researchers ascribed this positive attitude towards TBI to the belief among teachers that TBI improves students' independency (McAllister, Narcy-Combes & Starkey-Perret 2012), develops students' cognitive and critical thinking skills (e.g., Lam, Nguyen & Nguyen 2021; Liu, Mishan & Chambers 2018; Liu & Ren 2021), develops students learning of the four language skills (e.g., Hadi 2013; Hu 2013; Lin &

Wu 2012; Tinker Sachs 2009; Xiongyong & Samuel 2011) and uses meaningful and world-related communicative tasks (McDonough & Chaikitmongkol 2007).

Regarding the challenges connected with the implementation of TBI in the classroom setting, the results of this study agreed with several others on some problems encountered by teachers in their application of TBI in the classroom. For example, the results from a score of studies showed that teachers' low-proficiency level is an obstacle to the successful and effective execution of TBI in the classroom since TBI does not rely on pre-conceived teaching materials that teachers may get familiar with before going to the class but rather on flexible teaching materials that require teachers to be ready for any unexpected questions emerging from/ during the class interaction (e.g., Lam, Nguyen & Nguyen 2021; Liu & Xiong 2016; Pham & Nguyen 2018; Tabatabaei & Hadi 2011).

Also, in consistence with this study, other studies indicated that teachers had concerns towards the negative impact of teachers' lack of TBI experience on the effective implementation of this strategy in the classroom (e.g., Chen & Wright 2017; Duong & Nguyen 2021; Lam, Nguyen & Nguyen 2021; Liu, Mishan & Chambers 2018; Liu & Ren 2021). The majority of teachers who participated in these studies reported that the lack of experience with TBI makes them feel uncomfortable in the classroom and makes them hesitant about how to deliver the content, resulting in the inability to maintain discipline and/ or use the class time efficiently.

Moreover, in agreement with the results of this study, others problems arose from the contradiction between TBI principles and the way English is assessed in the final examination as the main focus in TBI is on developing students' both oral and written productive skills while final exams mostly measure language recognition and comprehension (e.g., Chen & Wright 2017; Deng & Carless 2010; Duong & Nguyen 2021; Hao 2016; Liu, Mishan & Chambers

2018; Zheng & Borg 2014). These studies also indicated teachers' primary interest in helping students pass final exams as an accompanying problem to the above contradiction.

To further corroborate the results of this study, the results from several studies indicated that teachers had concerns towards the impact of teachers' adherence to the old and long-lasting traditional teaching methods on students' language development (e.g., Chen & Wright 2017; East 2019; Lam, Nguyen & Nguyen 2021). Collectively, these studies showed teachers' reluctance to adopt new teaching methodologies because of the high comfort they feel with the adoption of traditional teaching strategies and also because they do not have the material incentives to encourage them do the mental and physical effort needed by TBI.

Additionally, endorsing the results of the current study, a number of studies credited students' low proficiency levels and low motivation as two major detrimental factors against the application of TBI (e.g., Chen & Wright 2017; Douglas & Kim 2014; Lam, Nguyen & Nguyen 2021; Liu, Mishan & Chambers 2018; Zheng & Borg 2014). They argued that, TBI requires high mental process of information and this necessitates having ample language knowledge in order for students to be able to do the high mental information processes. They added that, students with low-proficiency levels prefer to use their mother language when communicating as a more secure way to deliver the message. The results from these studies also exhibited that students do not prefer TBI due to the apparent contradiction between this approach and the standardized examinations since they, in the first place, seek to pass the exams before searching for learning.

Again, validating the results of this study, the results from a plethora of studies demonstrated teachers' negative attitudes towards the impact of large-sized classes on the perfect implementation of TBI as larger numbers of students in a class may be conductive to a

greater disparity in students' language levels and also to a greater psychological and physical burden on teachers as facilitators (e.g., Bhandari 2020; Duong & Nguyen 2021; Hadi 2013; Hao 2016; Lam, Nguyen & Nguyen 2021; Liu, Mishan & Chambers 2018; Liu & Xiong 2016; Pham & Nguyen 2018). Those researchers also argued that large class sizes require high management skills by teachers to be able to maintain discipline and take control over the class, and not all teachers have this skill, leading to students being more disruptive than active players.

To further substantiate the results of the present study, some researchers added the lack of academic and administrative support to the challenges against teachers' implementation of TBI (e.g., Adamson & Yin 2008; Liu, Mishan & Chambers 2018; Liu & Ren 2021; Nahavandi & Mukundan 2012). According to these studies, teachers do not find support and guidance from their supervisors, maintaining that some administrators make their work arduous by not providing the necessary training, teaching resources and facilities, leading to the use of what they know or what it is available to use; mostly the use of traditional teaching approaches.

Other obstacles to the implementation of TBI in the classroom which supported the results of this study included the insufficient class time to cover the instructional material especially when TBI is applied to students at low-proficiency levels and/ or adopted in large-sized classes, as this strategy requires more time and effort to ensure that each student understands the assigned tasks and to make sure that he/she is fully involved in doing them (e.g., Duong & Nguyen 2021; East 2019; Hao 2016; Lam, Nguyen & Nguyen 2021; Liu, Mishan & Chambers 2018; Liu & Ren 2021; Liu & Xiong 2016; Pham & Nguyen 2018). It was also concluded from these studies that teachers need more time to prepare for the task and to make it suitable for students, particularly when the instructional material is not task-based.

Concerning with the suitability of the current instructional material for TBI, the results of this study were congruent with others that the absence of authentic and goal-oriented tasks in any instructional materials renders teachers unable to effectively employ TBI (e.g., Chen & Wright 2017; Duong & Nguyen 2021; East 2019; Lam, Nguyen & Nguyen 2021; Liu, Mishan & Chambers 2018; Liu & Ren 2021; Pham & Nguyen 2018). Taken together, the results of these studies credited having authentic and goal-oriented tasks as substantial to provide the suitable context for learning and essential to assess students' learning.

After all, literature showed that the few studies that indicated very positive attitudes towards TBI (e.g., Bryfonski 2021; Carless 2004; Leaver & Kaplan 2004; Xhaferi & Xhaferi 2013) and those revealed teachers' negative attitudes towards TBI (e.g., Deng & Carless 2010; Hasnain & Halder 2021; Zheng & Borg 2014) shared with the results of the current study the major constraints against the application of TBI in the classroom, and all together recommended the need to prevail over the accompanying challenges in order to boost effective application of TBI. Based on this, the present study and the related literature tended to have a common result; that is, TBI is effective to enhance students' language development in general and their speaking performance in particular provided that the obstacles to its implementation are carefully considered and successfully dealt with.

5.5. Summary of the Chapter

The results of the current research theoretically and empirically confirm the research hypothesis that TBI is effective and preferable to be used in the classroom to bolster students' speaking performance as demonstrated by the positive change on at least one measure from the four

investigated speaking components (APT & PTR & WR & WF & BF & MATTR & MTLD original & MTLD-MA Wrap & C/T & DC/C) although the change in the syntactic complexity measures (C/T & DC/C) were not statistically significant. This was accounted for the ability of TBI to offer students' with opportunities and time to negotiate, interact, notice, test, reflect on and practice the target language. Recommendations were also given to use TBI with more advanced students since it requires high mental processing of information which is easier performed in students' mind if they have ample language knowledge base.

Furthermore, the results of this study provided confirmatory evidence in support of other studies regarding teachers' positive beliefs and attitudes towards the use of TBI to foster students' speaking abilities in the classroom setting. They also agreed with others on some overarching challenges against the perfect implementation of TBI. These challenges included insufficient class time, large class sizes, inadequate instructional materials, improper evaluation system, teachers' poor qualifications, teachers' lack of TBI experience, teachers' lack of confidence, teachers' attitude towards TBI, students' low-proficiency language levels, students' low motivation, students' lack of creativity, students' lack of confidence, students' negative attitudes towards English as a second language, out of order teaching facilities and unsupportive teaching environment. By and large, the results of the qualitative data combined with the results of the quantitative data gave tangible evidence on the effective use of TBI to promote students' speaking abilities in the Egyptian classroom context provided that the obstacles against its perfect implementation were successfully tackled.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS, PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. Conclusions

This study investigated the impact of TBI on students' oral production of the target language as well as teachers' beliefs towards TBI as an effective teaching methodology to be used in the Egyptian classrooms to enhance students' speaking abilities. More intensively, it examined the impact of TBI on third-year general secondary students' speaking performance in terms of fluency, lexical sophistication, lexical diversity and syntactic complexity as well as secondary teachers' beliefs in terms of experience, thoughts and feelings towards the possibility of effective and successful implementation of TBI to tackle students' speaking weaknesses in the Egyptian milieu. To this end, the researcher embraced the mixed-methods research approach and used the quasi-experimental design in the form of pre-post tests to glean the main quantitative data and the semi-structured interview to gather the qualitative data.

Adding to this, the researcher espoused the pragmatic paradigm because he felt that it is the best to obtain the required data and answer the research questions, he knew that it is closely associated with the espoused mixed-methods research approach and he believed that it can mitigate the validity and reliability threats ensuring from the use of a single research approach. Moreover, the present research followed the explanatory sequential research design in collecting the research data because the main research data was collected quantitatively while the

qualitative data was gleaned to support the quantitative data. This required the researcher to collect and analyze the quantitative research data before collecting and analyzing the qualitative research data.

The research treatment lasted for eleven weeks over the course of the first semester in the academic year 2020-2021, during which the experimental group was assigned the TBI approach while the control group was employed the 3Ps approach. Additionally, the main quantitative data was automatically scored using four computer-based programs: Praat, TAALES, TAALED and L2SCA then deductively analyzed using parametric and non-parametric tools in the SPSS software based on the normal distribution of the analysed data to detect any difference in students' performance at the end of the treatment and to know if the difference between groups and within groups is statistically significant or not. On the other hand, the eight semi-structured interviews were conducted face-to-face and on one-on-one basis. Moreover, the results of this qualitative data was inductively analyzed using the content analysis approach to know what teachers think, believe and feel about the applicability of TBI in the Egyptian classroom context.

The results of the main quantitative data exhibited that the students in both groups had higher scores at the post-test when compared to the pre-test on at least one measure in each examined speaking dimension. The results also showed that the students in both groups had almost equal level of speaking performance on the pre-test and the post-test on most of the measures but with a significant difference between both groups on the post-test for two fluency measures in favor of TBI and two syntactic complexity measures in favor of 3Ps. This suggested the equal positive impact of both TBI and 3Ps on students' vocabulary outcomes, in that both groups were able to produce more sophisticated and diverse words after the exposure to the

study treatment. The results also suggested the existence of the trade-off effect between fluency and syntactic complexity; that is, the experimental group improved their fluency skill after the treatment at the expense of the syntactic complexity skill, and the control group improved their syntactic complexity skill at the expense of their fluency. The improvement of certain skills was mainly explained as a result of the meaning-focused activities given to the experimental group and the form-focused activities assigned to the control group.

According to the qualitative data results, the participating teachers had a positive belief towards TBI as an effective teaching strategy to bolster students' speaking performance. The qualitative results also indicated some obstacles to the perfect application of TBI in Egypt. This encompassed insufficient class time, large class sizes, inadequate instructional materials, improper evaluation system, teachers' poor qualifications, teachers' lack of TBI experience, teachers' lack of confidence, teachers' attitudes towards TBI, students' low-proficiency levels, students' low motivation, students' lack of creativity, students' lack of confidence, students' negative attitudes towards English as a second language, out of order teaching facilities and unsupportive teaching environment. These results agreed with the reviewed literature on that there is a conflicting belief towards TBI; namely, it is an effective teaching strategy but at the same time it is difficult to be implemented in the Egyptian classroom.

Based on the results from the quantitative and qualitative data, some significant conclusions were drawn. For example, it was concluded that, TBI can effectively be used in the Egyptian milieu to improve students' oral production of more fluent, lexically sophisticated and lexically diverse language as (1) it provides opportunities for natural learning through the exposure to authentic communicative tasks in the classroom, (2) it stimulates students to participate, interact and communicate with teachers and other capable peers during the assigned

communicative activities, resulting in a change in the current learning routine by emphasizing student-based learning instead of the old and long-lasting teacher-based learning, (3) it enhances the principles of meaning negotiation and scaffolding through the work in small groups or pairs, enabling students to notice the gap in their own language, to test their own hypothesis towards the new language knowledge and to modify their language production to include these new ways of language production, (4) it allows students to receive the new language knowledge and turn it into intake and then storing it the lexically-based system which is responsible for organizing the lexical units or phases, leading to restructuring and automatization of the new language knowledge with the continual use of the target language, (5) it helps students integrate what they know into what they do, and this is an essential factor to create understanding and to obtain an enjoyable and effective learning experience, (6) it fulfils the four substantial conditions for L2 learning: meaningful use, motivation, exposure and explicit instruction on language form, and (7) it helps students practice the target language in an anxiety-free atmosphere as the focus on message delivery rather than error correction is deemed natural with this strategy.

Another important level of the results was that TBI is not only used with advanced students as claimed by some scholars and researchers in the area (e.g., Hassanein & Abu-Ayyash 2018; Murad 2009; Rasakumaran 2017; Salehi & Koorabbashloo 2016; Swain & Lapkin 2001) but it can also be used with students of low proficiency levels because TBI creates an interactive, encouraging and motivational environment that triggers low-achievers to fully interact with, and make the most of, their high-achieving ones. Lastly, it was inferred from the research results that TBI prefers an environment where teachers are highly proficient and well-qualified, students are intrinsically and/ or extrinsically motivated, teaching and learning are

goal-oriented, syllabi are task-based, students are active and creative, assessment systems are communication-based, modern technology is utilized, class size is small, class time is sufficient and students' proficiency level is high. If this environment is adequately enhanced, it is then expected that TBI would have the desired effect on students' speaking skills.

6.2. Pedagogical Implications

This section shows how the critical analysis of the research results can lead to several pedagogical implications for in-service and pre-service language teachers, syllabus designers, administrative officials, TBI methodology as well as researchers in the field of second language acquisition. Adding to this, it yields deep insight into our understanding of how different roles played by TBI can foster students' oral production of the target language and how the obstacles associated with the implementation of TBI can adversely affect students' speaking performance. The following lines discuss these pedagogical implications and address the critical pedagogical issues accompanied with the adoption of TBI in the Egyptian context in view of the results of the current research.

1- The results of the current study validated four language learning theories: the interactionist theory, the output hypothesis, the socio-cultural theory and the information processing theory. Following from this, teachers should adopt the instructional practices and communicative tasks that encourage meaning negotiation, language practice, social interaction and information processing.

2- In agreement with the results of this study which indicated the trade-off effect between fluency and syntactic complexity, teachers should choose the type of instruction,

whether implicit or explicit, and the type of communicative tasks, whether meaning-focused tasks or form-focused tasks, from the very beginning based on the intended outcome. If the focus is to develop fluency, implicit instruction and meaning-focused tasks should be adopted. On the other hand, if the focus is to develop syntactic complexity, explicit instruction and form-focused tasks should be employed. This is in accord with many works in which developing a particular speaking sub-skill depends largely on the nature of tasks employed (e.g., Benati 2017; Ellis 2005; Lou, Chen & Chen 2016; VanPatten 2013). For them, if the concentration is given to promoting language fluency, meaning-directed tasks should be employed, and if the focus is directed to language accuracy or complexity, form-focused tasks should be assigned.

3- As concluded from this study, both TBI and 3Ps can effectively be used in the classroom to develop L2 students' lexical items. That is, teachers may choose implicit instruction as represented in this study by TBI or explicit instruction as presented by 3Ps or both to increase L2 students' vocabulary knowledge base. Based on this study, teachers may present the new words at the beginning of the lesson by exposing students to the target words in proper authentic contexts and asking students to think of proper meanings for the target words with opportunities to pronounce the new words and receive negative feedback. Teacher may also choose not to present the new vocabularies and all what they do is to refresh students' mind of the existing vocabularies, phrases and expressions that they may need while discussing the main task through some pre-task activities, allowing students to fully engaged in the assigned tasks and then the ability to take in the new words and process them in the mind conductive to L2 vocabulary acquisition.

4- In agreement with the results of this study which showed the superiority of TBI over 3Ps in promoting students' oral fluency performance, the shift from teacher-oriented to student-oriented learning should be considered by language teachers if they need to improve speaking fluency. This means that, students should be the main sources of knowledge who work hard with their classmates to identify the necessary language knowledge and express it freely, while teachers' roles should be confined to being language advisers, discussion organizers or language facilitators who guide students during the learning process. However, this implication does not mean that teachers should neglect the current syllabus, which does not suit TBI as revealed by the present study but rather they may add to the current syllabus some task components, as maintained by Ellis (2009), to help students learn the target language the way they are expected to use both inside and outside the classroom context.

5- In congruence with the effective role played by TBI in improving students' oral production of fluent speech to a significant degree, their oral production of advanced and diverse words to a significant degree and their oral production of syntactically complex language but not to a significant degree, EFL teachers should equip students with opportunities to receive, notice, reflect and produce the target language through different communicative activities based on their cognitive abilities and educational levels to enhance their speaking. Indeed, the extensive exposure to the target language, despite being important to draw students' attention to the relevant skills, is not enough per se to enhance students' oral production of the intended language (Swain 2000). Therefore, students should, as argued by Swain (2000, p. 99), be stimulated to "process language more deeply- with more mental effort- than does input". By practicing the target

language, students will be able to test their own language, modify and internalize it in the exemplar-based and rule-based systems before automatizing it with the continual use in proper communicative contexts, conductive to the ability to produce richer and more fluent, accurate and structural language (e.g., Ellis 2003; Gass & Selinker 2008; Randall 2007; Skehan 1998).

6- Based on the results of the current study which revealed the ability of TBI to make a positive change in students' speaking performance after they were exposed to communicative tasks of different complexity levels, teachers, as contended by Nunan (2004) and Richards and Rodgers (2015) among others, may be required to adopt flexible TBI to suit students' diverse educational levels, needs and interests as well as their varied cognitive abilities and proficiency levels to promote the employability of TBI in the classroom.

7- As emphasized through this study, language teachers should consider using the one-and-only communicative activities to maximize teacher-student and student-student interaction, leading to richer communication using the target language. To provide empirical evidence in support of this, Brown (2014), Gass and Mackey (2015) and Lightbown and Spada (2018) among others corroborate that the extensive use of communicative activities in the classroom stimulates L2 students to engage in meaningful communication and enables them to get positive feedback from their teachers and other students, leading to more confidence in their speaking, and consequently better L2 speaking performance.

8- As considered through the second phase of the embraced TBI framework which eventually resulted in students' speaking development, teachers may consider the public

presentation of tasks as an effective technique to enhance students' speaking performance in terms of fluency, lexical sophistication, lexical diversity and syntactic complexity. Substantiating this, Willis (1996) recommends students' public performance on the task during the second phase as it triggers students to happily focus on their report before presenting it to make their presentation as good as possible. She adds that, doing public presentation during the task cycle phase pushes students to do a lot of rehearsals and refinements before reporting on the task; meanwhile, it gives students the feeling of self-independence, self-esteem and self-confidence that they can finish the task without teachers' assistance. Moreover, Prabhu (1987) argues that this technique creates an atmosphere of rivalry and competition among students and pushes them to take the risk since their speech is always subject to critical discussion.

9- Teachers should not give immediate feedback on students' speech unless their intervention is imperative. This was encouraged through the adopted TBI framework to facilitate the smooth flow of students' speech. For Willis (1996), teachers are required to stand back and monitor students' interaction, and in case this is a necessity to intervene, they intervene but only after students report on the task. Moreover, according to Ellis (2003, 2005), this helps the naturalness of speech and creates an authentic environment for language learning.

10- In accord with the research results which exhibited teachers' lack of necessary training on and experience with TBI, school administrators in coordination with concerned authorities are advised to arrange some TBI workshops or courses and encourage teachers to use this strategy in the classroom to increase teachers' familiarity with the effective practices of TBI in the classroom. The goals of these workshops or courses

may be expanded to instruct teachers on how to design different communicative tasks to suit students' cognitive, proficiency and educational levels as a solution to address the inappropriate instructional material issue reported by the research participants. Teachers may also be instructed, through the suggested workshops or courses, on how to assess students' learning based on their completion of the task as another solution to tackle teachers' low practical experience with TBI, as revealed by this study.

11- In line with the results of this study which indicated the unsuitability of the current material for TBI, syllabus designers should modify the current material to include more communicative activities typified as goal-oriented, originated by motives and under the influence of the condition of learning. Those three conditions are emphasized by several researchers as essential in any TBI-related material to enhance effective application of TBI in the classroom (e.g., Gillette 1994; Lantolf 2000; Wen 2008).

12- In consistence with the results of this study which showed the inappropriateness of the current assessment system for TBI, syllabus designers hand in hand with other officials in charge of the educational process should take all necessary measures to change the status quo with regard to the total reliance on language recognition as the one-and-only valid criterion to assess students' language development. According to Ahmed (2017) and Zheng and Borg (2014), the total reliance on language recognition rather than language production in the assessment system holds students back from making effort to improve their speaking skills for being unnecessary to pass the final exams.

13- In concurrence with the results of this study which disclosed the negative impact of large class sizes on students' learning of the target language in general and their speaking development in particular, school administrators should bear some responsibilities with

regard to downsizing the number of students in the Egyptian classroom context, as reducing very large class sizes enables teachers to perform better and students to learn more. Advocating this, Ajayi, Audu and Ajayi (2017) argue that, although downsizing very large class sizes is a purely administrative decision and teachers have no control over, it is considered a very effective tool to enhance students' academic performance as well as the performance of the whole education system. They also maintain that large class sizes render teachers unable to maintain discipline, to draw attention to students' needs, to provide continuous assessments and to provide an interactive environment for students to learn.

14- As corroborated through the results of this study, other administrative decisions; such as the provision of appropriate school structures, proper classrooms and other rudimental teaching aids and facilities, should carefully be considered by school administrators for its impact on students' learning and their oral production of the target language. To substantiate this, Ajayi, Audu and Ajayi (2017) contend that the inadequate provision of these administrative facilities is not in line with modern education which counts students' needs and comforts as essential factors for any effective classroom management and engagement, and then effective learning.

15- As confirmed through the results of this study, teachers may adopt TBI to develop the speaking skill of low-achieving students. However, teachers may consider two critical points to effectively employ TBI; (1) they may ensure that students with different proficiency levels are included in each group to enhance the principle of scaffolding between or among students within a group, and (2) they may choose from different task types, the tasks that best suit students' cognitive levels, or they may gradually employ

the tasks in terms of complexity to trigger students to interact. Supporting this, Lantolf, Thorne and Poehner (2015) and Saville-Troike (2006) among others contend that taking these two points into account before assigning the task enables low achievers to be more active, more confident, less reliant on teachers, and then, more able to produce richer and more advanced target language.

6.3. Limitations of the Study

Despite the significance of the results in clearly answering the two research questions and solidly establishing concrete evidence on the positive effects of TBI on students' speaking abilities, these results warrant a word of caution for the following three reasons. Firstly, the research samples were representative samples within a specific educational district; Mansoura educational district, and hence, the research findings should be generalized over this particular district unless this research is duplicated on students from different educational backgrounds and levels in the same context.

Secondly, the research treatment was executed over a period of eleven weeks which was the actual teaching period of a school semester, during which each group was exposed to its allocated teaching strategy only during the speaking classes. Hence, it would be better off to extend the period of the experiment for some further weeks or to allow for the exposure to the examined teaching strategies during the other classes to obtain more reliable results.

Thirdly, the quasi-experimental design and the accompanying non-random convenience method constituted a validity threat to the research results since the two investigated groups were two intact groups and the random assignment of the participants was not possible with this

type of investigation. However, some procedures were taken by the researcher of this study to mitigate this validity threat to minimum, including the adoption of mixed-methods research approach, the assurance of the participants' homogeneity in terms of language proficiency level prior to the experiment through the execution of two tests: the placement test and the speaking pre-test respectively, and the provision of the same test conditions and environment for all participants on the pre-test and the post-test.

6.4. Recommendations for Future Research

Therefore, acknowledging the above limitations, the researcher recommends the duplication of this study to include the probe into the impact of TBI on speaking performance for students from other educational levels and backgrounds using longer periods of time to get more reliable results and to help generalize the results over the Egyptian milieu. Further research may also be conducted to examine the effects of TBI on other speaking sub-skills such as the speaking accuracy skill. Moreover, future research may examine the effectiveness of TBI on other language skills; the listening skill, the reading skill and/ or the writing skill. Another interesting research area could be the exploration of students' beliefs and attitudes towards the application of TBI to improve students' speaking skill or any other language skill.

Furthermore, invaluable information may be obtained from the investigation into the relationship between students' attitudes towards the use of TBI to develop the speaking skill and their demographic factors; such as gender, age, education, proficiency level, motivation, frequency of speaking inside and outside the classroom, anxiety and self-esteem among other students' variables and factors that may influence students' speaking. Additionally, researchers

may examine the impact of different instructional choices; such as task complexity, pre-task planning time and within-task planning time, on students' speaking performance in the three speaking sub-skills of fluency, accuracy and complexity.

Adding to this, future research may go beyond the current global trend within TBI-related studies; that is, potential researchers may investigate the impact of TBI on other categories of analysis; such as collocations of speech, lexical selection and discursive features, rather than on the global categories of fluency, accuracy and complexity. Finally, the current instructional material may be analyzed and assessed to check its suitability for TBI in terms of the authenticity of topics, texts and language, the design of tasks and the number of designed tasks.

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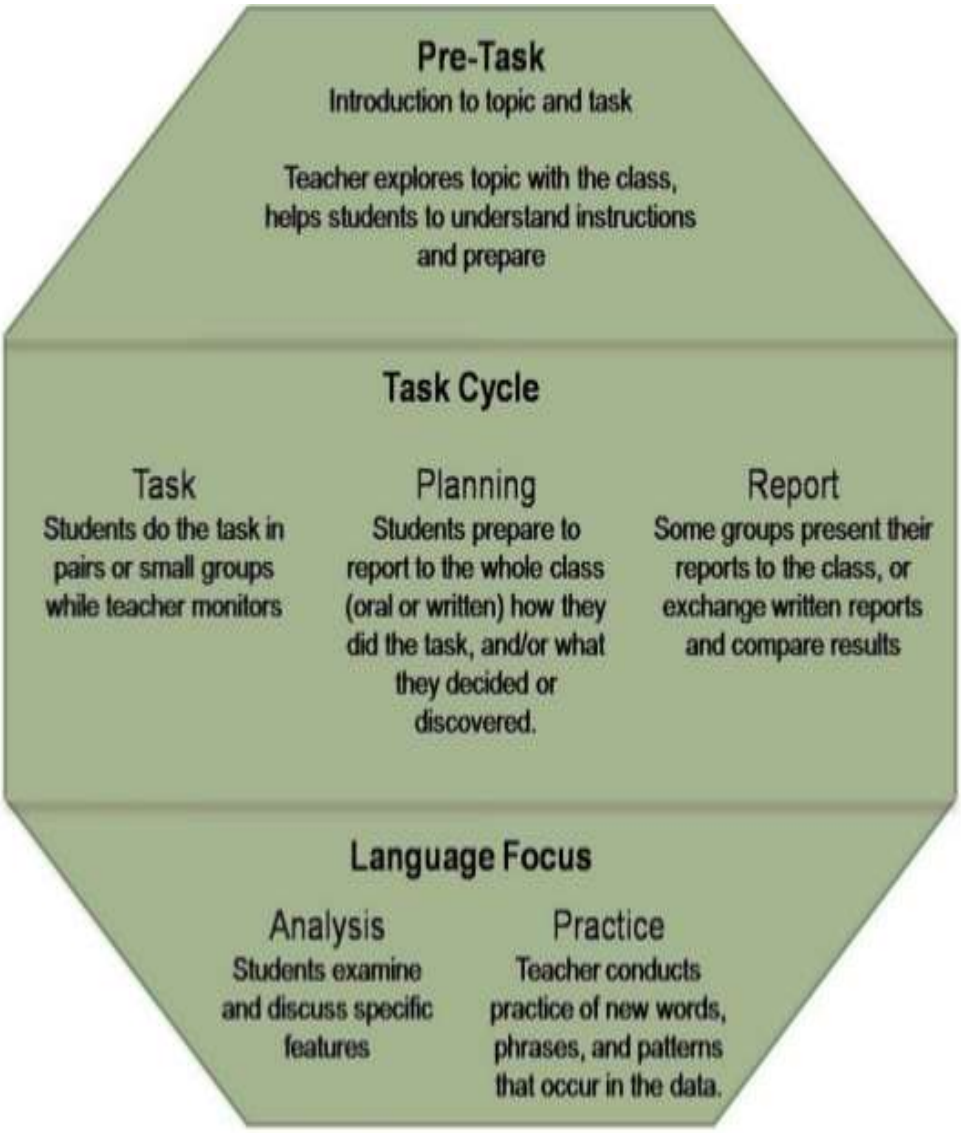
APPENDICES

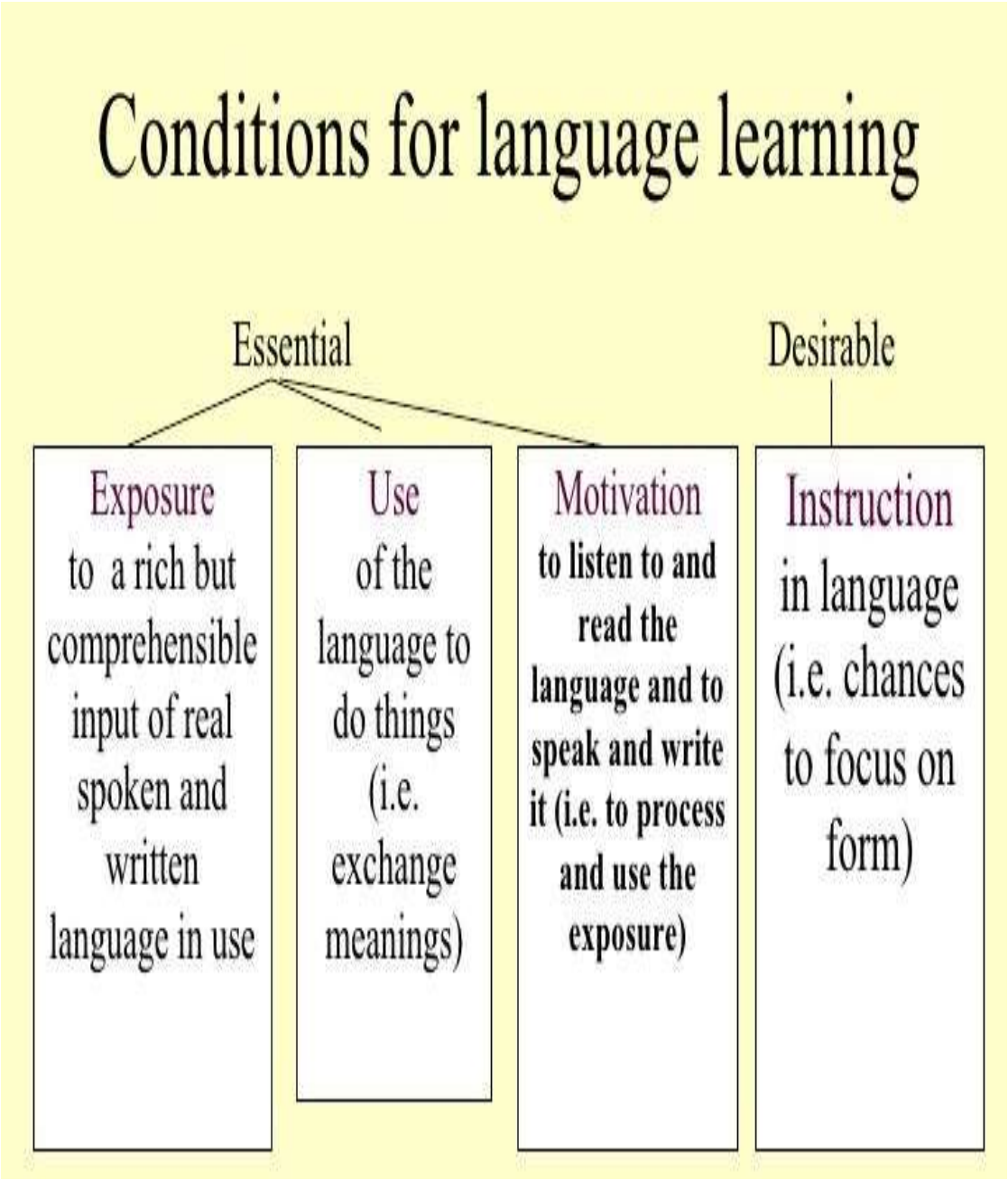
Appendix (A): Willis's TBI Framework



TBI Framework

(Willis 1996, p. 38)

Appendix (B): Conditions for Language Learning



Conditions for Language Learning

(Willis 1996, p. 11)

Appendix (C): Placement Test & Samples of Students' Answer Sheets

(1): Test Instructions, Questions, Answer Key and Score Interpretation Report

Oxford University Press
and
University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate

Name: .....

Date: .....

quick placement test

Version 1

This test is divided into two parts:

Part One (Questions 1 – 40) – All students.

Part Two (Questions 41 – 60) – Do not start this part unless told to do so by your test supervisor.

Time: 30 minutes

Part 1

Questions 1 – 5

- Where can you see these notices?
- For questions **1** to **5**, mark **one** letter **A**, **B** or **C** on your Answer Sheet.

1

Please leave your room key at Reception.

A in a shop
B in a hotel
C in a taxi

2

Foreign money changed here

A in a library
B in a bank
C in a police station

3

AFTERNOON SHOW
BEGINS AT 2PM

A outside a theatre
B outside a supermarket
C outside a restaurant

4

CLOSED FOR HOLIDAYS

Lessons start again on the 8 th January

A at a travel agent's
B at a music school
C at a restaurant

5

Price per night:

£10 a tent
£5 a person

A at a cinema
B in a hotel
C on a camp-site

Questions 6 – 10

- In this section you must choose the word which best fits each space in the text below.
- For questions **6** to **10**, mark **one** letter **A**, **B** or **C** on your Answer Sheet.

Scotland

Scotland is the north part of the island of Great Britain. The Atlantic Ocean is on the west and the North Sea on the east. Some people **(6)** ..... Scotland speak a different language called Gaelic.

There are **(7)** ..... five million people in Scotland, and Edinburgh is **(8)** ..... most famous city.

Scotland has many mountains; the highest one is called 'Ben Nevis'. In the south of Scotland, there are a lot of sheep. A long time ago, there **(9)** ..... many forests, but now there are only a **(10)** ..... .

Scotland is only a small country, but it is quite beautiful.

6	**A**	on	**B**	in	**C**	at
7	**A**	about	**B**	between	**C**	among
8	**A**	his	**B**	your	**C**	its
9	**A**	is	**B**	were	**C**	was
10	**A**	few	**B**	little	**C**	lot

Questions 11 – 20

- In this section you must choose the word which best fits each space in the texts.
- For questions **11** to **20**, mark **one** letter **A**, **B**, **C** or **D** on your Answer Sheet.

Alice Guy Blaché

Alice Guy Blaché was the first female film director. She first became involved in cinema whilst working for the Gaumont Film Company in the late 1890s. This was a period of great change in the cinema and Alice was the first to use many new inventions, **(11)** ..... sound and colour.

In 1907 Alice **(12)** ..... to New York where she started her own film company. She was **(13)** ..... successful, but, when Hollywood became the centre of the film world, the best days of the independent New York film companies were **(14)** ..... . When Alice died in 1968, hardly anybody **(15)** ..... her name.

11	**A** bringing	**B** including	**C** containing	**D** supporting
12	**A** moved	**B** ran	**C** entered	**D** transported
13	**A** next	**B** once	**C** immediately	**D** recently
14	**A** after	**B** down	**C** behind	**D** over
15	**A** remembered	**B** realised	**C** reminded	**D** repeated

UFOs – do they exist?

UFO is short for 'unidentified flying object'. UFOs are popularly known as flying saucers, **(16)** ..... that is often the **(17)** ..... they are reported to be. The **(18)** ..... "flying saucers" were seen in 1947 by an American pilot, but experts who studied his claim decided it had been a trick of the light.

Even people experienced at watching the sky, **(19)** ..... as pilots, report seeing UFOs. In 1978 a pilot reported a collection of UFOs off the coast of New Zealand. A television **(20)** ..... went up with the pilot and filmed the UFOs. Scientists studying this phenomenon later discovered that in this case they were simply lights on boats out fishing.

16	**A** because	**B** therefore	**C** although	**D** so
17	**A** look	**B** shape	**C** size	**D** type
18	**A** last	**B** next	**C** first	**D** oldest
19	**A** like	**B** that	**C** so	**D** such
20	**A** cameraman	**B** director	**C** actor	**D** announcer

Questions 21 – 40

- In this section you must choose the word or phrase which best completes each sentence.
- For questions **21** to **40**, mark **one** letter **A**, **B**, **C** or **D** on your Answer Sheet.

21 The teacher encouraged her students ..... to an English pen-friend.

A should write **B** write **C** wrote **D** to write

22 They spent a lot of time ..... at the pictures in the museum.

A looking **B** for looking **C** to look **D** to looking

23 Shirley enjoys science lessons, but all her experiments seem to ..... wrong.

A turn **B** come **C** end **D** go

24 ..... from Michael, all the group arrived on time.

A Except **B** Other **C** Besides **D** Apart

25 She ..... her neighbour's children for the broken window.

A accused **B** complained **C** blamed **D** denied

26 As I had missed the history lesson, my friend went ..... the homework with me.

A by **B** after **C** over **D** on

27 Whether she's a good actress or not is a ..... of opinion.

A matter **B** subject **C** point **D** case

28 The decorated roof of the ancient palace was ..... up by four thin columns.

A built **B** carried **C** held **D** supported

29 Would it ..... you if we came on Thursday?

A agree **B** suit **C** like **D** fit

30 This form ..... be handed in until the end of the week.

A doesn't need **B** doesn't have **C** needn't **D** hasn't got

31 If you make a mistake when you are writing, just ..... it out with your pen.

A cross **B** clear **C** do **D** wipe

32 Although our opinions on many things ..... , we're good friends.

A differ **B** oppose **C** disagree **D** divide

33 This product must be eaten ..... two days of purchase.

A by **B** before **C** within **D** under

34 The newspaper report contained ..... important information.

A many **B** another **C** an **D** a lot of

35 Have you considered ..... to London?

A move **B** to move **C** to be moving **D** moving

36 It can be a good idea for people who lead an active life to increase their ..... of vitamins.

A upturn **B** input **C** upkeep **D** intake

37 I thought there was a ..... of jealousy in his reaction to my good fortune.

A piece **B** part **C** shadow **D** touch

38 Why didn't you ..... that you were feeling ill?

A advise **B** mention **C** remark **D** tell

39 James was not sure exactly where his best interests ..... .

A stood **B** rested **C** lay **D** centred

40 He's still getting ..... the shock of losing his job.

A across **B** by **C** over **D** through

Part 2

Do not start this part unless told to do so by your test supervisor.

Questions 41 – 50

- In this section you must choose the word or phrase which best fits each space in the texts.
- For questions **41** to **50**, mark **one** letter **A**, **B**, **C** or **D** on your Answer Sheet.

The tallest buildings - SKYSCRAPERS

Nowadays, skyscrapers can be found in most major cities of the world. A building which was many **(41)** …….. high was first called a skyscraper in the United States at the end of the 19th century, and New York has perhaps the **(42)** …….. skyscraper of them all, the Empire State Building. The **(43)** …….. beneath the streets of New York is rock, **(44)** …….. enough to take the heaviest load without sinking, and is therefore well-suited to bearing the **(45)** …….. of tall buildings.

41	**A** stages	**B** steps	**C** storeys	**D** levels
42	**A** first-rate	**B** top-class	**C** well-built	**D** best-known
43	**A** dirt	**B** field	**C** ground	**D** soil
44	**A** hard	**B** stiff	**C** forceful	**D** powerful
45	**A** weight	**B** height	**C** size	**D** scale

SCRABBLE

Scrabble is the world's most popular word game. For its origins, we have to go back to the 1930s in the USA, when Alfred Butts, an architect, found himself out of **(46)** ……. . He decided that there was a **(47)** ……. for a board game based on words and **(48)** ……. to design one. Eventually he made a **(49)** ……. from it, in spite of the fact that his original **(50)** ……. was only three cents a game.

46	**A** earning	**B** work	**C** income	**D** job
47	**A** market	**B** purchase	**C** commerce	**D** sale
48	**A** took up	**B** set out	**C** made for	**D** got round
49	**A** wealth	**B** fund	**C** cash	**D** fortune
50	**A** receipt	**B** benefit	**C** profit	**D** allowance

Questions 51 – 60

- In this section you must choose the word or phrase which best completes each sentence.
- For questions **51** to **60**, mark **one** letter **A**, **B**, **C** or **D** on your Answer Sheet.

51 Roger's manager ..... to make him stay late if he hadn't finished the work.

A insisted **B** warned **C** threatened **D** announced

52 By the time he has finished his week's work, John has hardly ..... energy left for the weekend.

A any **B** much **C** no **D** same

53 As the game ..... to a close, disappointed spectators started to leave.

A led **B** neared **C** approached **D** drew

54 I don't remember ..... the front door when I left home this morning.

A to lock **B** locking **C** locked **D** to have locked

55 I ..... to other people borrowing my books: they always forget to return them.

A disagree **B** avoid **C** dislike **D** object

56 Andrew's attempts to get into the swimming team have not ..... with much success.

A associated **B** concluded **C** joined **D** met

57 Although Harry had obviously read the newspaper article carefully, he didn't seem to have ..... the main point.

A grasped **B** clutched **C** clasped **D** gripped

58 A lot of the views put forward in the documentary were open to ..... .

A enquiry **B** query **C** question **D** wonder

59 The new college ..... for the needs of students with a variety of learning backgrounds.

A deals **B** supplies **C** furnishes **D** caters

60 I find the times of English meals very strange – I'm not used ..... dinner at 6pm.

A to have **B** to having **C** having **D** have

Schlüssel

1	B
2	B
3	A
4	B
5	C
6	B
7	A
8	C
9	B
10	A
11	B
12	A
13	C
14	D
15	A

16	A
17	B
18	C
19	D
20	A
21	D
22	A
23	D
24	D
25	C
26	C
27	A
28	C
29	B
30	C

31	A
32	A
33	C
34	D
35	D
36	D
37	D
38	B
39	C
40	C
41	C
42	D
43	C
44	A
45	A

46	B
47	A
48	B
49	D
50	C
51	C
52	A
53	D
54	B
55	D
56	D
57	A
58	C
59	D
60	B

Auswertung

Punkte	Kursstufe	Niveau entspricht etwa	Abschlüsse allgemeines English	Abschlüsse Business English
0-17	A 1			
18-29	A 2	Hauptschule Klasse 9/10	**KET** Key English Test	
30-39	B 1	Realschule Klasse 9/10 mittlere Reife	**PET** Preliminary English Test	**BEC P** Business English Certificate Preliminary
40-47	B 2	zwischen mittlerer Reife und Abitur	**FCE** First Certificate in English	**BEC V** Business English Certificate Vantage
48-54	C 1	Abitur Grundkurs	**CAE** Cambridge Advanced English	**BEC H** Business English Certificate Higher
55-60	C 2	Abitur Leistungsstufe	**CPE** Cambridge Proficiency	

(2): Samples of Students' Answer Sheets

Student Class: A

Student No.: 1

31/60

Answer sheet

Choose the answer and then mark only one letter A, B, C or D in the appropriate box.

	A	B	C	D		A	B	C	D
1		✓			38			✓	
2		✓			39		✓		
3	✓				40			✓	
4		✓			41			✓	
5			✓		42			✓	
6	✓				43		✓		
7		✓			44	✓			
8			✓		45				✓
9			✓		46	✓			
10	✓				47	✓			
11		✓			48			✓	
12	✓				49			✓	
13			✓		50				✓
14			✓		51			✓	
15	✓				52		✓		
16		✓			53		✓		
17	✓				54				✓
18			✓		55				✓
19				✓	56	✓			
20			✓		57				✓
21				✓	58		✓		
22				✓	59		✓		
23			✓		60	✓			
24				✓					
25		✓							
26			✓						
27	✓								
28			✓						
29	✓								
30			✓						
31	✓								
32	✓								
33				✓					
34				✓					
35				✓					
36				✓					
37				✓					

27/60

Student Class: A

Student No. : 2

Answer sheet

Choose the answer and then mark only one letter A, B, C or D in the appropriate box.

	A	B	C	D		A	B	C	D
1		✓			38			✓	
2		✓			39				✓
3	✓				40			✓	
4	✓				41			✓	
5		✓			42		✓		
6		✓			43	✓			
7		✓			44	✓			
8			✓		45	✓			
9		✓			46	✓			
10	✓				47			✓	
11			✓		48			✓	
12		✓			49				✓
13			✓		50	✓			
14				✓	51				✓
15	✓				52				✓
16				✓	53		✓		
17	✓				54		✓		
18		✓			55		✓		
19				✓	56		✓		
20	✓				57			✓	
21		✓			58			✓	
22	✓				59	✓			
23	✓				60	✓			
24	✓								
25			✓						
26		✓							
27	✓								
28	✓								
29		✓							
30			✓						
31	✓								
32	✓								
33			✓						
34			✓						
35			✓						
36			✓						
37		✓							

36/60

Student Class: 9

Student No. : 3

Answer sheet

Choose the answer and then mark only one letter A, B, C or D in the appropriate box.

	A	B	C	D		A	B	C	D
1		✓			38		✓		
2		✓			39			✓	
3	✓				40			✓	
4		✓			41	✓			
5			✓		42				✓
6		✓			43			✓	
7		✓			44		✓		
8			✓		45	✓			
9		✓			46			✓	
10	✓				47				✓
11		✓			48		✓		
12	✓				49			✓	
13			✓		50			✓	
14				✓	51	✓			
15			✓		52				✓
16		✓			53				✓
17		✓			54	✓			
18	✓				55				✓
19	✓				56				✓
20	✓				57			✓	
21			✓		58	✓			
22			✓		59				✓
23				✓	60				✓
24		✓							
25			✓						
26	✓								
27	✓								
28		✓							
29		✓							
30			✓						
31	✓								
32	✓								
33			✓						
34	✓								
35				✓					
36		✓							
37		✓							

$\frac{34}{60}$

Student Class: A

Student No. : 4

Answer sheet

Choose the answer and then mark only one letter A, B, C or D in the appropriate box.

	A	B	C	D		A	B	C	D
1		✓			38		✓		
2		✓			39			✓	
3	✓				40				✓
4		✓			41			✓	
5			✓		42	✓			
6		✓			43			✓	
7			✓		44			✓	
8			✓		45	✓			
9		✓			46		✓		
10	✓				47	✓			
11		✓			48	✓			
12			✓		49	✓			
13			✓		50				✓
14				✓	51			✓	
15	✓				52				✓
16	✓				53		✓		
17	✓				54	✓			
18			✓		55				✓
19				✓	56				✓
20				✓	57		✓		
21		✓			58			✓	
22			✓		59		✓		
23				✓	60				✓
24	✓								
25			✓						
26	✓								
27		✓							
28			✓						
29		✓							
30			✓						
31			✓						
32				✓					
33	✓								
34				✓					
35				✓					
36		✓							
37		✓							

33/60

Student Class: A

Student No. : 5

Answer sheet

Choose the answer and then mark only one letter A, B, C or D in the appropriate box.

	A	B	C	D		A	B	C	D
1					38				
2					39				
3					40				
4					41				
5					42				
6					43				
7					44				
8					45				
9					46				
10					47				
11					48				
12					49				
13					50				
14					51				
15					52				
16					53				
17					54				
18					55				
19					56				
20					57				
21					58				
22					59				
23					60				
24									
25									
26									
27									
28									
29									
30									
31									
32									
33									
34									
35									
36									
37									

Appendix (D): Results of the Placement Test

S/N	Class Name	Student's Score	Z Score		
1	Class A	31	-0.929741287		
2	Class A	27	-2.165750292		
3	Class A	36	0.615269969	Mean =	34.00884956
4	Class A	34	-0.002734533	Standard Deviation =	3.236222377
5	Class A	33	-0.311736784		
6	Class A	27	-2.165750292		
7	Class A	37	0.924272221		
8	Class A	34	-0.002734533		
9	Class A	35	0.306267718		
10	Class A	32	-0.620739036		
11	Class A	34	-0.002734533		
12	Class A	34	-0.002734533		
13	Class A	32	-0.620739036		
14	Class A	29	-1.54774579		
15	Class A	35	0.306267718		
16	Class A	34	-0.002734533		
17	Class A	39	1.542276723		
18	Class A	31	-0.929741287		
19	Class A	33	-0.311736784		
20	Class A	40	1.851278974		
21	Class A	33	-0.311736784		
22	Class A	37	0.924272221		
23	Class A	32	-0.620739036		
1	Class B	35	0.306267718		
2	Class B	28	-1.856748041		
3	Class B	35	0.306267718		
4	Class B	34	-0.002734533		
5	Class B	40	1.851278974		
6	Class B	32	-0.620739036		
7	Class B	29	-1.54774579		
8	Class B	36	0.615269969		
9	Class B	37	0.924272221		
10	Class B	35	0.306267718		
11	Class B	32	-0.620739036		
12	Class B	41	2.160281226		
13	Class B	36	0.615269969		
14	Class B	37	0.924272221		
15	Class B	36	0.615269969		
16	Class B	30	-1.238743538		
17	Class B	34	-0.002734533		
18	Class B	28	-1.856748041		
19	Class B	35	0.306267718		
20	Class B	34	-0.002734533		
21	Class B	35	0.306267718		
22	Class B	37	0.924272221		
23	Class B	35	0.306267718		

1	Class C	35	0.306267718		
2	Class C	32	-0.620739036		
3	Class C	27	-2.165750292		
4	Class C	41	2.160281226		
5	Class C	35	0.306267718		
6	Class C	32	-0.620739036		
7	Class C	32	-0.620739036		
8	Class C	34	-0.002734533		
9	Class C	31	-0.929741287		
10	Class C	33	-0.311736784		
11	Class C	36	0.615269969		
12	Class C	37	0.924272221		
13	Class C	34	-0.002734533		
14	Class C	31	-0.929741287		
15	Class C	32	-0.620739036		
16	Class C	32	-0.620739036		
17	Class C	33	-0.311736784		
18	Class C	43	2.778285728		
19	Class C	34	-0.002734533		
20	Class C	35	0.306267718		
21	Class C	34	-0.002734533		
22	Class C	36	0.615269969		
23	Class C	34	-0.002734533		
1	Class D	35	0.306267718		
2	Class D	32	-0.620739036		
3	Class D	35	0.306267718		
4	Class D	31	-0.929741287		
5	Class D	33	-0.311736784		
6	Class D	34	-0.002734533		
7	Class D	35	0.306267718		
8	Class D	37	0.924272221		
9	Class D	35	0.306267718		
10	Class D	36	0.615269969		
11	Class D	43	2.778285728		
12	Class D	31	-0.929741287		
13	Class D	40	1.851278974		
14	Class D	34	-0.002734533		
15	Class D	33	-0.311736784		
16	Class D	27	-2.165750292		
17	Class D	36	0.615269969		
18	Class D	35	0.306267718		
19	Class D	36	0.615269969		
20	Class D	28	-1.856748041		
21	Class D	31	-0.929741287		
22	Class D	35	0.306267718		
1	Class E	43	2.778285728		
2	Class E	34	-0.002734533		
3	Class E	32	-0.620739036		

4	Class E	34	-0.002734533		
5	Class E	33	-0.311736784		
6	Class E	36	0.615269969		
7	Class E	33	-0.311736784		
8	Class E	41	2.160281226		
9	Class E	33	-0.311736784		
10	Class E	32	-0.620739036		
11	Class E	32	-0.620739036		
12	Class E	35	0.306267718		
13	Class E	33	-0.311736784		
14	Class E	35	0.306267718		
15	Class E	32	-0.620739036		
16	Class E	31	-0.929741287		
17	Class E	33	-0.311736784		
18	Class E	35	0.306267718		
19	Class E	34	-0.002734533		
20	Class E	31	-0.929741287		
21	Class E	34	-0.002734533		
22	Class E	32	-0.620739036		
Mean		34.00884956			
Standard Deviation		3.236222377			

Appendix (E): Pre-Post Speaking Tests

Instructions:

1. The test measures your ability to produce more fluency, lexically sophisticated, lexically diverse and syntactically complex speech. This includes your ability to speak fast, decrease the number of pauses, minimize the time of pauses and reduce the ratio of time spent in speaking. It also encompasses your ability to provide more advanced and diverse words and arrange them in more coherent and structural sentences.
2. You will be given one minute to think and prepare yourself to speak about the task and another 2-3 minutes to give your speech.
3. You are required to fill the test time with speaking. The examiner will tell you when you should start speaking and when the time is up.
4. The following prompts are some suggestions you may consider when giving your speech.
5. You may use the pencil to write some key words on the test paper during the one-minute planning time to remind you of the key ideas you plan to include in your speech.
6. The test is recorded and you will be given only one chance to talk about the task.
7. The results of this test will not be kept in your performance record at the school and will not affect your marks/ grades on your final exams. They are only used to help improve language teaching in the classroom.

Pre-test/ task

Describe the place you live in or the place you would like to live in.

Back-up prompts

- Talk about your house/ dream house.
- Talk about furniture and outer features.
- Talk about other things you want in your house.

Post-test/ task

Describe yourself, a family member or a friend.

Back-up prompts

- Talk about appearance.
- Talk about personality.
- Talk about other things you like most about him/ her.

Appendix (F): Samples of Students' Transcriptions

Transcription Conventions:

The transcription conventions used in this study are based on the following standard discourse analysis conventions as detailed in Wooffitt's (2005) work. The aim is to transcribe what people hear without recourse to grammatical conventions. Notwithstanding, there are occasions in the text where some conventions such as capitals for proper names seem sensible, to make the text more readable.

Underlined word	indicates an emphasis by speakers.
(0.4)	refers to the length of pauses (with 1 = 1 sec, etc.)
(.)	is a very short pause (less than 0.25 seconds)
( )	Something that cannot be heard or interpreted clearly
(( ))	is used around anything not verbal language
(guess)	a word in bracket indicates transcribers' best guess at an unclear fragment
hh	breathes out or filler. The more "h's" means longer breath or extended filler.

Sample (1)

Student (1) - Experimental Group

Pre-Test

I live in a small house. (2.5) It is, is, (2.5) it is in (.) a small village. (2.5) Al-Mansoura. (2.15) not far from here. (2.10) It is very, (0.5) very quiet, (0.5) no loud. (1.5) It is a small village, (2.15) few small shop. (5.05) From them (.), we can (1.9) (( ))(buy) many things. (6.8) We have many (0.9) things (.) in my house. (2.5) There is (0.4) two (.) bedrooms, (1) saloon, (2.2) kitchen, (0.6) bathroom, (1.7) sofa, (0.4) television, (1.8) fridge, (5.8) more (.) things. (5.5), I stay (.) with my (.) two brothers (0.4) in (.) a one (.) bedroom. (2.02) my father (.) and mother (.) in one bedroom. (6.4) I want to (1.7) live in (.) a big house. (0.6) I want to (2.6) have my room. (4.2) I want to (1) have a room (.) for games. (1.7) I like to play, (1.8) play (1.5) video games with my friends.

Post-Test

I want to talk (.) about myself. (2) I am not tall. (2.4) not short. (1.7) My face is (0.6) brown. (2.3) My hair is (0.9) black. (5) My personality, (4.9) I do not like go outside much. (2) I go outside to (0.7) play football (0.7) in the street with my (.) friends. (3.7), I go home after school. (2.3) I (1) stay at home to eat. (2.5) After, (1.8) I sleep one hour. (2.3) I (1.6) go up (.) after (1.7) and (0.4) study my homework. (4.7) I play (.) with my small brother (.) in the house. (3.9) I (1.7) like my brother (.) and he likes (.) me. (3.9) I (1.6) play with mother (.) not my father. (2) he (1.6) ( ). (5.8) I am very (0.6) quiet. (2.5) I (0.4) listen to him. (2) He always (2) advise me. (4.3) I am also (0.6) friendly. (2.5) not make (2.3) trouble to my friends.

Sample (2)

Student (2) - Experimental Group

Pre-Test

I live beside (0.4) a big (.) park. (2.5) It is (.) a big (.) park. (2.6) I go with my family. (5.01) hhhh My house (.) is, ( ) is hhhh (2.02) very nice. (2.8) I (0.4) see (2.7) saw (.) there (1.5) many trees. (2.5) I like (.) it but (.) It is (2.8), it is (0.3) hhhh very (0.4) noise. (5.7) Many cars (0.5) are (.) in the street (.) in the morning and in, (.) in the evening. (5.8) my house (.) hhhh (0.8) have many rooms (0.6) and (0.4) many ( ). (4.2) hhh (.) tables, (0.4) chairs, (0.4) desk. (3.7) hhhh (.) I have my desk (0.8) i (0.7) use (2.6) in my (2.8) (studying). (6.9) I want live (.) in (2.2) a big, (1.3) a, (.) a big (1) villa. (2.5) It (1.8) have many rooms (.) in it. (2.2) It (2.3) should have (.) a big park (.) in my villa (( )). (1.2) swimming pool. (7.3) I want to (.) live in it (2.5) with my family.

Post-Test

My father is big, (1.8) tall. (0.4) hhh (2.1) He (.) has (1.9) hhh stomach. (2.7) he (1) sits (0.5) long time (2) on the desk. (5.3) my father is (0.5) smart. (3) He (0.8) works (0.4) hard. (0.6) He works (.) very hard. (4.7) He (.) is (2.7) (ambitious). (6.4) He (.) is (0.9) math (.) teacher. (3) gives (0.7) hhhh (0.5) private lessons (.) to (.) have (.) more (.) money. (4.5) He (.) gives (0.7) us (.) everything. (2.8) He (.) give (.) me (4) gifts (1) and (1) clothes. (5.4) He wants (.) me to (.) be a doctor (0.6) in the future. (2.1) tell me (0.3) to (0.8) study my lessons. (4.3) hhhh (.) mother, (( )) (.) tell my mother (0.8) to study (.) to me. (1.5), my father (.) not have many (.) friends. (1.3) He is (.) (busy) (0.4) all the time. (7.6) My father like farms (0.8) and (1.2) trees (1) like me.

Sample (3)

Student (1) - Control Group

Pre-Test

I live in, (.) I live in a village. (2.2) It is belong to Mansoura center. (2.5) The village is big. (5.9), some people working in the, (0.5) in the farms. (2.7) My father working in the farms. (7.3) We have large farms. (2) my father (.) have, (0.4) have it (1.7) from my (.) grandfather. (6) Next, hh next to the (.) house, (2.1) there is a small (2) yard (2) for the house. (6.5) We have two (1.7) buffaloes (1.8) and (.) hh three cows. (3.5) My father (2.2) feed them. (5.8) We have simple (2.3) furniture (2.1) in the house. (2.6) Old two sofas (1.4) from wood. (1.6) Old T.V. (2) Old cook, (.) cookers (2.5) and (.) a cooker and (( )) hh refrigerator. (6.4) I want (0.5) change the, (2.4) change the, (.) the place (0.6) the yard to hh (.) another place. (4.9) Making the house big.

Post-Test

My father is (( )) simple (0.9) in the clothes. (1.7) Not like to change. (1.6) He is a (2), he is a farmer. (4.9) Always wear (0.4) farm clothes. (4.9) He is fifty, (2.1) he is fifty six (0.5) years old. (5.3) His face, (.) his face is brown. (2) His hand (.) is (4.4) (harsh). (5.8) He works with (2) axe, (1.4) hh axe (.03) in the farm (3) and clean (0.4) to animals (2.3) in our yard. (6.7) I ask him to (.) sell animals (2) and (4.3) increase (.) our house. (2.7) He not (.) accepting (.) it. (5.9) Getting up early. (2.8) going (.) to our farm (0.7) before (0.8) the sun. (5.3) He is, (2) he is, (.) he is not have (2) high (2.3) ( ) (4.3) but he hhhhh (.) have experience. (7) hhh He order (.) us to get up early (0.6) and (0.8) pray early. (4.9) He say (1.8) I am working from (0.4) hhh halal money.

Sample (4)

Student (2) - Control Group

Pre-Test

I live in Mahala Eldamanaa. (.) My house is nice and l like it. (.) It is nice house. (2.4) The house is expensive because it is (.) on (1.4) the main road and also (.) it has (2.5) a big space. (5), my grandfather is rich. (1.2) He is the one (0.6) gave the land of the (.) house to my (.) father (2.1) to (2.2) build our houses (.) on (.) it. (4.4) Our house (.) is big and my father (1.9) (prepared) only one (.) flat (.) to live (.) in (1.3) because (.) he (1.7) do not have money for this. (6.3) I will prepare one flat (0.3) for myself (0.8) when I become (.) older to live (0.4) in. (6.7) Not only this, (0.8) the house, (.) the house is beautiful (from) (.) outside. (0.6) We have some trees (0.4) around the house (1.5) and I water them (.) sometimes and also my mother and my father (.) water them. (5.7), My dream house (.) is a big pla, pala, (palace). (4.2) I have chef to cook (.) delicious food (2.5) and woman to clean it (2.4) and driver to drive my car.

Post-Test

I am short and skinny. (.) I, (.) I am like my grandfather and my father. (0.7) They are short and also skinny. (2.6), I am (similar) (.) to them. (2.5), I do not have (2.6) moustache and beard (0.5) on my face. (5.5) I am funny and like jokes. (2.5) My friends love me because I tell jokes (1.9) and (.) make them happy. (4.2) I like computers. (0.8) I spend my time on my tablet (0.7) my father bought (.) to me. (3) My father bought it to me (.) three years (.) ago (0.3) when I succeed, (.) succeeded (.) in the element, (.) ele, elementary school. (6.1), I am (talkative) and have many friends. (4.2), I want to enter the fa, (.) faculty of (.) Tegaraa (commerce) (.) and be a (.) businessman (2.5) or (2.2) go to the fa, (.) faculty of (1.8) computer to study computer. (5.4), I like most about myself, (.) I took ( ). (4.1) My father (1.6) give me freedom (.) to, (.) to choose my friend (0.7) and go out with, (.) with them. (6.1) Also I am social person (2) and my friends come to my house and (.) we (1.4) stay for long time.

Appendix (G): Lessons Plans for the Teaching Materials

Lesson plan No. 1 (detailed lesson plan: presentation-practice-production)
Topic/ theme: talking about jobs and experience

School:		**Lesson focus:**	
Class:		**Date of lesson:**	
Number of student:		**Length of lesson**:	
Topic/ theme:		**Teacher's name:**	

Main aim:
By the end of this lesson, students will be able to express opinion

Exponent (s): - In my opinion,…….. - I would say that ……... - I think that ……... - I do not think (that) …… - As far as I am concerned, ……	**Assumed knowledge:** - Students know the use of present simple, present continuous, past simple, past continuous and future simple.

Target functions: The target functions are used to express opinion.

Structure: Using the target speaking functions + full sentences in present simple, present continuous, past simple, past continuous or future simple.

New Vocabularies:
Believer, collection, custom, disabled, district, establish, law, pioneer, style

Anticipated problems and solutions: Students may have problems with the use of grammar and vocabularies so that the class teacher is going to teach them the target grammar (or refresh their minds of the already learned grammar) and vocabularies at the beginning of the class.	**Aids**: Students' textbook, PPT, white board, marker, computer, projector and worksheets

Stages	**The action taken by teacher**	**What teacher is going to say**	**Significance of the stage**	**Time/ minute**	**Classroom interaction: (T-Ss/ Ss-Ss)**
Warm-up	The teacher greets the students.	Good morning everybody. How are you?	-Teacher activates students' schemata.	5 minutes	T-Ss
	The teacher talks about the job of a friend and his experience with that job.	Last week, I met a friend. He is a hotel manager. We talked about the pros and cons of this job. I think that this job is a good one. In my opinion, it allows for cross-cultural communication.			
	The teacher writes on the board the new words used during his talk and asks the students if they understand and remember their meanings.	Look at these words and expressions on the board. Does anyone know their meanings?			
	The teacher explains the meaning of the words used in his talk.	As you may remember their meanings; a hotel manager is a person responsible for the day-to-day management of a hotel and its stuff. The expression "pros and cons" refers to the advantages and disadvantages of the job.			

		The expression “cross-cultural communication” involves understanding how people from different countries and cultures communicate			
	The teacher tells the students the aim of the lesson.	Today's lesson is about jobs and experiences. At the end of this lesson you will be able to express opinion towards the advantages and disadvantages of different jobs using the speaking functions that you will learn during today's lesson.			
Presentation	The teacher asks the students to open their textbook, page (3), and asks them to read the passage on the page.	Pay attention please, I need all of you to open your textbook, page (3), and read the reading passage about Yehia Haqqi. You read it quietly and quickly.	- Students read for gist. - Teacher raises students’ awareness of how the target words are used in context. - Teacher raises students’ awareness of the written form of the target language. - Teacher is able to provide feedback. - Teacher provides students with opportunities to properly pronounce the target language.	15 minutes	T-Ss
	The teacher shows a PPT with the target words and their corresponding meanings (taken from students’ textbook, page 3).	Now please “Adel”, can you read the first word and its meaning loudly, so that the other students can hear you? Thank you Adel.			
	The teacher assigns the students to answer the questions on the same page.	Now “Saeed” can you please answer the question “b” from the first set of questions, on the page. Excellent Saeed. Now comes the turn on “Alaa” to answer the question “c”.			
	On another slide, the teacher	Ok, great. “Akram” can you			

	shows examples of how to express opinion using the speaking functions in the students' textbook, page (5).	please read this first example that expresses opinion in a loud voice. I need all of you to focus on the words used to express opinion.			
	The teacher shows the same PPT again and reads the new words, expressions and speaking functions with their corresponding meanings and he asks for any doubts.	Now, I am going to read them all again, so if you have any questions related to their meanings or pronunciation, please let me know.			
Practice	The teacher gives out a worksheet.	Now, I want you to work in small groups of four students and match the already learned words and expressions with their meanings. Do you understand me? You have 4 minutes to finish the activity.	- Teacher provides students with opportunities to apply the target language. - Teacher is able to provide feedback. - Teacher provides students with opportunities to apply the target language to sentence level constructions.	15 minutes	T-Ss
	The teacher asks questions to check the students' answer.	Let's check your answer. "Omar", can you please share with us your first answer? Do you all agree with "Omar"? That is good. Now "Ali", can you please share			

		with us your second answer? What do you think? Is “Ali” right? Please “Ali”, check you answer again.		
	The teacher gives out a second worksheet	Ok, using the same appointed groups, you will work on this second task. What you will do is that you will fill in the blanks with the necessary words and expressions so that the given story makes sense, then you extract the speaking functions that express opinion from the story. Do you understand me? You have only 5 minutes to finish the activity.		
	The teacher asks questions to check the students’ answer.	Now, I am going to check with you the answers. I am going to read the text loudly and the assigned student will give me the answer. Is it ok?		
	The teacher gives out a third worksheet.	Now, I want you to conduct the following simple substitution drill on the target speaking functions. This exercise is conducted the following way: first, you will be in the same groups of four students. Second,		

		the students in the same group will ask each other to repeat the sentences given to them using the four speaking functions learned during the class. Third, the speaking function that you are required to change in your speaking will be underlined. Fourth, the students will be asked by the teacher to say the new structure loudly. Do you understand me? You have only 4 minutes to finish this activity.			
	The teacher assigns the students to practice the target speaking functions.	"Refaat" can you please say the new structure a loud. Good job, students. Now, I think all of you have learned the target words, expressions and speaking functions. I am proud of you all.			
Production	The teacher splits the students into groups of four students to freely practice the target language	Now, in groups of four you will discuss the second and third sets of questions in your textbook, page (5). The most important thing is that you have to include all learned words, expressions and speaking functions in your discussion. Do you understand me? If you have any doubt please ask me. You have 10 minutes to	- Teacher provides students with opportunities to apply the target language in an authentic context. - Teacher provides students with opportunities to personalize the target language. - Teacher provides	15 minutes	Ss-Ss

		complete the task.	students with opportunities to develop their speaking.		

Post lesson comments:

How did the lesson come out in relation to what you have planned in terms of aim, time, anticipated problems, classroom activities and students' motivation?

……
……
……
……
……

Worksheets and classroom activities:

Activity 1: Match the words and expressions with the corresponding meanings.

1	Pioneer	A	Having a physical or mental problems
2	A collection of	B	A traditional way of behaving or doing something that is specific to a particular society
3	District	C	Developer or inventor of new ideas, techniques or areas
4	Disabled people	D	A lot of, a group of or a set of
5	New styles of	E	Confirm somebody as
6	Establish somebody as	F	Area of a town
7	Believer	G	Different ways or techniques of
8	Custom	H	All rules recognized by a country to regulate the actions of its members, or the name of a faculty in which students study these rules.
9	Law	I	Accepting something as true

Activity 2: Read the story "Ibrahim: a great writer", and fill in the blanks using the appropriate words and phrases below. After doing this, you are required to extract the speaking functions that express opinion from the story.

(law - pioneer – a collection of – made into - district - believer – disabled people – a new style of - established him as - customs — diplomat – lawyer - abroad)

Ibrahim died when he was sixty five years old. In the prime of his age, he was trying to understand the world around him. He asked questions about everything, all the time. Asking questions was his first source of knowledge, but because he was so interested in knowing the surrounding world, he thought that asking is not enough to know more and better about the world. He started his academic journey by studying _____. By choosing this particular stream, he was hoping to help poor people to get their rights in front of legal courts in his country. As far as he was concerned, this job would provide the necessary direct contact with people from different social classes. On becoming a _____ he decided not to take attorney's fees from _____ who are unable to work or from those with financial predicaments. After some time, he found that this job did not fulfill his aspirations and ambitions. In his opinion, to better discover the world, you have to travel _____ and get in physical contact with people from different countries in order to know about their habits and _____. He became so concerned with sociology and political science and then he started reading related books and journals on the hope that we would be a _____ one day. He moved from the country side where he was living to a more civilized _____ in the capital city of Egypt. Unfortunately, his dream did not come true but on the upside, he did not quit his reading habit but rather he went deep into reading and reading about social life. He was a strong _____ of the positive impact of this tool on understanding social life, social change, and the social causes and consequences of human behavior. Having amble knowledge in the field of sociology, he decided to transfer his knowledge to others through writing. He adopted_____ writing by analyzing and comparing the living conditions of individuals as well as their living standards until he became a _____ in the field. He wrote _____ of real stories about poor people and how their life changed to better which were later _____films and theater works. Finally, through these works and others, I would say that Ibrahim _____one of the greatest writers in the area.

Activity 3: Read the following sentence then substitute the underlined speaking function with the following three functions:

(in my opinion – I would say that – as far as I am concerned)

<u>I think that</u> English is an easy language to learn as evidenced by the number of people who speak it.

The students' textbook, pp. (3 & 5)

Reading

1 FOCUS ON VOCABULARY

Check the meanings of these words in your dictionary.

believer **collection** **custom**
disabled **district** **establish**
law **pioneer** **style**

2 Read this article about Yehia Haqqi quickly and answer the questions.

a What subject did Haqqi study at university?
He studied law.

b Which countries did Haqqi work in as a diplomat? .....

c Who did he want to help? .....

d For which collection of stories did Haqqi win an important prize? .....

3 Read the article again and choose the correct answers.

a What did Yehia Haqqi write?
A plays B poetry
C fiction D political reports

b What was Yehia Haqqi's main job?
A a lawyer B a diplomat
C a politician D a writer

c When did he start to write?
A While he was working.
B After he had retired.
C Before he started work.
D While he was a student.

d Why is Yehia Haqqi's writing still important today?
A He created a new style of writing.
B It was translated into many languages.
C He translated European literature into Arabic.
D He was an excellent diplomat.

4 Discuss this question in pairs.

How do you think Haqqi's training as a diplomat affected how he wrote?

Yehia Haqqi (1905–1992)

Yehia Haqqi was one of the **pioneers** of modern Egyptian literature. As well as being an important writer, he was an expert on Arab culture.

Yehia Haqqi was born in 1905 in the Sayyida Zeinab **district** of Cairo. He graduated in **law** and worked for a short time as a lawyer. In 1929, he began his career as a diplomat and he worked abroad for more than 20 years. The time he had spent in France, Italy, Turkey and Libya gave him experiences he later used in his writing.

At the same time as he was working, Haqqi was also writing stories. His first short story, published in 1925, **established** him as one of the greatest short story writers of the Arab world.

Haqqi always wanted to help poor and **disabled** people. In 1955, he wrote a **collection** of short stories about the poor and the disabled which won an important prize. One of his novels, *The Postman*, was made into a film. In 1992, he had to go to hospital after an earthquake in Cairo, but gave his bed to a poor person who he thought needed it more.

Haqqi wrote in a new way about Arab society and **customs** in the twentieth century. Haqqi was also interested in the Arabic language and he developed a new **style** of writing which is respected today.

As well as writing his own novels and stories, Haqqi also translated Russian, French, Italian and Turkish literature into Arabic. He was a very strong **believer** in the power of books and he supported many young Egyptian writers.

Haqqi died in 1992, but is still thought of as the father of the modern short story and the novel in Egypt.

Communication skills Expressing opinions

1 **In pairs, can you match the writers below with the jobs they also did during their lives? Listen and check your answers.**

a Yehia Haggi	1 [ ] journalist
b Jonathan Swift	2 [ ] lawyer
c Daniel Keyes	3 [ ] sailor
d William Golding	4 [ ] politician
e Herman Melville	5 [ ] doctor
f Rider Haggard	6 [a] diplomat
g Arthur Conan Doyle	7 [ ] editor
h Charles Dickens	8 [ ] teacher

2 **Discuss these questions in pairs. Use expressions from *Focus on functions*.**

a How do you think that a person's job could help them write a story?

b Do you think that some of these jobs would help a writer more than others? Why / Why not?

c What other experiences in people's lives might help them to write a good story?

FOCUS ON FUNCTIONS

Expressing opinions

- I think / don't think that ...
- In my opinion, ...
- I'd say that ...
- As far as I'm concerned, ...

3 **Discuss the following in pairs.**

a Do you think that people should only ever do one job? Or is it useful to do more than one job in your career?

b Can you think of other jobs that would help someone be the following? Say why.

- a teacher
- a politician
- a policeman / policewoman
- coach of a sports team
- a hotel manager

4 **Research the following about a writer**

RESEARCH

Find out about one of the writers in Exercise 1 (or another famous writer). Find out:

- how long they did their first job or jobs
- how these jobs helped them

WORKBOOK PAGE 4

Lesson plan No. 1 (task-based instruction)
Topic/ theme: Talking about jobs and experiences

School:		**Lesson focus:**	
Class:		**Date of lesson:**	
Number of student:		**Length of lesson**:	
Topic/ theme:		**Teacher's name:**	

Main aim:

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to express opinion.

Exponent (s):

- In my opinion, ……
- I would say that ……...
- I think that …
- I do not think (that) …
- As far as I am concerned …...

Assumed knowledge:

- Students know the use of present simple, present continuous, past simple, past continuous and future simple.

Target function:

This speaking function is used to express opinion.

Structure:

Using the target speaking functions + full sentence in present simple, present continuous, past simple, past continuous or future simple.

Anticipated problems and solutions:

Students may have problems remembering some of related vocabularies so that the class teacher is going to refresh students' mind of them before assigning tasks to students.

Aids:
Students' textbook, projector, computer, PPT and pictures.

Stages	Procedure	Significance of the stage	Time/ minute	Classroom interaction:

					(T-Ss/ Ss-Ss)
Pre-task		**Introduce the topic and the task**: The teacher projects some pictures related to different jobs and professions and asks the students to provide more examples of them. After that, the teacher assigns the students into groups of four students and shows a set of other pictures about different professions, and the students have to discuss these professions within groups and give their opinion about each profession using the target functions from "Focus on Function" exercise in students' textbook, page (5). Then, each student will describe a picture in front of the class, giving opinions if the profession in the picture suits him or not.	- Teacher explains the significance of the lesson. - Teacher refreshes students' mind of the language they might need to carry out the task. - Teacher sets the stage for the task. - Students are exposed to the target language to notice the gap in their language.	10 minutes	T-Ss
Task cycle	Task	Each group describes the pictures on the board and gives reasons if these professions are good or bad for them. In this stage, the students use their experience and the language knowledge they have when they discuss the task within groups. The students should include the target functions in their opinion.	- Motivation. - Focus on the use of language. - Focus on language form. - Exposure to the target language.	30 minutes	Ss-Ss
	Planning to report	All students in a group should practice how they are going to present the task. During this stage, the teacher can help with some necessary vocabularies and phrases that the students may need to perfectly complete the assigned task, and he verifies that all students complete the assigned task on time.			

	Reporting	One member from each group is assigned to describe a picture and gives his opinion about the profession in front of the class. At the same time, the rest of students listen and write if they agree or disagree with the presenter. At the end of each presentation, the teacher asks the students if they agree with the presenter or not.			
Language focus		During the final stage, the teacher checks some points related to grammar or vocabulary in which students had problems with.	Teacher provides explicit instruction on the target language	10 minutes	T-Ss

Post lesson comments:

How did the lesson come out in relation to what you have planned in terms of aim, time, anticipated problems, classroom tasks and students' motivation?

……
……
……
……

Pre-task activity:

- **Please answer the question: What are the professions in the following pictures?**
- **Please give more examples of different professions.**







The main task:

- **In groups of four, I want you to discuss the following four pictures about different professions and give your opinion if they are suitable for you after graduation or not.**
- **Please use the speaking functions in the box below to give opinion.**
- **You have 15 minutes to work on the task and to be ready to present it in front of the class.**
- **I will assign you individually to describe a profession from the pictures below and give your opinion it using the expressions and speaking functions in the box below.**

Key expressions and speaking functions:

- In my opinion, ……
- I would say that ……...
- I think that …
- I do not think (that) …
- As far as I am concerned ……..

The students' textbook, p. (5)

UNIT 1

Communication skills Expressing opinions

1 In pairs, can you match the writers below with the jobs they also did during their lives? Listen and check your answers.

a Yehia Haqqi	1 ☐ journalist
b Jonathan Swift	2 ☐ lawyer
c Daniel Keyes	3 ☐ sailor
d William Golding	4 ☐ politician
e Herman Melville	5 ☐ doctor
f Rider Haggard	6 ☐ diplomat
g Arthur Conan Doyle	7 ☐ editor
h Charles Dickens	8 ☐ teacher

2 Discuss these questions in pairs. Use expressions from *Focus on functions*.

a How do you think that a person's job could help them write a story?

b Do you think that some of these jobs would help a writer more than others? Why / Why not?

c What other experiences in people's lives might help them to write a good story?

FOCUS ON FUNCTIONS

Expressing opinions

- I think / don't think that ...
- In my opinion, ...
- I'd say that ...
- As far as I'm concerned, ...

3 Discuss the following in pairs.

a Do you think that people should only ever do one job? Or is it useful to do more than one job in your career?

b Can you think of other jobs that would help someone be the following? Say why.

- a teacher
- a politician
- a policeman / policewoman
- coach of a sports team
- a hotel manager

4 Research the following about a writer

RESEARCH

Find out about one of the writers in Exercise 1 (or another famous writer). Find out:

- how long they did their first job or jobs
- how these jobs helped them

WORKBOOK PAGE 4

5

<u>Lesson plan No. 2 (detailed lesson plan: task-based instruction)</u>

Topic/ theme: Discussing a questionnaire about technology and the advantages and disadvantages of modern technology.

<table>
<tr><td>School:</td><td></td><td>Lesson focus:</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>Class:</td><td></td><td>Date of lesson:</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>Number of student:</td><td></td><td>Length of lesson:</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>Topic/ theme</td><td></td><td>Teacher’s name:</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Main aim:
By the end of this lesson,
- Students will be able to express agreeing and disagreeing with an opinion.
- Students will be able to talk about advantages and disadvantages.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Exponent (s):
Agreeing with an opinion:
- I (completely) agree.
- I could not agree more.
- (Yes), you are quite right.
- I’d go along with that.
- That’s true.
Disagreeing with an opinion:
- I (completely) disagree.
- I don’t agree.
- I’m not (so) sure.
- That’s (just) not true.
Talking about the pros and cons:
- One negative/ positive side is that…….
- What are the pros and cons?
- A positive/ negative side to that is……..
- What is the advantage/ disadvantage of that?
- Another advantage/ downside is that……
- What is the benefit/ downside of that?</td><td>Assumed knowledge:
- The use of present simple, present continuous, past simple, past continuous and simple future.
- The use of related vocabulary.
- The use of related expressions.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Target function: The target speaking function is used to express agreeing and disagreeing with an opinion.</td></tr>
</table>

Structure:

- Using the speaking functions in students' textbook, page (45), as an independent clause (complete sentence) to express agreeing or disagreeing with an opinion.
- Using the speaking functions in students' textbook, page (50), to give reasons by talking about the pros and cons.

Anticipated problems and solutions:
Students may have problems remembering some of related vocabularies so that the class teacher is going to refresh students' minds of them before assigning tasks to students.

Aids:
Students' textbook, PPT, white board, marker, computer, projector, downloaded video.

Stages	The action taken by teacher	What teacher is going to say	Significance of the stage	Skill	Time/ minute	Classroom interaction: (T-Ss/ Ss-Ss)
	Teacher introduces the topic.	Today's lesson is about the use of technology in our daily life and its positive and negative impact on individuals. You will always find opposing views towards its impact. Today, you will learn how to express agreeing or disagreeing with an opinion and to give reasons for your agreement/ disagreement using pros and cons. So, the question now for you, any one of you can tell me what language we can use to express agreeing and disagreeing? Today's lesson is going to teach you how to use these functions in your talk.	- Teacher explains the significance of the lesson. - Teacher refreshes students' mind of the language they might need to carry out the task. - Teacher sets the stage for the task. - Students are exposed to the target language.	Speaking	10 minutes	T-Ss
	Teacher gives out a worksheet.	In groups of four students, you will conduct the following activity. Each				

Pre-task		group will be handed a set of expressions for agreeing and disagreeing and for advantages and disadvantages. These expressions are cut individually. You are required to classify all these expressions into two categories: positive and negative expressions, then you compare with the other groups. If you have any doubt regarding an expression, you discuss it with the other students in your group. Do you understand me? You have 4 minutes to complete this activity.				
	Teacher introduces the task.	Now, after being aware of the expressions that you may use to express agreeing or disagreeing with an opinion and to give reasons by taking about the advantages and disadvantages, it is the time to give you the task that you are required to complete. This task is a debate of the pros and cons of the use of modern technology. You will be divided into groups of eight students to talk about an element from the questionnaire in the students' textbook, page (45). The other elements in the				

		questionnaire as well as the topics in the exercise 4 in the students' textbook, page (50), will be discussed in the following lessons. Each group is divided into two sub-groups with one sub-group in favor of the use of modern technology and the other one against it. A member of each sub-group will be chosen to present by rolling a die. You will be allowed to present with a paper of the main points that support your argument/ counter argument. The time allocated to work on the task is 15 minutes. The most important thing is that you have to include the functions you learned today in your debate.				
	Teacher shows a video downloaded from YouTube	The video that you are going to watch now will help you understand the structure of the debate. Remember that only one person from each sub-group will be chosen and then the time of presenting the debate will be much less than in the video (5-10 minutes for each group).				
	Teacher shows a PPT with a reading passage.	Now, read this debate carefully as it will help you understand what content you should include in your speech.				
	Teacher makes sure	Now, do you understand the task? Is				

		that students understand the task.	there any question about the task or its structure?				
Task cycle	Task	Teacher assigns students to their groups and sub-groups	Ok guys, the class here has three columns, I need each column to be one group, so we have here three groups. The first four students in a column will be with the use of modern technology while the remaining students in the same column will be against it.	- Motivation. - Focus on the use of language. - Focus on language form. - Exposure to the target language.	Speaking	30 minutes	Ss-Ss
		Teacher distributes each group's and sub-group's task.	Please, open your textbook on the page number (45). Look at the questionnaire in yellow. Ok, I want from the first group to my right side to take sentence "A" as the main point of its debate. The group in the middle of the class will take sentence "B" and the third group will take sentence "C". We will cover the remaining questionnaire in the coming classes.				
		Teacher reminds students of the task instruction	I need you to use whatever language you know to report on the task. You have to use the functions you have learned today during your debate. Do not forget to support your claims with examples. You have 10 minute to discuss the task, 5 minutes to write your main points of argument, and another 15 minutes will be deducted from the				

			class time for the debate.				
		Teacher monitors and observes the class	Now, you start discussing your task with your groups. If you are stuck, please let me know.				
		Teacher acts as a time keeper	You are doing well on the task, but hurry up, you still have only 5 minutes to the end of this discussion.				
	Planning to report	Teacher acts as an advisor	Now, I need all of you to write the main point you discussed on a paper. I need these points readable as they will be the main source of information during your argument. If you have any problems, please let me know. You have only 4 minutes to prepare you work for debate.				
		Teacher acts as a time keeper	Come on guys, you have only 2 minutes to finish this.				
	Reporting	Teacher assigns students to report on the task	From the first group, I want “Saad” from the sub-group in favor and “Hadi” from the sub-group against to come up here on the board.				
		Teacher works as a chair and time keeper	Now, “Saad” can you please present your argument. You have two minutes to do this. “Hadi” be ready to present your argument. “Saad”, after “Hadi” finishes, you will be given 2 minutes to provide a counter-argument and the same for “Hadi”.				
		Teacher writes some	I will listen carefully to your debate				

		comments to be used during the third stage	and write some comments about your debate, and I will provide these comments for you later after the debate is done.				
		Teacher values students' work	Well done. Great work, guys. You have already covered the main controversial points about the task. Also, your language was clear and understandable.				
		Teacher seeks class interaction	Now, any one from the other two groups has any comments or questions about the presented information.				
Language focus		Teacher comments on students' speech using the board	After we finished the debate, and as I told you earlier. This is the time to provide you with some comments on your task. I will start with the first group. "Saad" mentioned in his debate …….., so do you think that this sentence is grammatically correct, and why? I will give you another sentence and you should identify where the error is. That is correct. Thanks you.	Teacher provides explicit instruction on the target language.	Speaking	10 minutes	T-Ss
		Teacher enhances students' internalization of the new linguistic features.	Now, I have another sentence and I want you to tell me where the error is, and why the sentence is not correct.				

Post lesson comments:
How did the lesson come out in relation to what you have planned in terms of aim, time, anticipated problems, classroom pre-task and main task and students' motivation?
……
……
……
……
……
……

Pre-task activity 1:

- **Please classify the following expressions into two categories then compare with other groups.**
- **The first category will be for the positive expressions and the second category will be for the negative expressions.**
- **You have 4 minutes to finish this activity.**

<u>Expressions about agreeing and disagreeing with an opinion:</u>
I'm not (so) sure - I could not agree more - I completely agree - That's (just) not true - (yes), you are quite right - I'd go along with that - I don't agree - That's true - I completely disagree.

<u>Expressions about the advantages and disadvantages:</u>

What are the pros?	A negative side to that is…..	One positive side is that…..
What is the advantage of that?	What is the benefit of that?	One negative side is that……
What are the cons?	Another downside is that……	Another advantage is that……
A positive side to that is ……	What is the disadvantage of that?	What is the downside of that?

Positive expressions	Negative expressions

Pre-task activity 2:
Please pay attention to the following video in order to know the structure of a good debate
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=juuiZPQ1ZWk

Pre-task activity 3:

Please read the following debate carefully to be familiar with the content of a good debate

Is Modern Technology Good or Bad?

Just as someone said "the life was simpler when Apple and Blackberry were just fruits". Is it true that the modern technology has a lot of good with just a shadow of bad or other way around? Does the fast advancement of technology make life lot easier or more complicated?

Debate about the impact of cell phones on people

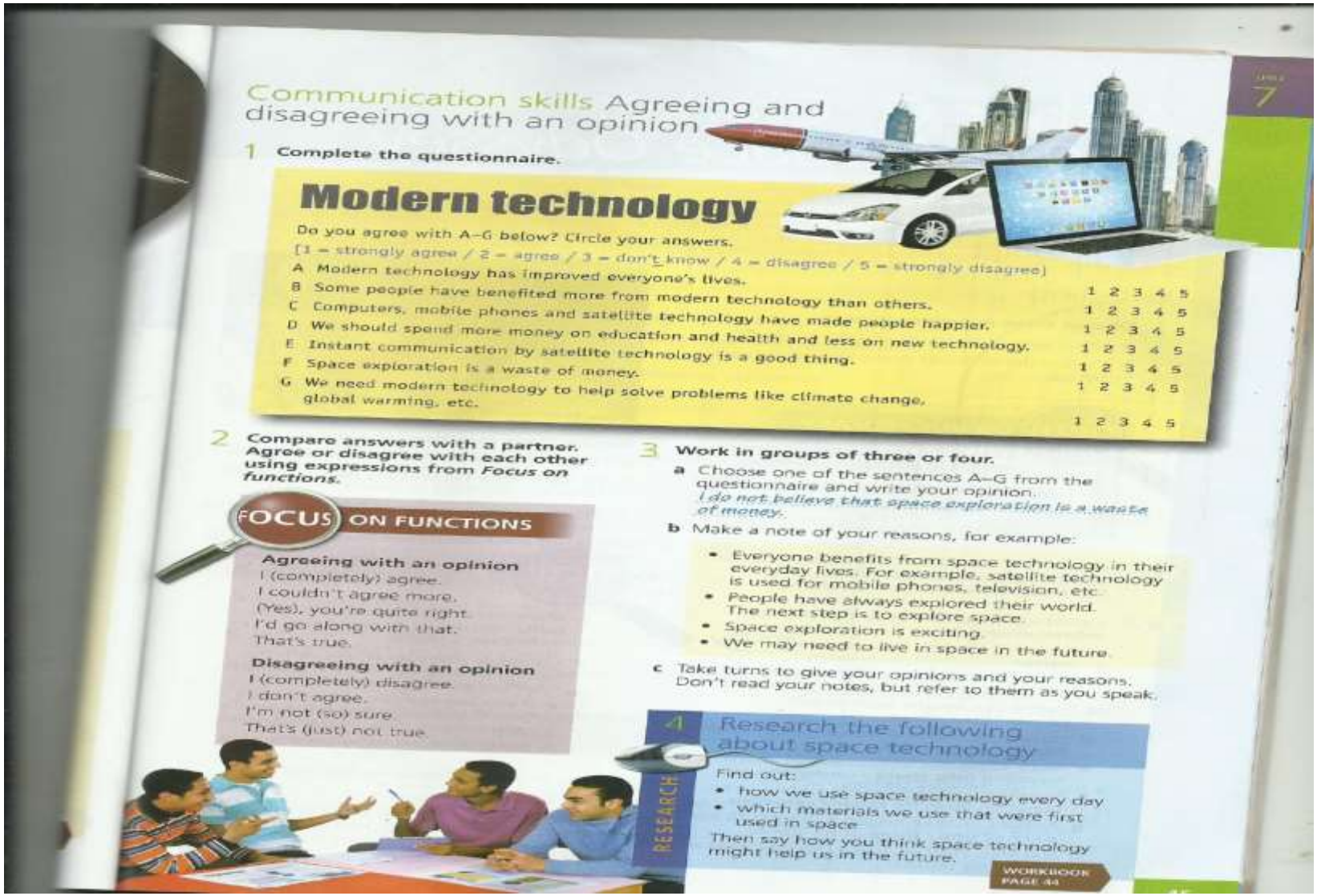
Positive impact because…

- Cell phone is the most important thing in our life. We use it to know where people are when something happens.
- We communicate with people.
- Nowadays, there are GPS devices on our kinds' phones which can track them down.
- Also, people use it as a daily need.
- People get more brain damage from listening to people who claim that cell phones create brain damage than they ever would from a cell phone. People are spending more and more time on them because they are good tools that aid and ease our society.
- We have music, movies, games, GPS, communication and internet at our fingertips wherever we are. This is beyond incredible.

Negative impact because…

- Even though cell phones are great, they can also cause hearing problems and brain damage. Because phones are becoming so great, more people are getting them and people are spending more time on them.
- Scientifically, cell phones kill honeybees, and these days honey is used in drug manufacturing to treat patients who would someday die if people keep using them continuously.

The students' textbook, pp. (45 & 50).



Communication skills Agreeing and disagreeing with an opinion

1 **Complete the questionnaire.**

Modern technology

Do you agree with A–G below? Circle your answers.
(1 = strongly agree / 2 = agree / 3 = don't know / 4 = disagree / 5 = strongly disagree)

A Modern technology has improved everyone's lives. 1 2 3 4 5
B Some people have benefited more from modern technology than others. 1 2 3 4 5
C Computers, mobile phones and satellite technology have made people happier. 1 2 3 4 5
D We should spend more money on education and health and less on new technology. 1 2 3 4 5
E Instant communication by satellite technology is a good thing. 1 2 3 4 5
F Space exploration is a waste of money. 1 2 3 4 5
G We need modern technology to help solve problems like climate change, global warming, etc. 1 2 3 4 5

2 **Compare answers with a partner. Agree or disagree with each other using expressions from *Focus on functions*.**

FOCUS ON FUNCTIONS

Agreeing with an opinion
I (completely) agree.
I couldn't agree more.
(Yes), you're quite right.
I'd go along with that.
That's true.

Disagreeing with an opinion
I (completely) disagree.
I don't agree.
I'm not (so) sure.
That's (just) not true.

3 **Work in groups of three or four.**

a Choose one of the sentences A–G from the questionnaire and write your opinion.
I do not believe that space exploration is a waste of money.

b Make a note of your reasons, for example:

- Everyone benefits from space technology in their everyday lives. For example, satellite technology is used for mobile phones, television, etc.
- People have always explored their world. The next step is to explore space.
- Space exploration is exciting.
- We may need to live in space in the future.

c Take turns to give your opinions and your reasons. Don't read your notes, but refer to them as you speak.

4 **Research the following about space technology**

RESEARCH

Find out:

- how we use space technology every day
- which materials we use that were first used in space

Then say how you think space technology might help us in the future.

WORKBOOK PAGE 44

UNIT 8

Communication skills
Talking about advantages and disadvantages

1 **Read this definition of artificial intelligence (AI) and answer the questions.**

> **artificial intelligence** *(n)* the science of how to make computers do things that usually need human intelligence

a Which of the following are examples of artificial intelligence?
- computers translating languages
- computers answering questions
- cars without drivers
- email warnings from a bank

b Do you think that artificial intelligence is a good thing or bad thing? Why?

2 **Listen to a conversation about artificial intelligence and answer the questions.**

a Do Hala and Randa have the same ideas as you had in Exercise 1?

b What happened to the computer that learned to play chess?

3 **Listen again and put the expressions below in the order that you hear them.**

FOCUS ON FUNCTIONS

Talking about advantages and disadvantages

a [ ] One negative / positive side is that ...
b [1] What are the pros and cons?
c [ ] A positive / negative side to that is ...
d [ ] What is the advantage / disadvantage of that?
e [ ] Another advantage / downside is that ...
f [ ] What is the benefit / downside of that?

4 **Work in pairs. Talk ab the advantages and disadvantages of the following, using expr from *Focus on functio***

a social media
b the internet
c space travel
d tourism
e ebook readers
f electric cars

5 **Compare your answer other pairs.**

6 RESEARCH

Research the history of space travel

- Find out about two of the follo
  The first man on the moon
  The Space Shuttle
  The Mir Space Station
- Give a talk to the class, telling what you have found.

WORK PAGE

50

Lesson plan No. 2 (presentation-practice-production)

Topic/ theme: Discussing a questionnaire about technology and the advantages and disadvantages of modern technology.

School:		**Lesson focus:**	
Class:		**Date of lesson:**	
Number of student:		**Length of lesson**:	
Topic/ theme:		**Teacher's name:**	

Main aim:

By the end of this lesson,

- Students will be able to express agreeing and disagreeing with an opinion.
- Students will be able to talk about advantages and disadvantages.

Exponent (s):

Agreeing with an opinion:

- I (completely) agree.
- I could not agree more.
- (Yes), you are quite right.
- I'd go along with that.
- That's true.

Disagreeing with an opinion:

- I (completely) disagree.
- I don't agree.
- I'm not (so) sure.
- That's (just) not true.

Talking about the pros and cons:

- One negative/ positive side is that…….
- What are the pros and cons?
- A positive/ negative side to that is……..
- What is the advantage/ disadvantage of that?
- Another advantage/ downside is that……
- What is the benefit/ downside of that?

Assumed knowledge:

- The use of present simple, present continuous, past simple, past continuous and simple future.
- The use of related vocabulary.
- The use of related expressions.

Target function: The target speaking function is used to express agreeing and disagreeing with an opinion.
Structure:

- Using the speaking functions in students' textbook, page (45), as an independent clause (complete sentence) to express agreeing or disagreeing with an opinion.
- Using the speaking functions in students' textbook, page (50), to give reasons by talking about the pros and cons.
- Using passive forms: present, past, future, present perfect and infinitive.

New vocabularies: hopeful, spin (v), giant, horrified, threaten, interrupt, zero-gravity, anniversary, horrible, representative, side effect, distance.

Anticipated problems and solutions:	**Aids**:
Students may have problems with the use of the target grammar and vocabularies so that the class teacher starts the class by teaching the students the target grammar and vocabularies.	Students' textbook, PPT, white board, marker, computer, projector.

Stages	**Procedure**	**Significance of the stage**	**Time/ minute**	**Classroom interaction: (T-Ss/ Ss-Ss)**
Presentation	- The teacher presents the grammar rules on the pages (42 & 47) in the students' textbook through description supplemented with examples. - The teacher assigns a student to read the passages on the pages (43 & 48) loudly. - The teacher writes the target words on the board as the nominated student goes through them. After the student finishes his reading of the passage, the teacher asks the students to guess the meanings of the target words based on the context in which they occur and then he explains their meanings in the target language.	- Students read for gist. - Teacher raises students' awareness of how the target words are used in context. - Teacher raises students' awareness of the written form of the target language. - Teacher is able to provide feedback. - Teacher provides students with opportunities to properly	20	T-Ss

	- The teacher has the students listen to the pronunciation of the new words and asks them to repeat after him - Using a PPT, the teacher shows examples on how to agree/ disagree with an opinion and how to talk about advantages and disadvantages.	pronounce the target language.		
Practice	- The students practice saying the instructed grammar correctly. - The activities may include drills, multiple-choice exercises, gap-and-cue exercises and / or transformations (these activities except the drill activities are taken from the students' textbook on the pages 42 and 47). - The teacher directs the activities, provides positive feedback to the students, corrects mistakes and models the correct forms. - Using a PPT prepared by the teacher, the students are asked to work in small groups to match the newly learned words with their corresponding meanings. - The teacher assigns some students to practice the target speaking functions (saying them loudly).	-Teacher provides students with opportunities to apply the target language. - Teacher is able to provide feedback. - Teacher provides students with opportunities to apply the target language to sentence level constructions.	15	T-Ss
Production	- The students are asked to use the newly learned grammar, words and speaking functions in their oral production of the target language. - Typical examples of the activities include those asking the students to discuss the seven points in the	-Teacher provides students with opportunities to apply the target language in an authentic context. -Teacher provides	15	Ss-Ss

	questionnaire on the page (45) and the question 4 on the page (50) in the students' textbook. - The teacher assigns the students to work in small groups during the discussion. - The teacher makes sure that the students are fully involved in the discussion and the discussion covers all target grammar, words and speaking functions.	students with opportunities to personalize the target language. -Teacher provides students with opportunities to develop their speaking.		

Post lesson comments:
How did the lesson come out in relation to what you have planned in terms of aim, time, anticipated problems, classroom tasks and students' motivation?
……
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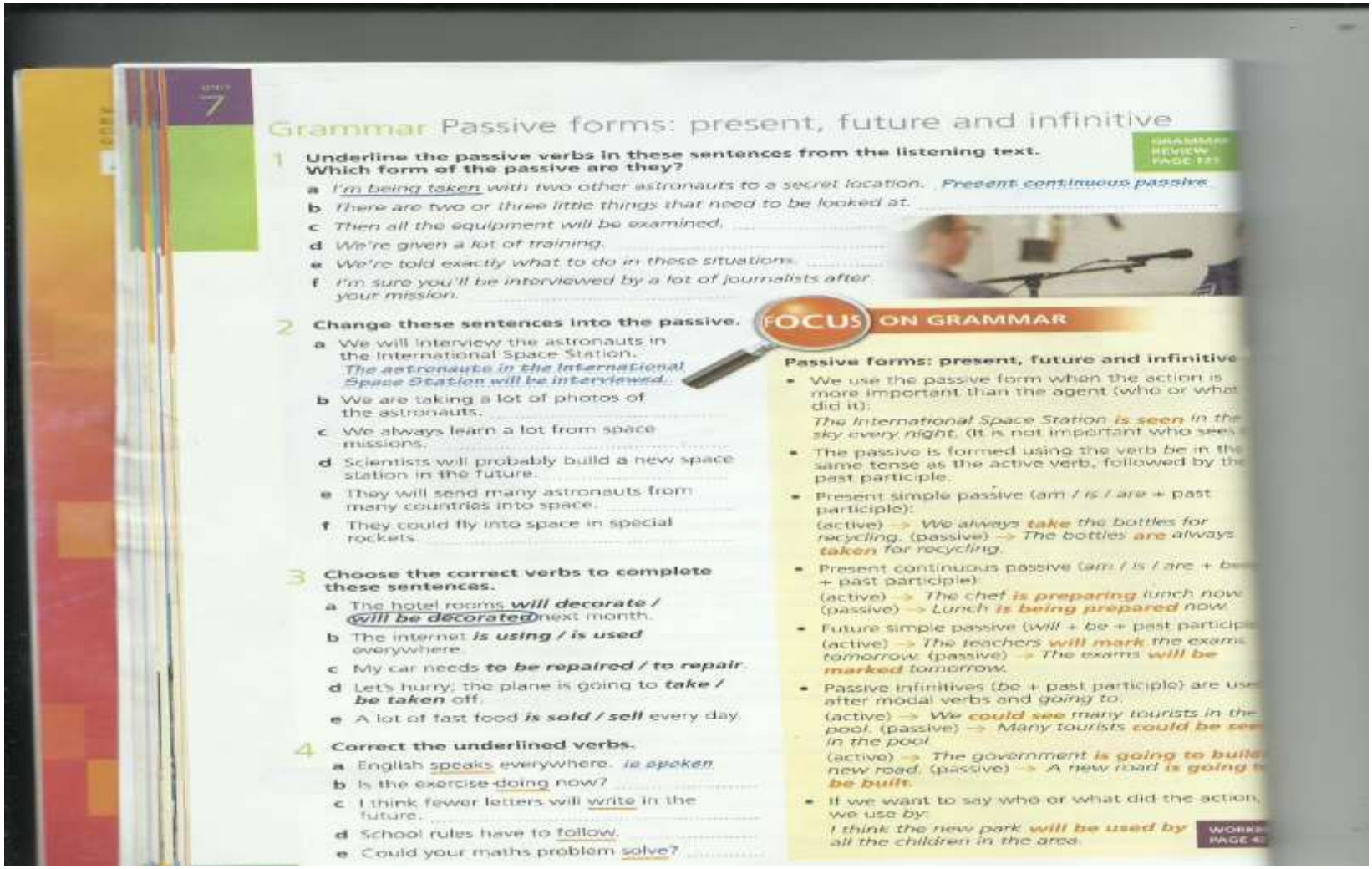
……
……
……
……

The students' textbook, pp. (42, 43, 45, 47, 48 & 50)



UNIT 7

Grammar Passive forms: present, future and infinitive

GRAMMAR REVIEW PAGE 123

1 Underline the passive verbs in these sentences from the listening text. Which form of the passive are they?

a *I'm being taken with two other astronauts to a secret location.* *Present continuous passive*
b *There are two or three little things that need to be looked at.* .....
c *Then all the equipment will be examined.* .....
d *We're given a lot of training.* .....
e *We're told exactly what to do in these situations.* .....
f *I'm sure you'll be interviewed by a lot of journalists after your mission.* .....

2 Change these sentences into the passive.

a We will interview the astronauts in the International Space Station.
The astronauts in the International Space Station will be interviewed.
b We are taking a lot of photos of the astronauts. .....
c We always learn a lot from space missions. .....
d Scientists will probably build a new space station in the future. .....
e They will send many astronauts from many countries into space. .....
f They could fly into space in special rockets. .....

3 Choose the correct verbs to complete these sentences.

a The hotel rooms ***will decorate / will be decorated*** next month.
b The internet ***is using / is used*** everywhere.
c My car needs ***to be repaired / to repair***.
d Let's hurry; the plane is going to ***take / be taken*** off.
e A lot of fast food ***is sold / sell*** every day.

4 Correct the underlined verbs.

a English speaks everywhere. *is spoken*
b Is the exercise doing now? .....
c I think fewer letters will write in the future. .....
d School rules have to follow. .....
e Could your maths problem solve? .....

FOCUS ON GRAMMAR

Passive forms: present, future and infinitive

- We use the passive form when the action is more important than the agent (who or what did it):
  *The International Space Station **is seen** in the sky every night.* (It is not important who sees it.)
- The passive is formed using the verb *be* in the same tense as the active verb, followed by the past participle.
- Present simple passive (*am / is / are* + past participle):
  (active) → *We always **take** the bottles for recycling.* (passive) → *The bottles **are** always **taken** for recycling.*
- Present continuous passive (*am / is / are* + *be* + past participle):
  (active) → *The chef **is preparing** lunch now.*
  (passive) → *Lunch **is being prepared** now.*
- Future simple passive (*will* + *be* + past participle):
  (active) → *The teachers **will mark** the exams tomorrow.* (passive) → *The exams **will be marked** tomorrow.*
- Passive infinitives (*be* + past participle) are used after modal verbs and *going to*.
  (active) → *We **could see** many tourists in the pool.* (passive) → *Many tourists **could be seen** in the pool.*
  (active) → *The government **is going to build** a new road.* (passive) → *A new road **is going to be built**.*
- If we want to say who or what did the action, we use *by*:
  *I think the new park **will be used by** all the children in the area.*

WORKB PAGE 6

Reading

1 **FOCUS ON VOCABULARY**

Check the meanings of these words and phrases in your dictionary.

anniversary distance giant gravity hopeful horrible representative side effect spin *(v)* **tourism**

2 **Read the article quickly to find the answers to these questions.**

a Why is 20 July 2019 an important date?
It is the 50th anniversary of a man first walking on the moon.

b What will happen 320 kilometres above the earth?
.....

c What costs a lot of money at the moment?
.....

3 **Read the article again and complete these sentences.**

a July 1969 was when a man first
walked on the moon.

b Space tourists will be flown to a space station by .....

c Travellers will do weightless sports in
.....

d People do not need to worry about the side effects of space travel because there will be
.....

e People who have already travelled in space describe the feeling of looking down on the earth as .....

f In the future, it is expected that the cost of space holidays .....

4 **Discuss these questions in pairs.**

a What do you think you would like and dislike about a holiday in space?

b Would you enjoy being weightless? Why / Why not?

Space holidays

20 July 2019 is the 50th **anniversary** of a man first walking on the moon. Now a **representative** for the World **Tourism** Organisation predicts that, in the next ten years, people will be taken into space for their holidays. They will be flown in a spaceship to a space station which will orbit the earth at a height of 320 kilometres – that is about the same as the **distance** from Cairo to El-Minya. The space station itself will be like a **giant spinning** wheel that looks like a bike wheel. There will be two special areas: one with **gravity** like earth and one with zero gravity for weightless sports.

Some people who are interested in space holidays are worried that, as space tourists, they will suffer from the same **horrible side effects** as astronauts have suffered from, but experts are **hopeful** that there will be treatments for most side effects.

Just think about such a holiday in space! Everyone who has travelled in space has described the amazing feeling of looking down on the earth as it spins below you. It will be impossible to go shopping or go for a walk, but think of the fun you can have with weightless football or weightless basketball.

For most people, the main disadvantage is the cost of space holidays. At the moment, the cost of a holiday is very high. But, like everything else, the more people want to do something, the cheaper it will become. So, if you are interested, start saving now!

Communication skills Agreeing and disagreeing with an opinion

1 **Complete the questionnaire.**

Modern technology

Do you agree with A–G below? Circle your answers.
(1 = strongly agree / 2 = agree / 3 = don't know / 4 = disagree / 5 = strongly disagree)

A Modern technology has improved everyone's lives. 1 2 3 4 5
B Some people have benefited more from modern technology than others. 1 2 3 4 5
C Computers, mobile phones and satellite technology have made people happier. 1 2 3 4 5
D We should spend more money on education and health and less on new technology. 1 2 3 4 5
E Instant communication by satellite technology is a good thing. 1 2 3 4 5
F Space exploration is a waste of money. 1 2 3 4 5
G We need modern technology to help solve problems like climate change, global warming, etc. 1 2 3 4 5

2 **Compare answers with a partner. Agree or disagree with each other using expressions from *Focus on functions*.**

FOCUS ON FUNCTIONS

Agreeing with an opinion
I (completely) agree.
I couldn't agree more.
(Yes), you're quite right.
I'd go along with that.
That's true.

Disagreeing with an opinion
I (completely) disagree.
I don't agree.
I'm not (so) sure.
That's (just) not true.

3 **Work in groups of three or four.**

a Choose one of the sentences A–G from the questionnaire and write your opinion.
I do not believe that space exploration is a waste of money.

b Make a note of your reasons, for example:

- Everyone benefits from space technology in their everyday lives. For example, satellite technology is used for mobile phones, television, etc.
- People have always explored their world. The next step is to explore space.
- Space exploration is exciting.
- We may need to live in space in the future.

c Take turns to give your opinions and your reasons. Don't read your notes, but refer to them as you speak.

4 **Research the following about space technology**

RESEARCH

Find out:

- how we use space technology every day
- which materials we use that were first used in space

Then say how you think space technology might help us in the future.

WORKBOOK PAGE 44

Grammar Past passive and present perfect passive forms

GRAMMAR REVIEW PAGE 123

1 Underline the passive forms in these sentences from the listening text. What is the tense of the passive verbs?

a *Radar was being used for the first time, to help planes to land.* Past continuous passive

b *Many science articles by Clarke had been published in magazines before the war ended.* .....

c *His science fiction stories were also published in magazines.* .....

d *Scientists and technicians knew that Clarke could be asked about spaceships and satellites.* .....

e *Clarke was asked to work on a film for the famous director Stanley Kubrick.* .....

f *The film has been watched by many millions of people since it was made in 1968.* .....

g *There are now parts of space that have been named after him.* .....

2 Rewrite the sentences in Exercise 1 using active verbs.

a *Scientists were using radar for the first time, to help planes to land.*

3 Find and correct the mistakes in the following sentences.

a By last summer, the new factory had built.
By last summer, the new factory had been built.

b When Father returned home, his dinner was making.
.....

c I had waited at the garage until my car repaired.
.....

d My mobile lost in the sports club yesterday.
.....

4 Answer these questions with the passive form of the verbs and the information in brackets.

a When did they first send a rocket into space? (1944)
The first rocket was sent into space in 1944.

b How many people have they sent to walk on the moon? (12)
.....

c How many times had spaceships flown to the moon before Apollo 11 in 1969? (many)
.....

d When could people first see photographs of the dark side of the moon? (1959)
.....

5 Choose the correct verbs to complete these sentences.

a New bridges ***have been / have*** built in Cairo recently.

b When we arrived at the hotel, our room ***was preparing / was being prepared***.

c The computer ***was checked / was checking*** by the teacher yesterday.

d The house ***had decorated / had been decorated*** before the party.

FOCUS ON GRAMMAR

Past passive forms

- **Past simple passive** (*was / were (not)* + past participle):
  The government ***built*** *a new school in the village last year.* (active)
  A new school ***was built*** *in the village last year.* (passive)
- **Past continuous passive** (*was / were (not)* + *being* + past participle):
  They ***were decorating*** *my house all day yesterday.* (active)
  The house ***was being decorated*** *when my father came home.* (passive)
- **Present perfect passive** (*has / have (not)* + *been* + past participle):
  Actors ***have used*** *the hotel in many famous films.* (active)
  The hotel ***has been used*** *in many famous films.* (passive)
- **Past perfect passive** (*had (not)* + *been* + past participle):
  Mother ***had not made*** *the bread before we went to bed.* (active)
  The bread ***had not been made*** *before we went to bed.* (passive)

WORKBOOK PAGE 46

UNIT 8

Reading

1 **Discuss these questions in pairs.**

a What is happening in the picture?

b Do you think that people will travel to different planets in the future? Why / Why not?

c What problems do you think people would have on long space journeys?

2 **FOCUS ON VOCABULARY**

Check the meanings of these words and phrases in your dictionary.

be about to **emergency**
interrupt **pressure**

3 **Read this summary of part of Arthur C. Clarke's *2001: A Space Odyssey*. What problems did the astronauts have?**

4 **Guess the meanings of these words in bold from the story from their context.**

CHECK IN YOUR DICTIONARY

controls *(n)* **horrified**
threaten **zero-gravity**

5 **Read again and answer the questions.**

a Why were the three astronauts being looked after by Bowman and Poole?
They were sleeping on the long journey to Saturn.

b Who or what was Hal?

c Why did Hal interrupt Poole's video message?

d Why was it easy for Bowman to change the part in space?

e Why did Bowman and Poole decide to contact earth?

f What happened to Poole while he was outside the spaceship?

g How did Bowman make Hal help him to wake the astronauts?

2001: A Space Odysse

Only two men were awake on the spaceship Z
Their names were David Bowman and Frank Poo
job was to look after the spaceship and the th
astronauts, who were sleeping during the long jo
the planet Saturn. Bowman and Poole were helped
an extremely intelligent computer. One morning
was watching a video message that had been sen
by his family on earth. It was **interrupted** by H
said that part AE35 of the spaceship **was about**
Part AE35 was important because it sent messages

Poole went outside the spaceship to replace the
was used to working in **zero-gravity** so he cha
part easily. However, when Bowman checked the
later, he found nothing wrong. That afternoon, H
them that the new part AE35 was also about to
men were not used to hearing that there were p
with the spaceship and they thought that this was
so they contacted earth. They were told that someth
wrong with Hal and that they should turn the c
off. Suddenly, they lost contact with earth. Part AE
not working.

Poole decided to replace the new part AE35, b
he was outside, the spaceship suddenly moved
and hit him. He was killed. Bowman was **horrif**
wondered if Poole was killed by Hal. He decided
up the other astronauts, but to do this, he need
help. At first, Hal refused, but when Bowman **thr**
to cut Hal's wires, the computer finally agreed.

Bowman started to wake up the other as
but suddenly he felt the inside of the spaceship
very cold. The **pressure** inside the spaceship wa
fast and all the air was disappearing. Bowman ra
emergency room so he could breathe some oxy
now understood that the computer that had be
to help him was trying to kill him. He had to fi
controls so that he could turn off the computer.

UNIT 8

Communication skills
Talking about advantages and disadvantages

1 **Read this definition of artificial intelligence (AI) and answer the questions.**

> **artificial intelligence** *(n)* the science of how to make computers do things that usually need human intelligence

a Which of the following are examples of artificial intelligence?
- computers translating languages
- computers answering questions
- cars without drivers
- email warnings from a bank

b Do you think that artificial intelligence is a good thing or bad thing? Why?

2 **Listen to a conversation about artificial intelligence and answer the questions.**

a Do Hala and Randa have the same ideas as you had in Exercise 1?

b What happened to the computer that learned to play chess?

3 **Listen again and put the expressions below in the order that you hear them.**

FOCUS ON FUNCTIONS

Talking about advantages and disadvantages

a [ ] One negative / positive side is that ...
b [1] What are the pros and cons?
c [ ] A positive / negative side to that is ...
d [ ] What is the advantage / disadvantage of that?
e [ ] Another advantage / downside is that ...
f [ ] What is the benefit / downside of that?

4 **Work in pairs. Talk ab the advantages and disadvantages of the following, using expr from *Focus on functio***

a social media
b the internet
c space travel
d tourism
e ebook readers
f electric cars

5 **Compare your answer other pairs.**

6 RESEARCH

Research the history of space travel

- Find out about two of the follo
  The first man on the moon
  The Space Shuttle
  The Mir Space Station
- Give a talk to the class, telling what you have found.

WORK PAGE

Lesson plan No. 3 (task-based instruction)
Topic/ theme: Talking about problems

School:		**Lesson focus:**	
Class:		**Date of lesson:**	
Number of student:		**Length of lesson**:	
Topic/ theme:		**Teacher's name:**	

Main aim:
By the end of this lesson, students will be able to ask for and give advice.

Exponent (s):

Asking for advice:
- What advice can you give me?
- What do you think I should do?
- Can you give me any advice?

Giving advice:
- I think you should……
- Why do not you……..?
- If I were you, I'd…….
- What about -ing……..?
- I think it would be a good idea to…….
- You could……
- The best thing you could do would be to……..
- I advise you to…….

Assumed knowledge:
- The use of present simple, present continuous, past simple, past continuous and simple future.
- The use of related vocabulary.
- The use of related expressions.

Target function: This target speaking function is used to ask for and give advice.
Structure:
Using the above structures to ask for and give advice.

Anticipated problems and solutions:
Students may have problems remembering some of related vocabularies so that the class teacher is going to refresh students' mind of them before assigning tasks to students.

Aids:
Students' textbook, board, marker and notebooks.

Stages	Procedure	Significance of the stage	Time/ minute	Classroom interaction:

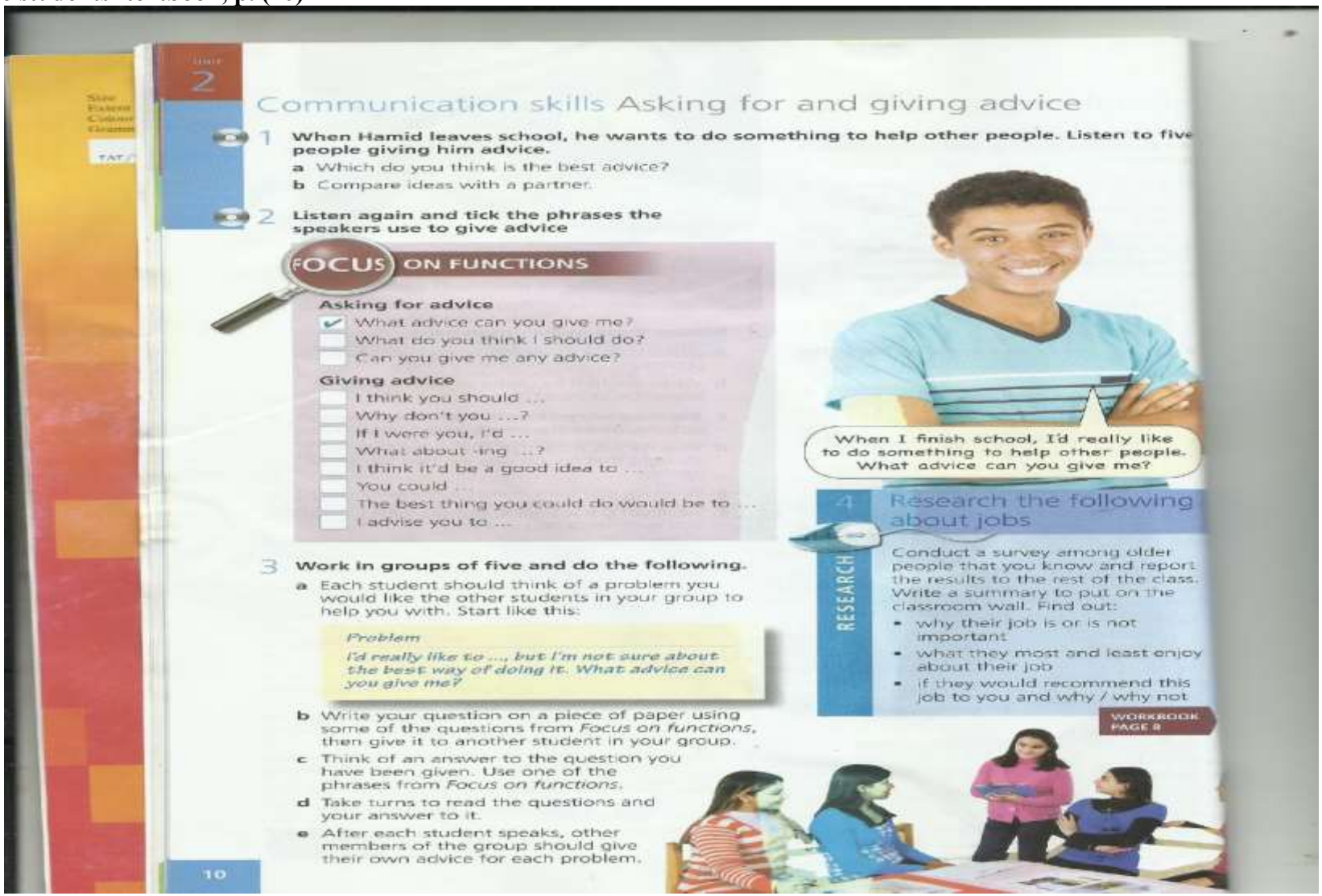
				(T-Ss/ Ss-Ss)
Pre-task	**Introduce the topic and the task:** During this stage, teacher is going to talk about situations in which he faced some problems and writes the words he used on the board (the teacher recounts and shares his experience). He then asks students to mention some of the problems they faced and what advice they received to deal with such problems. Teacher writes these problems on the board so that students have many options for the main task. After this activity, teacher is going to mention the instructions of the task. First, students are going to work in groups of four students and each student in one group should think of a problem he would like the other students in the same group to help him with. Second, each student in the group writes his question on a paper using one of the questions from "Focus on Functions" exercise in students' textbook, page (10), then passes it to the other students so that all students in a group read each other questions. Third, each student should think of an answer to the question he was given, using one of the phrases from "Focus on Functions" exercise in students' textbook, page (10). Fourth, all students write their	- Teacher explains the significance of the lesson. - Teacher refreshes students' mind of the language they might need to carry out the task. - Teacher sets the stage for the task. - Students are exposed to the target language to notice the gap in their language.	10 minutes	T-Ss

		own answers to the questions given to them, and each student's answers to the questions given to him should be reviewed by the whole group and written on a separate paper. Fifth, one from each group will be assigned to talk in front of the class about the questions and their relevant answers, while at the same time the remaining students write the target functions covered during each presentation.			
Task cycle	Task	Each student in a group thinks of a problem and writes it in the form of a question from the target functions and passes it to the other students in a group. Then, each student separately thinks of an answer to the questions given to him using the target functions.	- Motivation. - Focus on the use of language. - Focus on language form. - Exposure to the target language.	30 minutes	Ss-Ss
	Planning to report	Each student separately writes an answer to each question, and then all answers should be reviewed and organized by the whole group in separate papers in accordance with their relevant questions. During this stage, teacher can help with some necessary vocabularies and phrases that students may need to answer each other questions and he verifies that students complete the task on time.			
	Reporting	Teacher assigns a student from each group to talk about the given task. At the same time, the rest of the class writes the target functions covered during task presentations.			

Language focus	During the final stage, teacher explains the mistakes that students made and focuses on the use of the present perfect tense.	Teacher provides explicit instruction on the target language.	10 minutes	T-Ss

Post lesson comments:
How did the lesson come out in relation to what you have planned in terms of aim, time, anticipated problems, classroom tasks and students' motivation?
……
……
……
……
……
……

The students' textbook, p. (10)



UNIT 2

Communication skills Asking for and giving advice

1 **When Hamid leaves school, he wants to do something to help other people. Listen to five people giving him advice.**

a Which do you think is the best advice?

b Compare ideas with a partner.

2 **Listen again and tick the phrases the speakers use to give advice**

FOCUS ON FUNCTIONS

Asking for advice

- ✔ What advice can you give me?
- ☐ What do you think I should do?
- ☐ Can you give me any advice?

Giving advice

- ☐ I think you should ...
- ☐ Why don't you ...?
- ☐ If I were you, I'd ...
- ☐ What about -ing ...?
- ☐ I think it'd be a good idea to ...
- ☐ You could ...
- ☐ The best thing you could do would be to ...
- ☐ I advise you to ...

When I finish school, I'd really like to do something to help other people. What advice can you give me?

3 **Work in groups of five and do the following.**

a Each student should think of a problem you would like the other students in your group to help you with. Start like this:

Problem

I'd really like to ..., but I'm not sure about the best way of doing it. What advice can you give me?

b Write your question on a piece of paper using some of the questions from *Focus on functions*, then give it to another student in your group.

c Think of an answer to the question you have been given. Use one of the phrases from *Focus on functions*.

d Take turns to read the questions and your answer to it.

e After each student speaks, other members of the group should give their own advice for each problem.

4 **Research the following about jobs**

RESEARCH

Conduct a survey among older people that you know and report the results to the rest of the class. Write a summary to put on the classroom wall. Find out:

- why their job is or is not important
- what they most and least enjoy about their job
- if they would recommend this job to you and why / why not

WORKBOOK PAGE 8

10

Lesson plan No. 3 (presentation-practice-production)
Topic/ theme: Talking about problems

School:		**Lesson focus:**	
Class:		**Date of lesson:**	
Number of student:		**Length of lesson**:	
Topic/ theme:		**Teacher's name:**	

Main aim:
By the end of this lesson, students will be able to ask for and give advice.

Exponent (s):

Asking for advice:

- What advice can you give me?
- What do you think I should do?
- Can you give me any advice?

Giving advice:

- I think you should……
- Why do not you……..?
- If I were you, I'd…….
- What about -ing……..?
- I think it would be a good idea to…….
- You could……
- The best thing you could do would be to……..
- I advise you to…….

Assumed knowledge:

- The use of present simple, present continuous, past simple, past continuous and simple future.
- The use of related vocabulary.
- The use of related expressions.

Target function: This target speaking function is used to ask for and give advice.
Structure:

- Using the above structures to ask for and give advice.
- Using the present perfect tense to talk about past actions that affect or explain the present.

New vocabularies: discipline, layer (n), responsible, semicircle, serious, silence, spoil, strict.

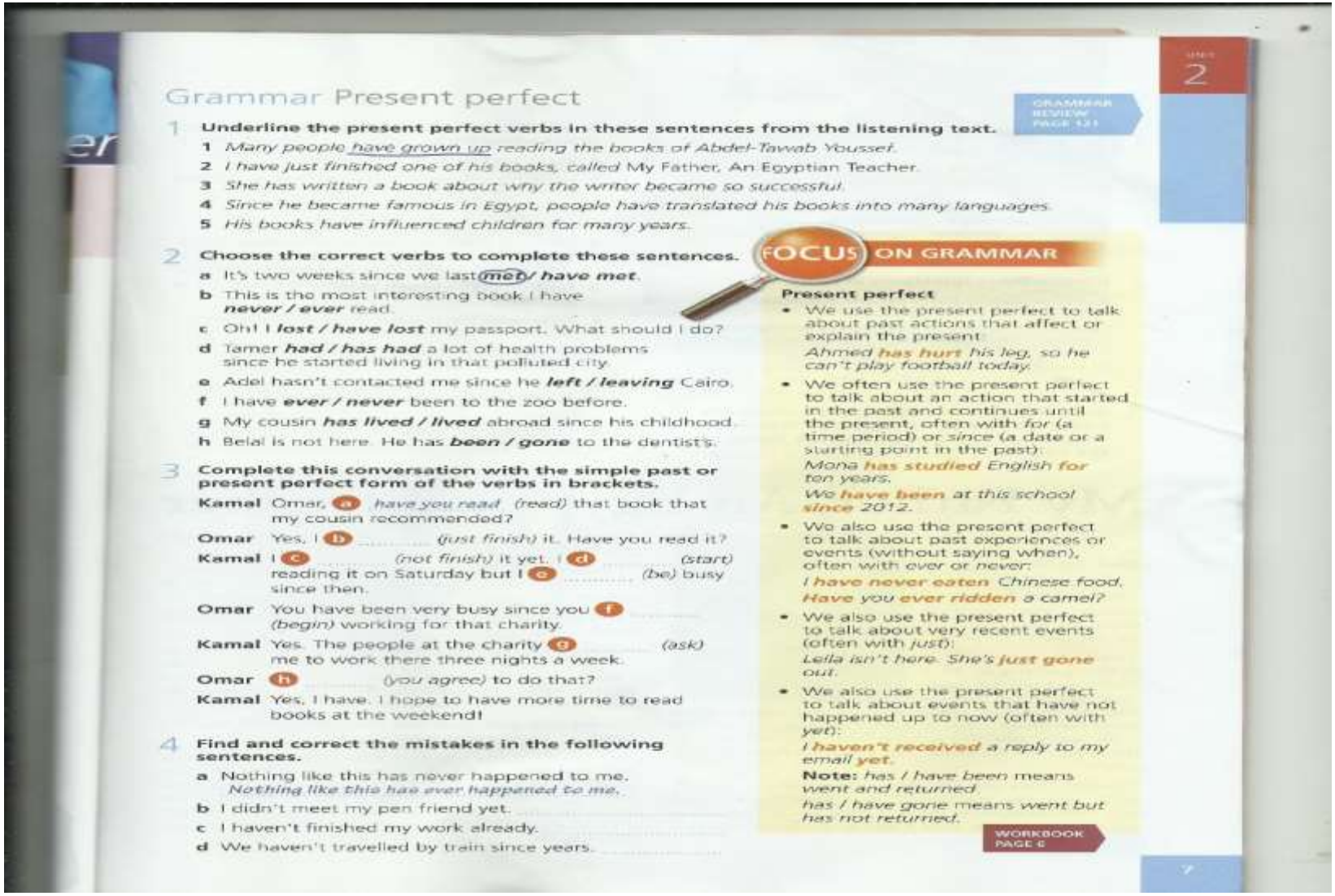
Anticipated problems and solutions: Students may have problems with the use of the target grammar and vocabularies so that the class teacher starts the class by teaching the students the target grammar and vocabularies.		**Aids**: Students' textbook, PPT, white board, marker, computer, projector.		
Stages	**Procedure**	**Significance of the stage**	**Time/ minute**	**Classroom interaction: (T-Ss/ Ss-Ss)**
Presentation	- The teacher presents the grammar rules on the page (7) in the students' textbook through description supplemented with examples. - The teacher assigns a student to read the passage on the page (8) loudly. - The teacher writes the target words on the board as the nominated student goes through them. After the student finishes his reading of the passage, the teacher asks the students to guess the meanings of the target words based on the context in which they occur, and then he explains their meanings in the target language. - The teacher has the students listen to the pronunciation of the new words and asks them to repeat after him. - Using a PPT, the teacher shows examples on how to ask for and give advice.	- Students read for gist. - Teacher raises students' awareness of how the target words are used in context. - Teacher raises students' awareness of the written form of the target language. - Teacher is able to provide feedback. - Teacher provides students with opportunities to properly pronounce the target language.	20	T-Ss
Practice	- The students practice saying the instructed grammar correctly. - The activities may include drills, multiple-choice	-Teacher provides students with opportunities to apply the	15	T-Ss

	exercises, gap-and-cue exercises, and/ or transformations (these activities except the drill activities are taken from the students' textbook on page (7). - The teacher directs the activities, provides positive feedback to the students, corrects mistakes and models the correct forms. - Using a PPT prepared by the teacher, the students are asked to work in small groups to match the newly learned words with their corresponding meanings. - The teacher assigns some students to practice the target speaking functions (saying them loudly).	target language. - Teacher is able to provide feedback. - Teacher provides students with opportunities to apply the target language to sentence level constructions.		
Production	- The students are asked to use the newly learned grammar, words and speaking functions in their oral production of the target language. - Typical examples of the activities include those asking the students to discuss the question 3 on the page (10) in the students' textbook. - The teacher assigns the students to work in small groups during the discussion. - The teacher makes sure that the students are fully involved in the discussion and the discussion covers all target grammar, words and speaking functions.	-Teacher provides students with opportunities to apply the target language in an authentic context. -Teacher provides students with opportunities to personalize the target language. -Teacher provides students with opportunities to develop their speaking.	15	Ss-Ss

Post lesson comments:
How did the lesson come out in relation to what you have planned in terms of aim, time, anticipated problems, classroom tasks and students' motivation?

……
……
……
……
……
……

The students' textbook, pp. (7, 8 & 10)



UNIT 2

Grammar Present perfect

GRAMMAR REVIEW PAGE 121

1 Underline the present perfect verbs in these sentences from the listening text.

1 *Many people have grown up reading the books of Abdel-Tawab Youssef.*
2 *I have just finished one of his books, called* My Father, An Egyptian Teacher.
3 *She has written a book about why the writer became so successful.*
4 *Since he became famous in Egypt, people have translated his books into many languages.*
5 *His books have influenced children for many years.*

2 Choose the correct verbs to complete these sentences.

a It's two weeks since we last ***met / have met***.
b This is the most interesting book I have ***never / ever*** read.
c Oh! I ***lost / have lost*** my passport. What should I do?
d Tamer ***had / has had*** a lot of health problems since he started living in that polluted city.
e Adel hasn't contacted me since he ***left / leaving*** Cairo.
f I have ***ever / never*** been to the zoo before.
g My cousin ***has lived / lived*** abroad since his childhood.
h Belal is not here. He has ***been / gone*** to the dentist's.

3 Complete this conversation with the simple past or present perfect form of the verbs in brackets.

Kamal Omar, a *have you read* *(read)* that book that my cousin recommended?
Omar Yes, I b ..... *(just finish)* it. Have you read it?
Kamal I c ..... *(not finish)* it yet. I d ..... *(start)* reading it on Saturday but I e ..... *(be)* busy since then.
Omar You have been very busy since you f ..... *(begin)* working for that charity.
Kamal Yes. The people at the charity g ..... *(ask)* me to work there three nights a week.
Omar h ..... *(you agree)* to do that?
Kamal Yes, I have. I hope to have more time to read books at the weekend!

4 Find and correct the mistakes in the following sentences.

a Nothing like this has never happened to me.
Nothing like this has ever happened to me.
b I didn't meet my pen friend yet. .....
c I haven't finished my work already. .....
d We haven't travelled by train since years. .....

FOCUS ON GRAMMAR

Present perfect

- We use the present perfect to talk about past actions that affect or explain the present:
*Ahmed **has hurt** his leg, so he can't play football today.*
- We often use the present perfect to talk about an action that started in the past and continues until the present, often with *for* (a time period) or *since* (a date or a starting point in the past):
*Mona **has studied** English **for** ten years.*
*We **have been** at this school **since** 2012.*
- We also use the present perfect to talk about past experiences or events (without saying when), often with *ever* or *never*:
*I **have never eaten** Chinese food.*
*Have you **ever ridden** a camel?*
- We also use the present perfect to talk about very recent events (often with *just*):
*Leila isn't here. She's **just gone** out.*
- We also use the present perfect to talk about events that have not happened up to now (often with *yet*):
*I **haven't received** a reply to my email **yet**.*

Note: *has / have been* means *went and returned*.
has / have gone means *went but has not returned*.

WORKBOOK PAGE 6

7

Reading

1 **FOCUS ON VOCABULARY**

Check the meanings of these words in your dictionary.

discipline **layer** *(n)*
responsible **semicircle** **serious**
silence **spoil** **strict**

2 **Discuss these questions in pairs.**

a What do you think people are responsible for in the following jobs?

politician **secretary** **teacher** **writer**

b Which of these jobs would you like to do? Why?

3 **Read this part of Abdel-Tawab Youssef's book, *My Father, An Egyptian Teacher*. In what ways is a teacher like the layers of the earth?**

4 **Guess the meaning of the red words fro the reading text.**

a You'll be **fatherly** and gentle. .....

b I give myself goals and **plan** how to achie them. .....

5 **Now answer these questions.**

a Why did the head teacher think the young teacher did not need to worry? *Because had all the qualities to be a good teacher*

b How does the young teacher plan his lessons? .....

c Why does the teacher think that students should not be silenced? .....

d What does the head teacher warn the teacher not to do? .....

e Why do you think that the teacher wants to change the way the students sit? .....

f In what ways does the teacher think he is like society's engineer? .....

My Father, An Egyptian Teache

*For all those who have had the **honour** of being called "teacher".*

The head teacher realised that the young teacher was worried about his first lesson at the school.

"Don't worry, you have all the qualities to be a good teacher!" he said. "You are very natural with the students. You're **serious** and **responsible**, warm but **strict**. That is what I've learnt about you in the short time you've been here. You will need to **discipline** the students, but you'll be **fatherly** and gentle."

"Do you think so? I've always prepared my lessons well," said the teacher. "I give myself goals and plan how to achieve them. I **plan** an introduction and then use steps. And I like to use paintings and pictures," said the teacher.

"That's good. You've come with fresh idea answered the head.

"I believe that a teacher mustn't **silence** his studen He must inspire them and encourage them communicate and to take part in conversations."

"You don't want to **spoil** the students," warned th head.

"Oh, I won't. We should encourage them to mo around the class. We can change the design of th classroom: if there's a discussion, the students ca sit in a circle or **semicircle**. We could even have th class outside, under the trees!" said the teacher.

"Good luck with your first class tomorrow," said th head.

The head teacher left him dreaming about his ne life as a teacher. He believed that his job was th most important job: he was society's enginee helping to build it. A teacher is like the **layers** of th earth: whatever level you reach, you can dig deepe to find more layers that are even richer than before His was the best job in the world.

Unit 2

Communication skills Asking for and giving advice

1 When Hamid leaves school, he wants to do something to help other people. Listen to five people giving him advice.

a Which do you think is the best advice?

b Compare ideas with a partner.

2 Listen again and tick the phrases the speakers use to give advice

FOCUS ON FUNCTIONS

Asking for advice

- ✔ What advice can you give me?
- ☐ What do you think I should do?
- ☐ Can you give me any advice?

Giving advice

- ☐ I think you should ...
- ☐ Why don't you ...?
- ☐ If I were you, I'd ...
- ☐ What about -ing ...?
- ☐ I think it'd be a good idea to ...
- ☐ You could ...
- ☐ The best thing you could do would be to ...
- ☐ I advise you to ...

When I finish school, I'd really like to do something to help other people. What advice can you give me?

3 Work in groups of five and do the following.

a Each student should think of a problem you would like the other students in your group to help you with. Start like this:

> *Problem*
>
> *I'd really like to ..., but I'm not sure about the best way of doing it. What advice can you give me?*

b Write your question on a piece of paper using some of the questions from *Focus on functions*, then give it to another student in your group.

c Think of an answer to the question you have been given. Use one of the phrases from *Focus on functions*.

d Take turns to read the questions and your answer to it.

e After each student speaks, other members of the group should give their own advice for each problem.

4 Research the following about jobs

RESEARCH

Conduct a survey among older people that you know and report the results to the rest of the class. Write a summary to put on the classroom wall. Find out:

- why their job is or is not important
- what they most and least enjoy about their job
- if they would recommend this job to you and why / why not

WORKBOOK PAGE 8

Lesson plan No. 4 (task-based instruction)
Topic/ theme: Talking about the news

School:		**Lesson focus:**	
Class:		**Date of lesson:**	
Number of student:		**Length of lesson**:	
Topic/ theme:		**Teacher's name:**	

Main aim:

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to question sources of information.

Exponent (s):

- Can you prove/confirm that?
- What is the reason/ source of information for that?
- I do not/ cannot believe that.
- What proof do they have that this is real/ true?
- It cannot/ must be true.
- I think that is a lie/ real.
- It is/ it's not real news, it is/ it's not false.

Assumed knowledge:

- The use of present simple, present continuous, present perfect, past simple, past continuous, past perfect and simple future.
- The use of related vocabulary.
- The use of related expressions.

Target function: This speaking function is used to question sources of information.

Structure:
Using the speaking functions as an independent clause (complete sentence or question) to question sources of information.

Anticipated problems and solutions:

Students may have problems remembering some of related vocabularies so that the class teacher is going to refresh students' mind of them before assigning tasks to students.

Aids:
Students' textbook, pictures, class realia, board and markers.

Stages	Procedure	Significance of the stage	Time/ minute	Classroom interaction:

					(T-Ss/ Ss-Ss)
Pre-task		**Teacher introduces the topic and task**. Teacher projects some pictures related to pieces of news and asks students to question these sources of information. Teacher also projects some related expressions and speaking functions mentioned in students' textbook, page (15). The aim is to develop brainstorming with all the phrases and words that students need in order to complete the task. After that, teacher is going to assign students into small groups for the task and explains the instructions. To complete the task, students first are going to have a sheet of paper with different pictures, and they must choose one of them and create a piece of news. The piece of news must have some of the target expressions and speaking functions and the following aspects: headline, lead paragraph, and supporting details.	- Teacher explains the significance of the lesson. - Teacher refreshes students' mind of the language they might need to carry out the task. - Teacher sets the stage for the task. - Students are exposed to the target language to notice the gap in their language.	10 minutes	T-Ss
Task cycle	Task	Students in groups choose one picture and they together create a piece of news based on it. The piece of news must include a headline, lead paragraph, supporting details and	- Motivation. - Focus on the use of language. - Focus on language form. - Exposure to the target language.	30 minutes	Ss-Ss

		expressions or phrases from the box shown on the board. In this stage, teacher takes control over the class, makes sure that students use the target language in every moment and allows them to use all knowledge they know.			
	Planning to report	Each group of students writes and practices how it is going to announce the piece of news that it created. In this stage, teacher can suggest some phrases that students could use in their presentation if he/she noticed from his/her monitor to the class that they need them and verify that the task was completed by the end of the allocated time.			
	Reporting	Teacher selects one member from each group to present the piece of news that the group created, and at the same time the rest of the class checks if all aspects required were included in the presentation.			
Language focus		At the end of all presentations, teacher is going to check some points related to grammar and vocabulary in which students have problems.	Teacher provides explicit instruction on the target language	10 minutes	T-Ss

Post lesson comments

How did the lesson come out in relation to what you have planned in terms of aim, time, anticipated problems, classroom activities and tasks and students' motivation?

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Pre-task language activity:

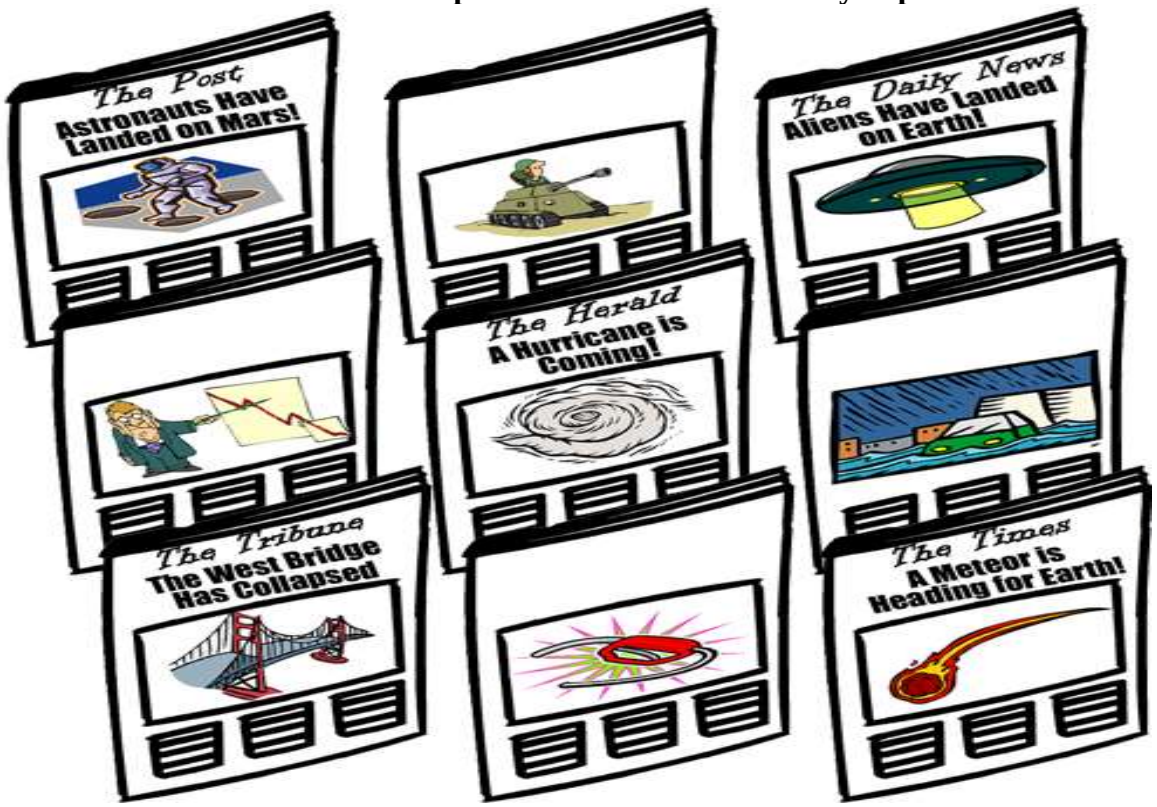
- **Work in groups of four students per each.**
- **Look at the following pictures, examine the source of information and tell your opinions about them.**
- **Use the key expressions on the right of the page to help you.**

Key expressions and speaking functions:

- Can you prove/confirm that?
- What is the reason/ source of information for that?
- I do not/ cannot believe that.
- What proof do they have that this is real/ true?
- It cannot/ must be true.
- I think that is a lie/ real.
- It is/ it's not real news, it is/ it's not false.

The main task:

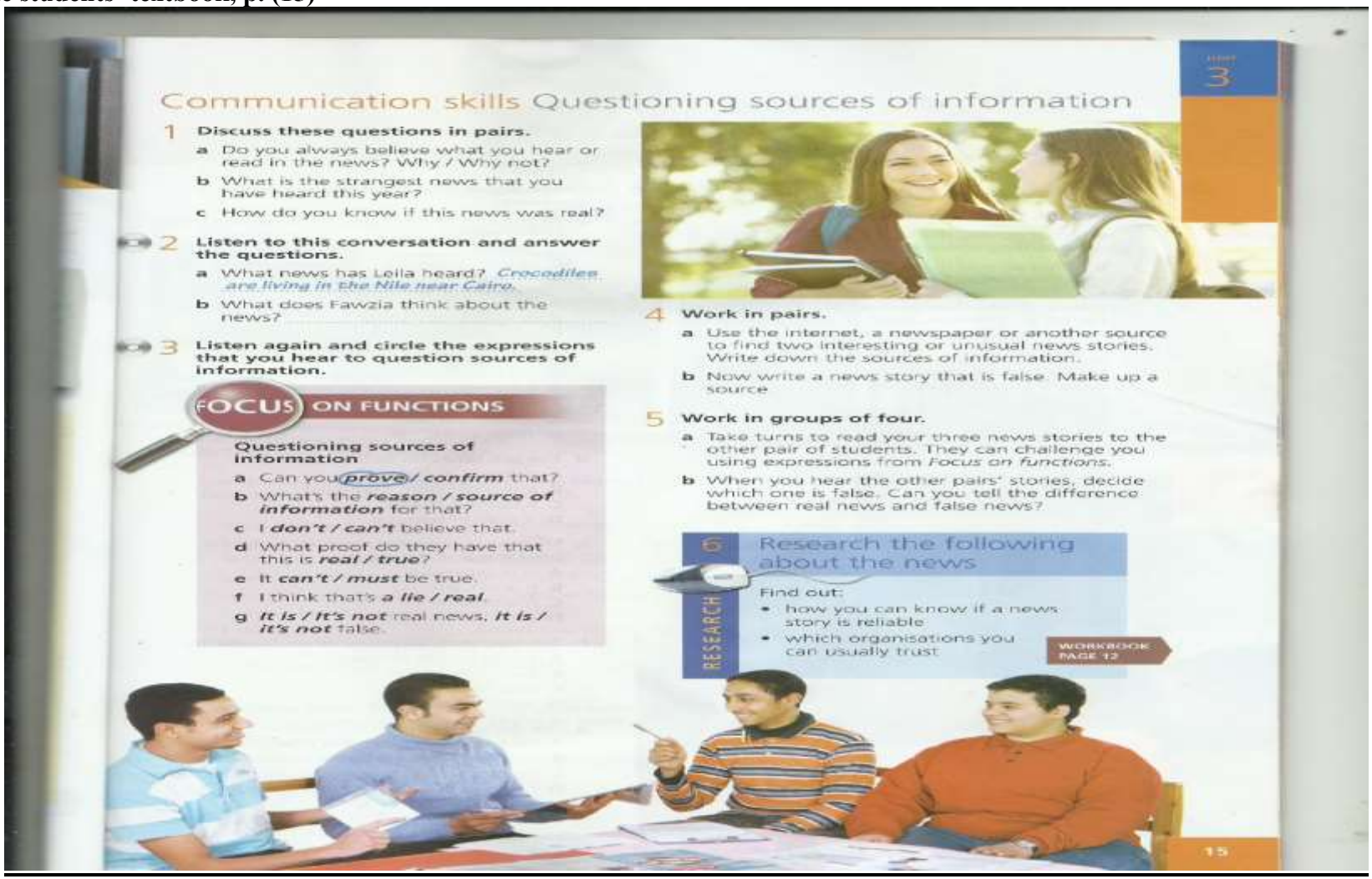
- **Work in groups of four students.**
- **Look at the pictures, choose one and create a piece of news questioning the information provided.**
- **You should include a headline, lead paragraph, supporting details and some expressions from the box.**
- **You have 15 minutes to complete the task and to be ready to present it.**



Key expressions and speaking functions:

- Can you prove/confirm that?
- What is the reason/ source of information for that?
- I do not/ cannot believe that.
- What proof do they have that this is real/ true?
- It cannot/ must be true.
- I think that is a lie/ real.
- It is/ it's not real news, it is/ it's not false.

The students' textbook, p. (15)



UNIT 3

Communication skills Questioning sources of information

1 **Discuss these questions in pairs.**

a Do you always believe what you hear or read in the news? Why / Why not?

b What is the strangest news that you have heard this year?

c How do you know if this news was real?

2 **Listen to this conversation and answer the questions.**

a What news has Leila heard? *Crocodiles are living in the Nile near Cairo.*

b What does Fawzia think about the news?

3 **Listen again and circle the expressions that you hear to question sources of information.**

FOCUS ON FUNCTIONS

Questioning sources of information

a Can you ***prove / confirm*** that?

b What's the ***reason / source of information*** for that?

c I ***don't / can't*** believe that.

d What proof do they have that this is ***real / true***?

e It ***can't / must*** be true.

f I think that's ***a lie / real***.

g ***It is / It's not*** real news. ***It is / it's not*** false.

4 **Work in pairs.**

a Use the internet, a newspaper or another source to find two interesting or unusual news stories. Write down the sources of information.

b Now write a news story that is false. Make up a source

5 **Work in groups of four.**

a Take turns to read your three news stories to the other pair of students. They can challenge you using expressions from *Focus on functions*.

b When you hear the other pairs' stories, decide which one is false. Can you tell the difference between real news and false news?

6 RESEARCH

Research the following about the news

Find out:

- how you can know if a news story is reliable
- which organisations you can usually trust

WORKBOOK PAGE 12

15

Lesson plan No. 4 (presentation-practice-production)
Topic/ theme: Talking about the news

School:		**Lesson focus:**	
Class:		**Date of lesson:**	
Number of student:		**Length of lesson**:	
Topic/ theme:		**Teacher's name:**	

Main aim:

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to question sources of information.

Exponent (s):

- Can you prove/confirm that?
- What is the reason/ source of information for that?
- I do not/ cannot believe that.
- What proof do they have that this is real/ true?
- It cannot/ must be true.
- I think that is a lie/ real.
- It is/ it's not real news, it is/ it's not false.

Assumed knowledge:

- The use of present simple, present continuous, present perfect, past simple, past continuous, past perfect and simple future.
- The use of related vocabulary.
- The use of related expressions.

Target function: The above speaking functions are used to question sources of information.
Structure:

- Using the speaking functions as an independent clause (complete sentence or question) to question sources of information.
- Using future forms and tenses to predict for something that will be finished in the future and for offers, arrangements, quick decisions and events on a timetable.

New vocabularies: bleach (v), encyclopedia, mixture, press (v), roller, soak (v), trade (v).

Anticipated problems and solutions:
Students may have problems with the use of the target grammar and vocabularies so that the class teacher starts the class by teaching the students the target grammar and vocabularies.

Aids:
Students' textbook, PPT, white board, marker, computer, projector.

Stages	Procedure	Significance of the stage	Time/	Classroom

			minute	interaction: (T-Ss/ Ss-Ss)
Presentation	- The teacher presents the grammar rules on the page (12) in the students' textbook through description supplemented with examples. - The teacher assigns a student to read the passage on the page (13) loudly. - The teacher writes the target words on the board as the nominated student goes through them. After the student finishes his reading of the passage, the teacher asks the students to guess the meanings of the target words based on the context in which they occur, and then he explains their meanings in the target language. - The teacher has the students listen to the pronunciation of the new words and asks them to repeat after him. - Using a PPT, the teacher shows examples on how to question sources of information.	- Students read for gist. - Teacher raises students' awareness of how the target words are used in context. - Teacher raises students' awareness of the written form of the target language. - Teacher is able to provide feedback. - Teacher provides students with opportunities to properly pronounce the target language.	20	T-Ss
Practice	- The students practice saying the instructed grammar correctly. - The activities may include drills, multiple-choice exercises, gap-and-cue exercises, and/ or transformations (these activities except the drill activities are taken from the students' textbook on page (12).	-Teacher provides students with opportunities to apply the target language. - Teacher is able to provide feedback. - Teacher provides students with	15	T-Ss

	- The teacher directs the activities, provides positive feedback to the students, corrects mistakes and models the correct forms. - Using a PPT prepared by the teacher, the students are asked to work in small groups to match the newly learned words with their corresponding meanings. - The teacher assigns some students to practice the target speaking functions (saying them loudly).	opportunities to apply the target language to sentence level constructions.		
Production	- The students are asked to use the newly learned grammar, words and speaking functions in their oral production of the target language. - Typical examples of the activities include those asking the students to discuss the questions 4 and 5 on the page (15) in the students' textbook. - The teacher assigns the students to work in small groups during the discussion. - The teacher makes sure that the students are fully involved in the discussion and the discussion covers all target grammar, words and speaking functions.	-Teacher provides students with opportunities to apply the target language in an authentic context. -Teacher provides students with opportunities to personalize the target language. -Teacher provides students with opportunities to develop their speaking.	15	Ss-Ss

Post lesson comments:
How did the lesson come out in relation to what you have planned in terms of aim, time, anticipated problems, classroom tasks and students' motivation?
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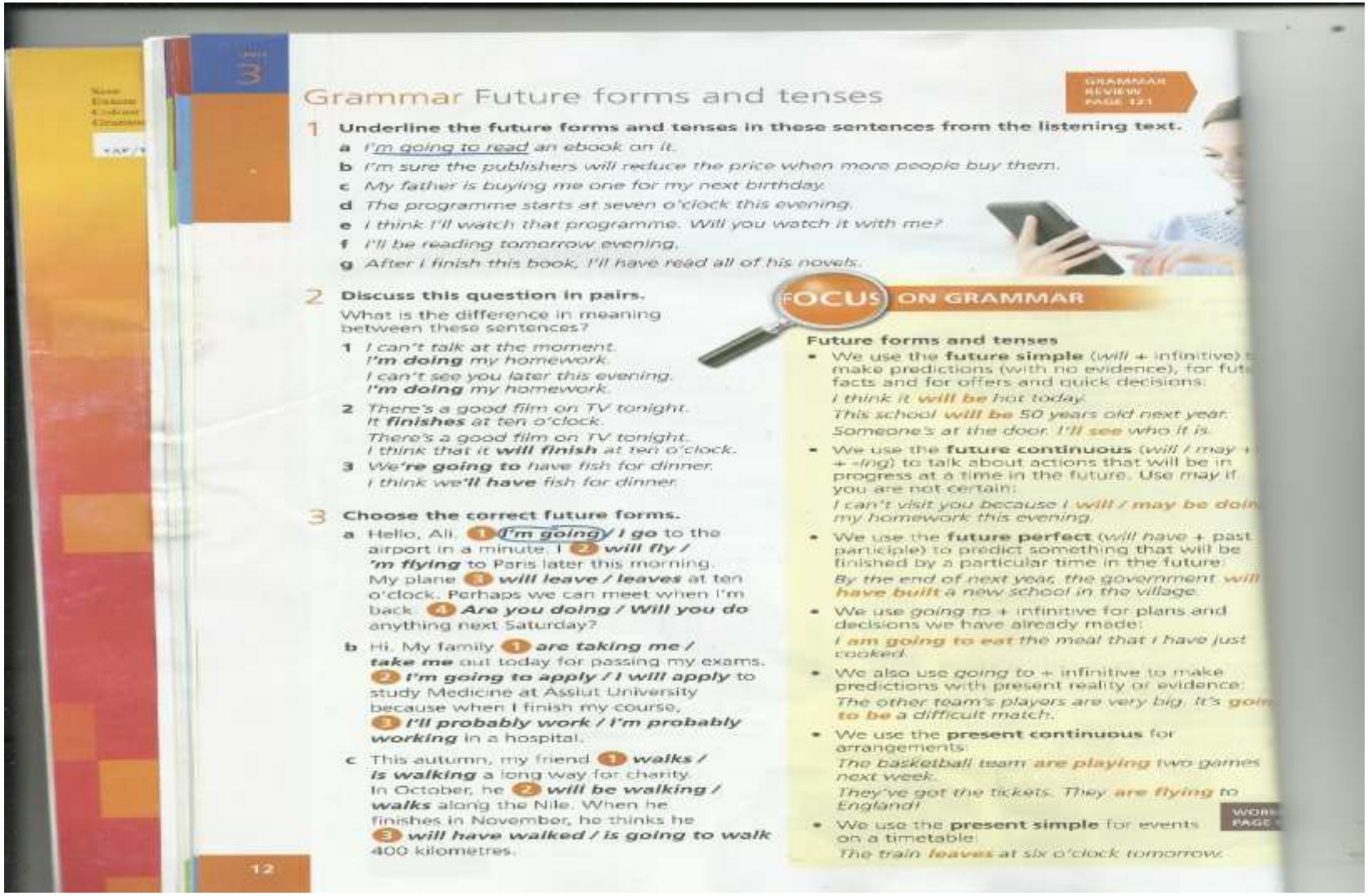
The students' textbook, pp. (12, 13 & 15)



3

Grammar Future forms and tenses

GRAMMAR REVIEW PAGE 121

1 **Underline the future forms and tenses in these sentences from the listening text.**

a *I'm going to read an ebook on it.*
b *I'm sure the publishers will reduce the price when more people buy them.*
c *My father is buying me one for my next birthday.*
d *The programme starts at seven o'clock this evening.*
e *I think I'll watch that programme. Will you watch it with me?*
f *I'll be reading tomorrow evening.*
g *After I finish this book, I'll have read all of his novels.*

2 **Discuss this question in pairs.**

What is the difference in meaning between these sentences?

1 *I can't talk at the moment.*
I'm doing my homework.
I can't see you later this evening.
I'm doing my homework.

2 *There's a good film on TV tonight.*
*It **finishes** at ten o'clock.*
There's a good film on TV tonight.
*I think that it **will finish** at ten o'clock.*

3 *We're going to have fish for dinner.*
I think we'll have fish for dinner.

3 **Choose the correct future forms.**

a Hello, Ali. 1 ***I'm going / I go*** to the airport in a minute. I 2 ***will fly / 'm flying*** to Paris later this morning. My plane 3 ***will leave / leaves*** at ten o'clock. Perhaps we can meet when I'm back. 4 ***Are you doing / Will you do*** anything next Saturday?

b Hi. My family 1 ***are taking me / take me*** out today for passing my exams. 2 ***I'm going to apply / I will apply*** to study Medicine at Assiut University because when I finish my course, 3 ***I'll probably work / I'm probably working*** in a hospital.

c This autumn, my friend 1 ***walks / is walking*** a long way for charity. In October, he 2 ***will be walking / walks*** along the Nile. When he finishes in November, he thinks he 3 ***will have walked / is going to walk*** 400 kilometres.

12

FOCUS ON GRAMMAR

Future forms and tenses

- We use the **future simple** (*will* + infinitive) to make predictions (with no evidence), for future facts and for offers and quick decisions:
  *I think it **will be** hot today.*
  *This school **will be** 50 years old next year.*
  *Someone's at the door. **I'll see** who it is.*
- We use the **future continuous** (*will / may* + + *-ing*) to talk about actions that will be in progress at a time in the future. Use *may* if you are not certain:
  *I can't visit you because I **will / may be doing** my homework this evening.*
- We use the **future perfect** (*will have* + past participle) to predict something that will be finished by a particular time in the future:
  *By the end of next year, the government **will have built** a new school in the village.*
- We use *going to* + infinitive for plans and decisions we have already made:
  *I **am going to eat** the meal that I have just cooked.*
- We also use *going to* + infinitive to make predictions with present reality or evidence:
  *The other team's players are very big. It's **going to be** a difficult match.*
- We use the **present continuous** for arrangements:
  *The basketball team **are playing** two games next week.*
  *They've got the tickets. They **are flying** to England!*
- We use the **present simple** for events on a timetable:
  *The train **leaves** at six o'clock tomorrow.*

WORK PAGE

Reading

1 **FOCUS ON VOCABULARY**

Check the meanings of these words in your dictionary.

bleach *(v)* **encyclopedia**
mixture **press** *(v)* **remove**
roller **soak** *(v)* **trade** *(v)*

2 **Discuss these questions in pairs.**

a Who invented the first paper?

b What do we make most of today's newspapers from?

3 **Read the article and check your answers to Exercise 2.**

4 **Complete these sentences with information from the article.**

a Before people could write on papyrus, they had to *soak it in water, press it and then dry it in the sun.*

b In the eighth century, Arab travellers learned how to .....

c Early paper was very expensive because .....

d After people bleach the wood, they .....

e As well as making new paper from trees, we can .....

f Some people believe that soon .....

5 **Discuss these questions in pairs.**

a What can you read on the Egyptian Knowledge Bank?

b Do you think that the internet will replace libraries in the future? Why / Why not?

c What would be the advantages and disadvantages of replacing libraries?

d Do you prefer to read paper books or online books? Why?

The history of paper

In ancient Egypt, people used a type of tall grass called papyrus. It grew in the Nile valley and people used it for writing and drawing on. Before people could use it, they **soaked** the leaves of the grass in water, **pressed** them together and then dried them in the sun.

The Chinese made the first paper two thousand years ago. In the eighth century, Arab travellers who **traded** with China learned how to make it too. At first, paper was very expensive because people made it from cotton, but later it was made from wood and so it became much cheaper.

To make paper, people broke the wood into small pieces which they mixed with chemicals and then **bleached**. They then **removed** the water from the **mixture**. The mixture passes through hot **rollers** to produce continuous pieces of dry paper.

Every year we cut down millions of trees to make new paper. Fortunately the type of tree that gives us the best wood for making paper grows very quickly, but you can also recycle old paper. We make most of today's newspapers and magazines from recycled paper.

For hundreds of years, we have also used an enormous amount of paper to produce books, especially very large books like **encyclopedias**. Now, you can read encyclopedias and other books on ebooks. You can also read books online, on websites such as the Egyptian Knowledge Bank (EKB).

Some people think that soon everybody will have a computer or a phone and we will get all our information from the internet. They believe that we won't need libraries and that paper books will become part of history.

Communication skills Questioning sources of information

1 **Discuss these questions in pairs.**

a Do you always believe what you hear or read in the news? Why / Why not?

b What is the strangest news that you have heard this year?

c How do you know if this news was real?

2 **Listen to this conversation and answer the questions.**

a What news has Leila heard? *Crocodiles are living in the Nile near Cairo.*

b What does Fawzia think about the news?

3 **Listen again and circle the expressions that you hear to question sources of information.**

FOCUS ON FUNCTIONS

Questioning sources of information

a Can you ***prove / confirm*** that?

b What's the ***reason / source of information*** for that?

c I ***don't / can't*** believe that.

d What proof do they have that this is ***real / true***?

e It ***can't / must*** be true.

f I think that's ***a lie / real***.

g ***It is / It's not*** real news, ***it is / it's not*** false.

4 **Work in pairs.**

a Use the internet, a newspaper or another source to find two interesting or unusual news stories. Write down the sources of information.

b Now write a news story that is false. Make up a source.

5 **Work in groups of four.**

a Take turns to read your three news stories to the other pair of students. They can challenge you using expressions from *Focus on functions*.

b When you hear the other pairs' stories, decide which one is false. Can you tell the difference between real news and false news?

6 Research the following about the news

RESEARCH

Find out:

- how you can know if a news story is reliable
- which organisations you can usually trust

WORKBOOK PAGE 12

<u>Lesson plan No. 5 (task-based instruction)</u>
Topic/ theme: Describing a woman you respect

School:		**Lesson focus:**	
Class:		**Date of lesson:**	
Number of student:		**Length of lesson**:	
Topic/ theme:		**Teacher's name:**	

Main aim:
By the end of this lesson, students will be able to ask for and give reasons.

Exponent (s):

Asking for reasons:

- Can you tell me why?
- Why….?
- Is that the reason……?
- Is that why……?
- What (did you choose her) for?
- What is the reason for …….?

Giving reasons:

- (It's) because …….
- For (two/three) reasons.
- To start with……..
- Firstly/ secondly, because …..
- That's one of the reasons.
- Mainly because……

Assumed knowledge:

- The use of present simple, present continuous, past simple, past continuous and simple future.
- The use of distributives.
- The use of so/such…..that.
- The use of relative clauses.
- The use of related vocabulary.
- The use of related expressions.

Target function: This target speaking function is used to ask for and give reasons.
Structure:
Using the above structures to ask for and give reasons.

Anticipated problems and solutions:
Students may have problems remembering some of related vocabularies so that the class teacher is going to refresh students' mind of them before assigning tasks.

Aids:
Students' textbook, board, marker and notebooks.

Stages	Procedure	Significance of the stage	Time/ minute	Classroom interaction: (T-Ss/ Ss-Ss)
Pre-task	**Introduce the topic and task:** Teacher writes on the board the following question "what do you think of the qualities and personalities of a good woman". He then writes on the board students' answer. He may also remind them of some related words, phrases and/ or expressions. After this activity, teacher is going to mention the instructions of the task. First, students are going to work in groups of four students. Second, the students in each group are going to discuss the qualities and personalities of a woman they respect using the criteria mentioned in students' textbook, page (35), exercise 2 (a). Third, each group will complete the questionnaire about the woman chosen from students' textbook, page (35), exercise 2 (b). Third, one of each group is going to present by describing the woman chosen by his group using the notes the group has made about her while the rest of students makes a list of the qualities and the personalities mentioned during the presentations. The most important thing	- Teacher explains the significance of the lesson. - Teacher refreshes students' mind of the language they might need to carry out the task. - Teacher sets the stage for the task. - Students are exposed to the target language to notice the gap in their language.	10 minutes	T-Ss

		is that students should use some of the phrases from "Focus on Functions" in students' textbook, page (35).			
Task cycle	Task	Students in each group think of a woman they respect and discuss her qualities and personality.	- Motivation. - Focus on the use of language. - Focus on language form. - Exposure to the target language.	30 minutes	Ss-Ss
	Planning to report	Students complete the questionnaire in students' textbook, page (35), exercise (b) and practice how they are going to present their task. During this stage, teacher can help with the necessary vocabularies and phrases that students may need to continue working on the task with their partners and should verify that students complete the task on time.			
	Reporting	Teacher assigns a student from each group to talk in front of the class about the woman the group has discussed. At the same time, the rest of the class makes a list of the qualities of the woman and her personality.			
Language focus		During the final stage, teacher provides feedback on the task and explains some errors he noticed in students' language. He also focuses on the use of relative clauses (who, where, that).	Teacher provides explicit instruction on the target language.	10 minutes	T-Ss

Post lesson comments:

How did the lesson come out in relation to what you have planned in terms of aim, time, anticipated problems, classroom tasks and students' motivation?

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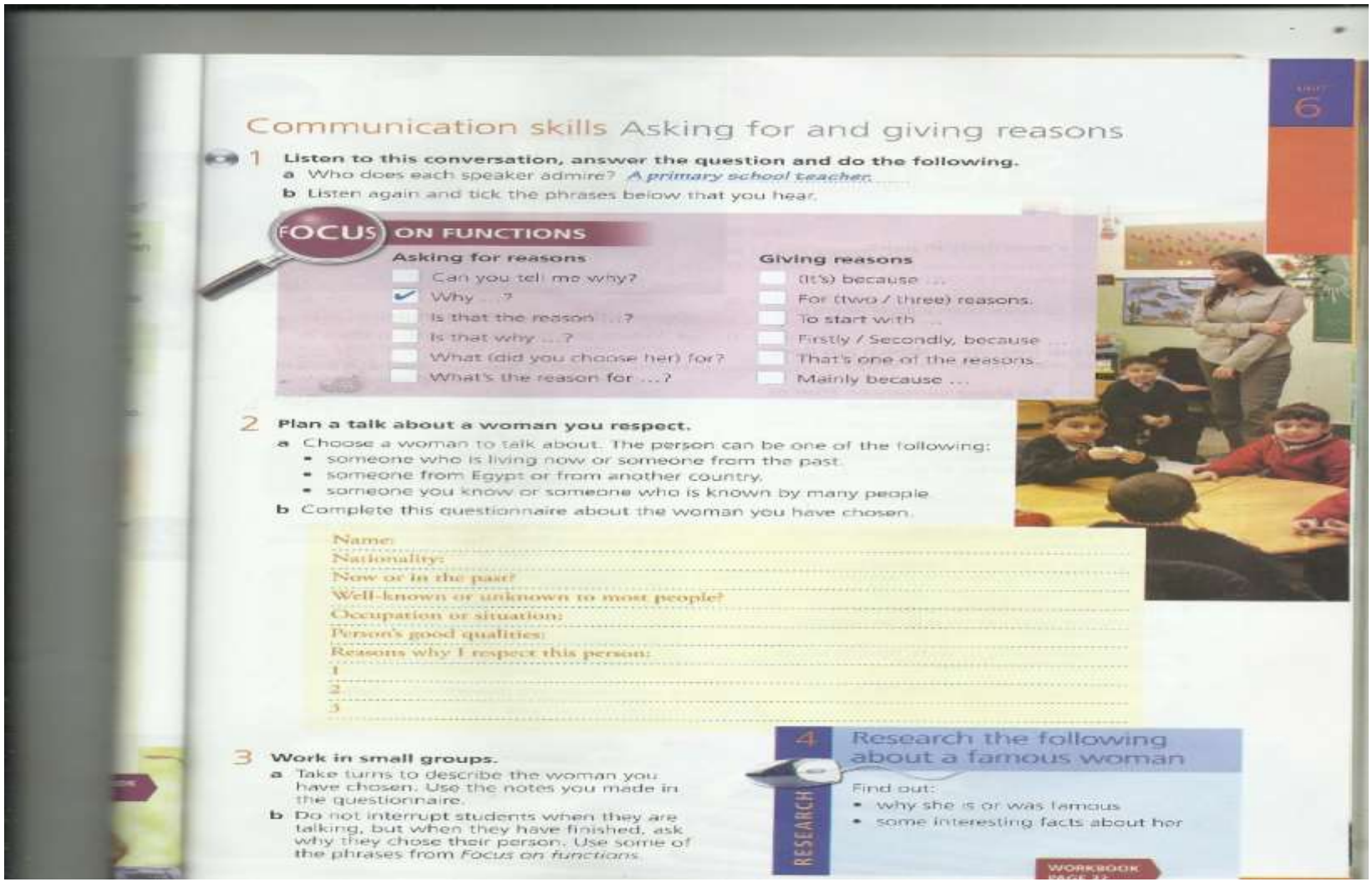
The students' textbook, p. (35)



UNIT 6

Communication skills Asking for and giving reasons

1 Listen to this conversation, answer the question and do the following.

a Who does each speaker admire? *A primary school teacher.*

b Listen again and tick the phrases below that you hear.

FOCUS ON FUNCTIONS

Asking for reasons

- ☐ Can you tell me why?
- ☑ Why ...?
- ☐ Is that the reason ...?
- ☐ Is that why ...?
- ☐ What (did you choose her) for?
- ☐ What's the reason for ...?

Giving reasons

- ☐ (It's) because ...
- ☐ For (two / three) reasons.
- ☐ To start with ...
- ☐ Firstly / Secondly, because ...
- ☐ That's one of the reasons.
- ☐ Mainly because ...

2 Plan a talk about a woman you respect.

a Choose a woman to talk about. The person can be one of the following:

- someone who is living now or someone from the past.
- someone from Egypt or from another country.
- someone you know or someone who is known by many people

b Complete this questionnaire about the woman you have chosen.

Name:
Nationality:
Now or in the past?
Well-known or unknown to most people?
Occupation or situation:
Person's good qualities:
Reasons why I respect this person:
1
2
3

3 Work in small groups.

a Take turns to describe the woman you have chosen. Use the notes you made in the questionnaire.

b Do not interrupt students when they are talking, but when they have finished, ask why they chose their person. Use some of the phrases from *Focus on functions*.

4 Research the following about a famous woman

RESEARCH

Find out:

- why she is or was famous
- some interesting facts about her

WORKBOOK PAGE 35

Lesson plan No. 5 (presentation-practice-production)
Topic/ theme: Describing a woman you respect

School:		**Lesson focus:**	
Class:		**Date of lesson:**	
Number of student:		**Length of lesson**:	
Topic/ theme:		**Teacher's name:**	

Main aim:
By the end of this lesson, students will be able to ask for and give reasons.

Exponent (s):

Asking for reasons:

- Can you tell me why?
- Why….?
- Is that the reason……?
- Is that why……?
- What (did you choose her) for?
- What is the reason for …….?

Giving reasons:

- (It's) because …….
- For (two/three) reasons.
- To start with……..
- Firstly/ secondly, because …..
- That's one of the reasons.
- Mainly because……

Assumed knowledge:

- The use of present simple, present continuous, past simple, past continuous and simple future.
- The use of distributives.
- The use of so/such…..that.
- The use of relative clauses.
- The use of related vocabulary.
- The use of related expressions.

Target function: This target speaking function is used to ask for and give reasons.
Structure:

- Using the above structures to ask for and give reasons.
- Using so or such … that and enough / too … to, to express a result.

New vocabularies: separate (v), stress (v), task.

Anticipated problems and solutions: Students may have problems with the use of the target grammar and vocabularies so that the class teacher starts the class by teaching the students the target grammar and vocabularies.		**Aids**: Students' textbook, PPT, white board, marker, computer, projector.		
Stages	**Procedure**	**Significance of the stage**	**Time/ minute**	**Classroom interaction: (T-Ss/ Ss-Ss)**
Presentation	- The teacher presents the grammar rules on the page (32) in the students' textbook through description supplemented with examples. - The teacher assigns a student to read the passage on the page (33) loudly. - The teacher writes the target words on the board as the nominated student goes through them. After the student finishes his reading of the passage, the teacher asks the students to guess the meanings of the target words based on the context in which they occur, and then he explains their meanings in the target language. - The teacher has the students listen to the pronunciation of the new words and asks them to repeat after him. - Using a PPT, the teacher shows examples on how to ask for and give reasons.	- Students read for gist. - Teacher raises students' awareness of how the target words are used in context. - Teacher raises students' awareness of the written form of the target language. - Teacher is able to provide feedback. - Teacher provides students with opportunities to properly pronounce the target language.	20	T-Ss

Practice	- The students practice saying the instructed grammar correctly. - The activities may include drills, multiple-choice exercises, gap-and-cue exercises, and/ or transformations (these activities except the drill activities are taken from the students' textbook on page (32). - The teacher directs the activities, provides positive feedback to the students, corrects mistakes and models the correct forms. - Using a PPT prepared by the teacher, the students are asked to work in small groups to match the newly learned words with their corresponding meanings. - The teacher assigns some students to practice the target speaking functions (saying them loudly).	-Teacher provides students with opportunities to apply the target language. - Teacher is able to provide feedback. - Teacher provides students with opportunities to apply the target language to sentence level constructions.	15	T-Ss
Production	- The students are asked to use the newly learned grammar, words and speaking functions in their oral production of the target language. - Typical examples of the activities include those asking the students to discuss the questions 2 and 3 on the page (35) in the students' textbook. - The teacher assigns the students to work in small groups during the discussion. - The teacher makes sure that the students are fully involved in the discussion and the discussion covers all target grammar, words and speaking functions.	-Teacher provides students with opportunities to apply the target language in an authentic context. -Teacher provides students with opportunities to personalize the target language. -Teacher provides students with opportunities to develop	15	Ss-Ss

		their speaking.		

Post lesson comments:
How did the lesson come out in relation to what you have planned in terms of aim, time, anticipated problems, classroom tasks and students' motivation?

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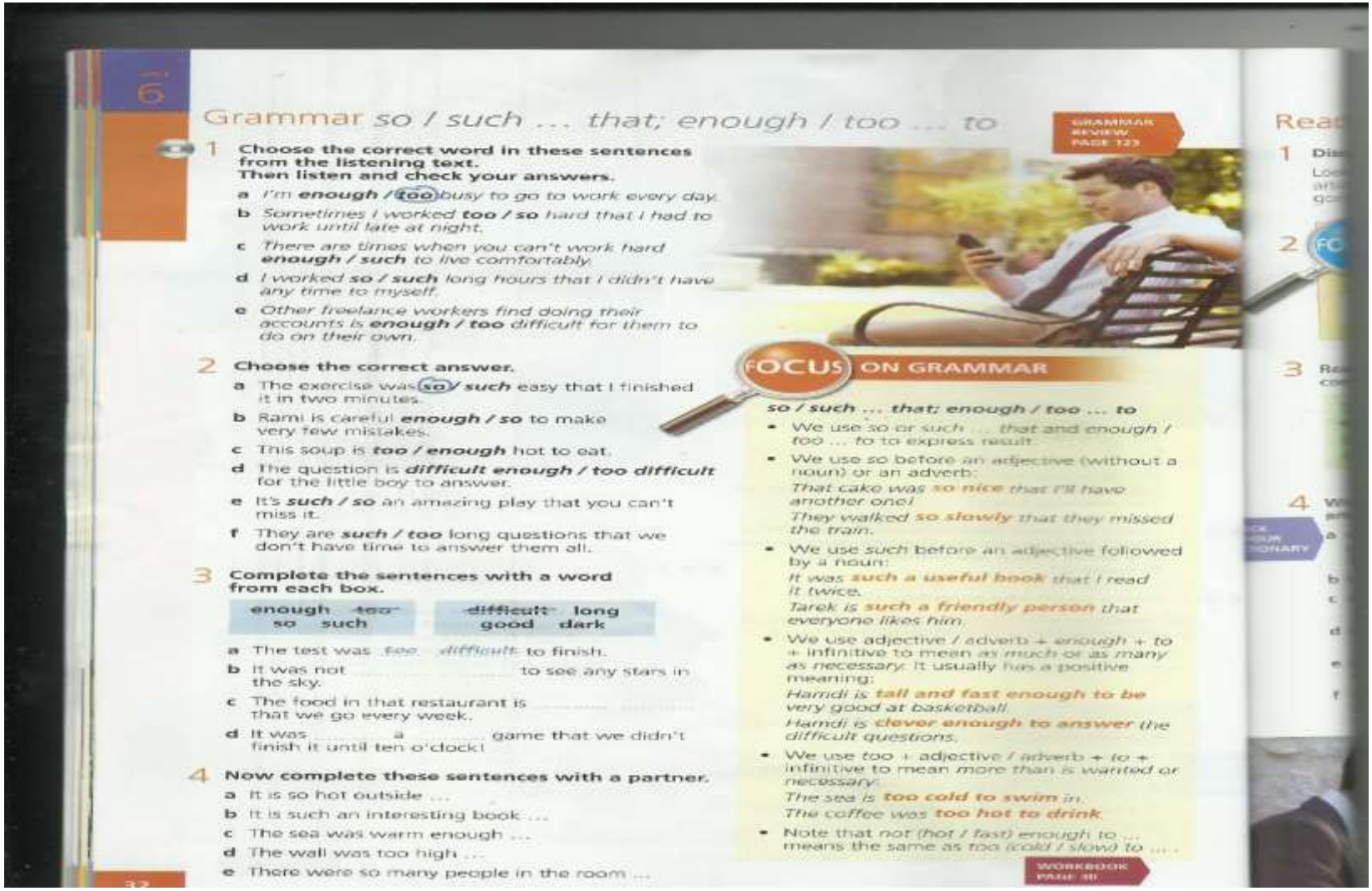
The students' textbook, pp. (32, 33 & 35)



6

Grammar so / such ... that; enough / too ... to

GRAMMAR REVIEW PAGE 123

1 Choose the correct word in these sentences from the listening text. Then listen and check your answers.

a I'm **enough / too** busy to go to work every day.

b Sometimes I worked **too / so** hard that I had to work until late at night.

c There are times when you can't work hard **enough / such** to live comfortably.

d I worked **so / such** long hours that I didn't have any time to myself.

e Other freelance workers find doing their accounts is **enough / too** difficult for them to do on their own.

2 Choose the correct answer.

a The exercise was **so / such** easy that I finished it in two minutes.

b Rami is careful **enough / so** to make very few mistakes.

c This soup is **too / enough** hot to eat.

d The question is **difficult enough / too difficult** for the little boy to answer.

e It's **such / so** an amazing play that you can't miss it.

f They are **such / too** long questions that we don't have time to answer them all.

3 Complete the sentences with a word from each box.

enough ~~too~~ so such	~~difficult~~ long good dark

a The test was *too difficult* to finish.

b It was not ..... to see any stars in the sky.

c The food in that restaurant is ..... that we go every week.

d It was ..... a ..... game that we didn't finish it until ten o'clock!

4 Now complete these sentences with a partner.

a It is so hot outside ...

b It is such an interesting book ...

c The sea was warm enough ...

d The wall was too high ...

e There were so many people in the room ...

FOCUS ON GRAMMAR

so / such ... that; enough / too ... to

- We use *so* or *such* ... *that* and *enough / too* ... *to* to express result.
- We use *so* before an adjective (without a noun) or an adverb:
  *That cake was **so nice** that I'll have another one!*
  *They walked **so slowly** that they missed the train.*
- We use *such* before an adjective followed by a noun:
  *It was **such a useful book** that I read it twice.*
  *Tarek is **such a friendly person** that everyone likes him.*
- We use adjective / adverb + *enough* + *to* + infinitive to mean *as much or as many as necessary*. It usually has a positive meaning:
  *Hamdi is **tall and fast enough to be** very good at basketball.*
  *Hamdi is **clever enough to answer** the difficult questions.*
- We use *too* + adjective / adverb + *to* + infinitive to mean *more than is wanted or necessary*:
  *The sea is **too cold to swim** in.*
  *The coffee was **too hot to drink**.*
- Note that *not (hot / fast) enough to ...* means the same as *too (cold / slow) to ...*.

WORKBOOK PAGE 81

Reading

1 **Discuss this question in pairs.**

Look at the pictures and the title of the article. What do you think the article is going to be about?

2 **FOCUS ON VOCABULARY**

Check the meanings of these words in your dictionary.

separate *(v)* **stress** *(n)* **task**

3 **Read about work-life balance and complete the missing paragraph titles.**

Take a break.
~~Separate work from home.~~
Don't carry work around.
Ask for help.

4 **Which of the words in bold from the article mean the following?**

a when two equal things are treated as though they are equally important *balance*

b have an illness or health problem .....

c making you worried and unable to relax .....

d not go to work for a period of time .....

e keep something less than a particular amount .....

f when you do not have enough of something .....

Finding a balance

A *Separate work from home.*

It is important for people to **separate** their work life from their home life. At the end of the work day, people should focus on the fact that this is also the end of that activity or **task**. Mothers and fathers both often need to work, but they have to balance their family and work. Parents who work should make sure that they spend enough quality time with their children.

B .....

Many people find it difficult to get the **balance** right between their work and their free time. Modern technology means that some people can be at work wherever they are. People can carry laptops and phones with them at all times which means that they can read their emails even in their free time. This allows many people to have more flexible working hours or to work from home. The problem is that some companies find it so easy to contact people that they expect them to be available for work all the time. Even people who are relaxing at home may get an important call from work that they have to answer.

C .....

Although most workers enjoy what they do, people need rest as well. Some people work such long hours that they may **suffer from stress**. This can lead to a **lack** of sleep and feeling exhausted at work. People should remember that athletes who train for a competition always take breaks, so why should they not do the same from work? A break can also help to **limit** the number of days they need to **take off** because of illness.

D .....

Everyone has times when work can be difficult. If you have a problem at work, ask your manager for advice. He or she should be able to help you. This is often the best way out of **stressful** situations. It is part of a manager's job to help people with their problems.

UNIT 6

Communication skills Asking for and giving reasons

1 Listen to this conversation, answer the question and do the following.

a Who does each speaker admire? *A primary school teacher.*

b Listen again and tick the phrases below that you hear.

FOCUS ON FUNCTIONS

Asking for reasons

- ☐ Can you tell me why?
- ☑ Why ... ?
- ☐ Is that the reason ...?
- ☐ Is that why ...?
- ☐ What (did you choose her) for?
- ☐ What's the reason for ...?

Giving reasons

- ☐ (It's) because ...
- ☐ For (two / three) reasons.
- ☐ To start with ...
- ☐ Firstly / Secondly, because ...
- ☐ That's one of the reasons.
- ☐ Mainly because ...

2 Plan a talk about a woman you respect.

a Choose a woman to talk about. The person can be one of the following:

- someone who is living now or someone from the past.
- someone from Egypt or from another country.
- someone you know or someone who is known by many people

b Complete this questionnaire about the woman you have chosen.

Name: .....

Nationality: .....

Now or in the past? .....

Well-known or unknown to most people? .....

Occupation or situation: .....

Person's good qualities: .....

Reasons why I respect this person:

1 .....

2 .....

3 .....

3 Work in small groups.

a Take turns to describe the woman you have chosen. Use the notes you made in the questionnaire.

b Do not interrupt students when they are talking, but when they have finished, ask why they chose their person. Use some of the phrases from *Focus on functions*.

4 Research the following about a famous woman

RESEARCH

Find out:

- why she is or was famous
- some interesting facts about her

WORKBOOK PAGE 43

Lesson plan No. 6 (task-based instruction)
Topic/ theme: Giving facts about famous people

School:		**Lesson focus:**	
Class:		**Date of lesson:**	
Number of student:		**Length of lesson**:	
Topic/ theme:		**Teacher's name:**	

Main aim:
By the end of this lesson, students will be able to ask for and give facts about famous people.

Exponent (s):

Asking for facts:

Is that correct/ true?
Could/ can you tell us something about……..?
Is it true/ right that they……..?
Is it possible/ do you mean that……?
Do we know/ can we tell ……..?

Giving facts

It is possible that ……..
It is a well-known fact that ……
We can be confident that ……..
We cannot be sure of this, but……..
What is certain is that ……

Assumed knowledge:

- The use of present simple, present continuous, past simple, past continuous and simple future.
- The use of distributives.
- The use of so/such…..that.
- The use of passive forms.
- The use of causative: have and get.
- The use of related vocabulary.
- The use of related expressions.

Target function: This speaking function is used to ask for and give facts.
Structure:
Using the above structures to ask for and give facts.

Anticipated problems and solutions:
Students may have problems remembering some of related vocabularies so that the class teacher is going to refresh students' mind of them before assigning tasks to students.

Aids:
Students' textbook, pictures, flash cards and notebooks.

Stages	Procedure	Significance of the stage	Time/ minute	Classroom interaction:

					(T-Ss/ Ss-Ss)
Pre-task		**Introduce the topic and the task**: Teacher sticks pictures of famous people with facts about them and their names in a random order, and students have to join the correct information with the right names. After this activity, teacher is going to mention the instructions of the task. First, each student is going to find a couple. Second, student A is going to prepare 3-4 questions of a chosen picture of a famous actor/actress. He should use the functions from students' textbook, page (55), exercise 2. The same with student B, he is going to prepare 3-4 questions about a chosen picture of a famous sports person. He should use the functions from students' textbook, page (55), exercise 2. The pairs take turns to answer his partner's question, using the functions in students' textbook, page (55), exercise 3. Third, both students are going to perform the task in front of the class and the rest of the class is going to take notes of the adjectives that they heard during all task presentations and write them on their notebook.	- Teacher explains the significance of the lesson. - Teacher refreshes students' mind of the language they might need to carry out the task. - Teacher sets the stage for the task. - Students are exposed to the target language to notice the gap in their language.	10 minutes	T-Ss
Task cycle	Task	Students think or write the possible questions and answers. In this stage, students must use the target language functions in order to express all their ideas, opinions and feelings.	- Motivation. - Focuses on the use of language. - Focus on language form. - Exposure to the target language.	30 minutes	Ss-Ss
	Planning to report	Students practice how they are going to ask and answer. During this stage, teacher can help with			

		the phrases and vocabularies that students may need during their discussion and reporting on the task and verifies that students complete the task on time.			
	Reporting	Each couple passes in front of the class to ask and answer. At the same time, the rest of the class writes on their notebooks all adjectives they heard during the task presentation.			
Language focus		During the final stage, the teacher asks students how many adjectives they wrote on their notebook and explain the use of them and some problems related to the formulation of questions.	Teacher provides explicit instruction on the target language.	10 minutes	T-Ss

Post lesson comments:

How did the lesson come out in relation to what you have planned in terms of aim, time, anticipated problems, classroom activities and tasks and students' motivation?

……
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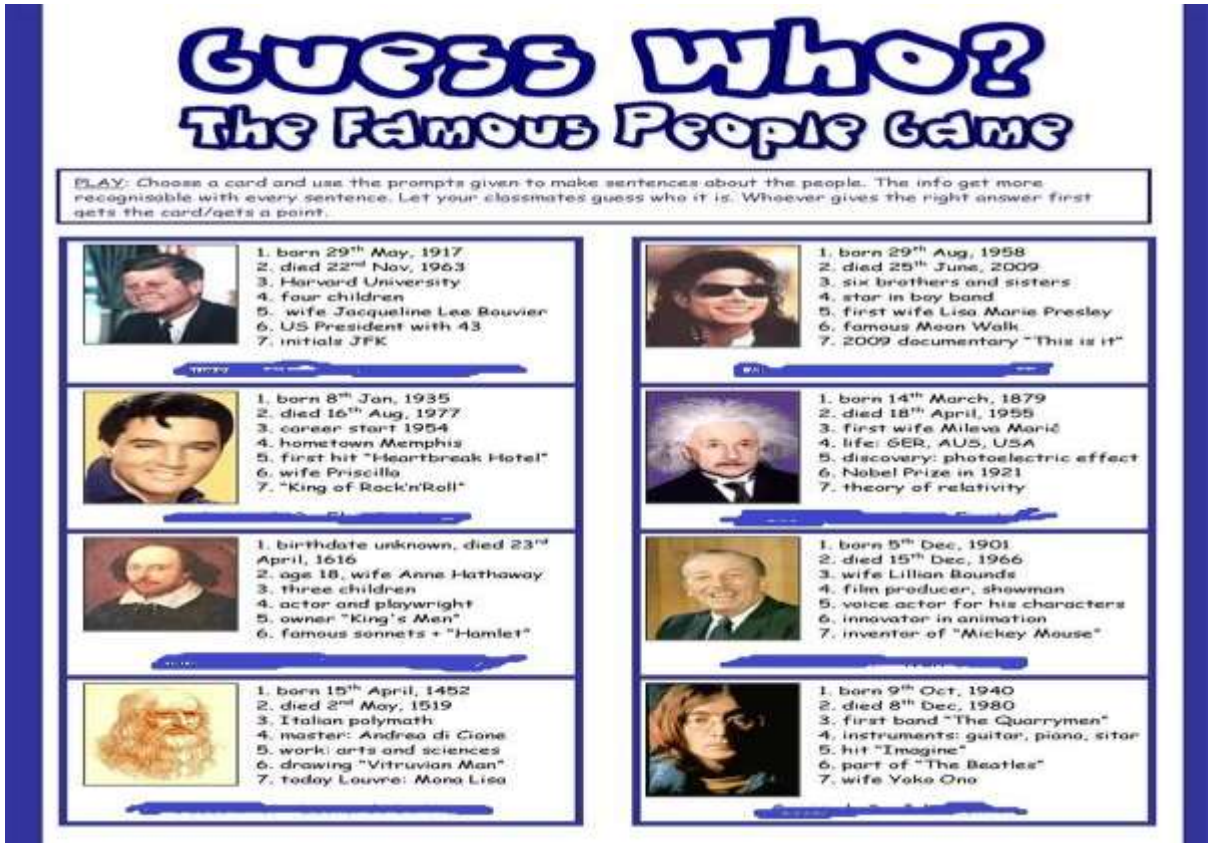
Pre-task activity:

- **Please join the names in the box with their corresponding pictures and information.**
- **You have 5 minutes to do this.**



Guess Who?
The Famous People Game

PLAY: Choose a card and use the prompts given to make sentences about the people. The info get more recognisable with every sentence. Let your classmates guess who it is. Whoever gives the right answer first gets the card/gets a point.

1. born 29th May, 1917
2. died 22nd Nov, 1963
3. Harvard University
4. four children
5. wife Jacqueline Lee Bouvier
6. US President with 43
7. initials JFK

1. born 8th Jan, 1935
2. died 16th Aug, 1977
3. career start 1954
4. hometown Memphis
5. first hit "Heartbreak Hotel"
6. wife Priscilla
7. "King of Rock'n'Roll"

1. birthdate unknown, died 23rd April, 1616
2. age 18, wife Anne Hathaway
3. three children
4. actor and playwright
5. owner "King's Men"
6. famous sonnets + "Hamlet"

1. born 15th April, 1452
2. died 2nd May, 1519
3. Italian polymath
4. master: Andrea di Cione
5. work: arts and sciences
6. drawing "Vitruvian Man"
7. today Louvre: Mona Lisa

1. born 29th Aug, 1958
2. died 25th June, 2009
3. six brothers and sisters
4. star in boy band
5. first wife Lisa Marie Presley
6. famous Moon Walk
7. 2009 documentary "This is it"

1. born 14th March, 1879
2. died 18th April, 1955
3. first wife Mileva Marić
4. life: GER, AUS, USA
5. discovery: photoelectric effect
6. Nobel Prize in 1921
7. theory of relativity

1. born 5th Dec, 1901
2. died 15th Dec, 1966
3. wife Lillian Bounds
4. film producer, showman
5. voice actor for his characters
6. innovator in animation
7. inventor of "Mickey Mouse"

1. born 9th Oct, 1940
2. died 8th Dec, 1980
3. first band "The Quarrymen"
4. instruments: guitar, piano, sitar
5. hit "Imagine"
6. part of "The Beatles"
7. wife Yoko Ono

A list of famous people:

- William Shakespeare.
- John Lennon.
- Elvis Presley.
- John F. Kennedy.
- Walt Disney.
- Albert Einstein.
- Michael Jackson.
- Leonardo Davinci.

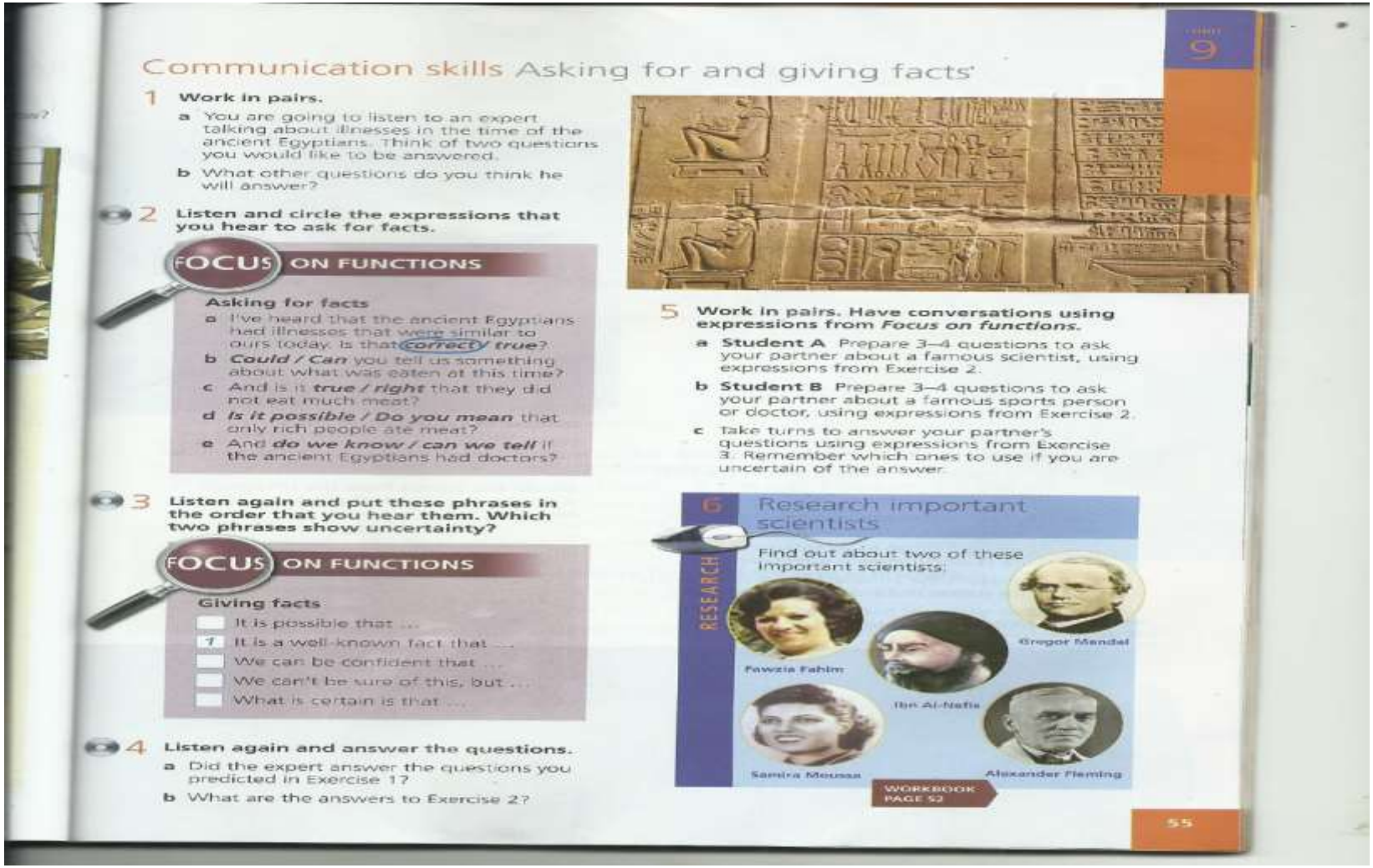
The main task:

- **Work in pairs.**
- **I want one student to take a picture for an actor/ actress and the other take a picture for a sports person.**
- **Using the expression in the following box, I want each one to prepare 3-4 questions to ask his partner about the picture in hand, and then take turns to answer your partners' questions.**
- **You have 15 minutes to complete the task and to be ready to present it with your partner.**

Key expressions

- Is that correct/ true?
- Could/ can you tell us something about……..?
- Is it true/ right that …..?
- Is it possible/ do you mean that……?
- Do we know/ can we tell …..?
- It is possible that ……..
- It is a well-known fact that …
- We can be confident that …..
- We cannot be sure of this, but…..
- What is certain is that …

The students' textbook, p. (55)



UNIT 9

Communication skills Asking for and giving facts

1 **Work in pairs.**

a You are going to listen to an expert talking about illnesses in the time of the ancient Egyptians. Think of two questions you would like to be answered.

b What other questions do you think he will answer?

2 **Listen and circle the expressions that you hear to ask for facts.**

FOCUS ON FUNCTIONS

Asking for facts

a I've heard that the ancient Egyptians had illnesses that were similar to ours today. Is that ***correct / true***?

b ***Could / Can*** you tell us something about what was eaten at this time?

c And is it ***true / right*** that they did not eat much meat?

d ***Is it possible / Do you mean*** that only rich people ate meat?

e And ***do we know / can we tell*** if the ancient Egyptians had doctors?

3 **Listen again and put these phrases in the order that you hear them. Which two phrases show uncertainty?**

FOCUS ON FUNCTIONS

Giving facts

- [ ] It is possible that ...
- [1] It is a well-known fact that ...
- [ ] We can be confident that ...
- [ ] We can't be sure of this, but ...
- [ ] What is certain is that ...

4 **Listen again and answer the questions.**

a Did the expert answer the questions you predicted in Exercise 1?

b What are the answers to Exercise 2?

5 **Work in pairs. Have conversations using expressions from *Focus on functions*.**

a **Student A** Prepare 3–4 questions to ask your partner about a famous scientist, using expressions from Exercise 2.

b **Student B** Prepare 3–4 questions to ask your partner about a famous sports person or doctor, using expressions from Exercise 2.

c Take turns to answer your partner's questions using expressions from Exercise 3. Remember which ones to use if you are uncertain of the answer.

6 Research important scientists

RESEARCH

Find out about two of these important scientists:

Pawzia Fahim

Ibn Al-Nafis

Gregor Mendel

Samira Moussa

Alexander Fleming

WORKBOOK PAGE 52

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<u>Lesson plan No. 6 (presentation-practice-production)</u>
Topic/ theme: Giving facts about famous people

School:		**Lesson focus:**	
Class:		**Date of lesson:**	
Number of student:		**Length of lesson**:	
Topic/ theme:		**Teacher's name:**	

Main aim:
By the end of this lesson, students will be able to ask for and give facts about famous people.

Exponent (s):

Asking for facts:

Is that correct/ true?
Could/ can you tell us something about……..?
Is it true/ right that they……..?
Is it possible/ do you mean that……?
Do we know/ can we tell ……..?

Giving facts

It is possible that ……..
It is a well-known fact that ……
We can be confident that ……..
We cannot be sure of this, but……..
What is certain is that ……

Assumed knowledge:

- The use of present simple, present continuous, past simple, past continuous and simple future.
- The use of distributives.
- The use of so/such…..that.
- The use of passive forms.
- The use of causative: have and get.
- The use of related vocabulary.
- The use of related expressions.

Target function: The above speaking functions are used to ask for and give facts.

Structure:

- Using the above structures to ask for and give facts.
- The use of causative: have and get.

New vocabularies: gain (v), invisible, process (n), remove, release (v).

Anticipated problems and solutions: Students may have problems with the use of the target grammar and vocabularies so that the class teacher starts the class by teaching the students the target grammar and vocabularies.		**Aids**: Students' textbook, PPT, white board, marker, computer, projector.		
Stages	**Procedure**	**Significance of the stage**	**Time/ minute**	**Classroom interaction: (T-Ss/ Ss-Ss)**
Presentation	- The teacher presents the grammar rules on the page (52) in the students' textbook through description supplemented with examples. - The teacher assigns a student to read the passage on the page (53) loudly. - The teacher writes the target words on the board as the nominated student goes through them. After the student finishes his reading of the passage, the teacher asks the students to guess the meanings of the target words based on the context in which they occur, and then he explains their meanings in the target language. - The teacher has the students listen to the pronunciation of the new words and asks them to repeat after him. - Using a PPT, the teacher shows examples on how to ask for and give facts about famous people.	- Students read for gist. - Teacher raises students' awareness of how the target words are used in context. - Teacher raises students' awareness of the written form of the target language. - Teacher is able to provide feedback. - Teacher provides students with opportunities to properly pronounce the target language.	20	T-Ss

Practice	- The students practice saying the instructed grammar correctly. - The activities may include drills, multiple-choice exercises, gap-and-cue exercises, and/ or transformations (these activities except the drill activities are taken from the students' textbook on page (52). - The teacher directs the activities, provides positive feedback to the students, corrects mistakes and models the correct forms. - Using a PPT prepared by the teacher, the students are asked to work in small groups to match the newly learned words with their corresponding meanings. - The teacher assigns some students to practice the target speaking functions (saying them loudly).	-Teacher provides students with opportunities to apply the target language. - Teacher is able to provide feedback. - Teacher provides students with opportunities to apply the target language to sentence level constructions.	15	T-Ss
Production	- The students are asked to use the newly learned grammar, words and speaking functions in their oral production of the target language. - Typical examples of the activities include those asking the students to discuss the question 5 on the page (55) in the students' textbook. - The teacher assigns the students to work in small groups during the discussion. - The teacher makes sure that the students are fully involved in the discussion and the discussion covers all target grammar, words and speaking functions.	-Teacher provides students with opportunities to apply the target language in an authentic context. -Teacher provides students with opportunities to personalize the target language. -Teacher provides students with opportunities to develop	15	Ss-Ss

		their speaking.		

Post lesson comments:
How did the lesson come out in relation to what you have planned in terms of aim, time, anticipated problems, classroom tasks and students' motivation?

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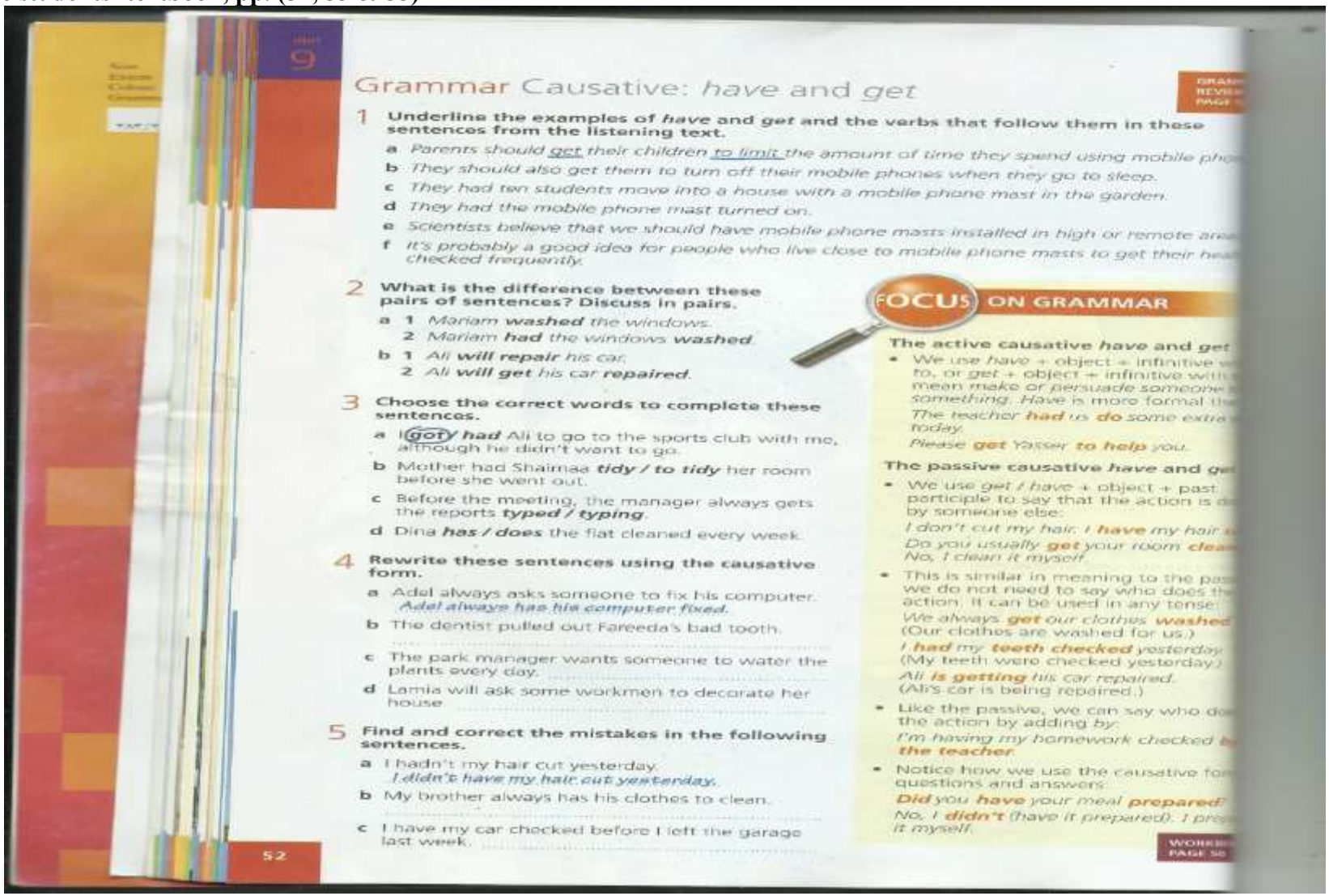
The students' textbook, pp. (52, 53 & 55)



9

Grammar Causative: *have* and *get*

1 Underline the examples of *have* and *get* and the verbs that follow them in these sentences from the listening text.

a *Parents should get their children to limit the amount of time they spend using mobile pho*

b *They should also get them to turn off their mobile phones when they go to sleep.*

c *They had ten students move into a house with a mobile phone mast in the garden.*

d *They had the mobile phone mast turned on.*

e *Scientists believe that we should have mobile phone masts installed in high or remote are*

f *It's probably a good idea for people who live close to mobile phone masts to get their hea checked frequently.*

2 What is the difference between these pairs of sentences? Discuss in pairs.

a 1 *Mariam **washed** the windows.*
2 *Mariam **had** the windows **washed**.*

b 1 *Ali **will repair** his car.*
2 *Ali **will get** his car **repaired**.*

3 Choose the correct words to complete these sentences.

a I **got / had** Ali to go to the sports club with me, although he didn't want to go.

b Mother had Shaimaa ***tidy / to tidy*** her room before she went out.

c Before the meeting, the manager always gets the reports ***typed / typing***.

d Dina ***has / does*** the flat cleaned every week.

4 Rewrite these sentences using the causative form.

a Adel always asks someone to fix his computer.
Adel always has his computer fixed.

b The dentist pulled out Fareeda's bad tooth.
.....

c The park manager wants someone to water the plants every day.
.....

d Lamia will ask some workmen to decorate her house
.....

5 Find and correct the mistakes in the following sentences.

a I hadn't my hair cut yesterday.
I didn't have my hair cut yesterday.

b My brother always has his clothes to clean.
.....

c I have my car checked before I left the garage last week.
.....

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FOCUS ON GRAMMAR

The active causative *have* and *get*

- We use *have* + object + infinitive w to, or *get* + object + infinitive with t mean *make* or *persuade someone* something. *Have* is more formal th
  *The teacher **had** us **do** some extra w today.*
  *Please **get** Yasser **to help** you.*

The passive causative *have* and *ge*

- We use *get / have* + object + past participle to say that the action is d by someone else:
  *I don't cut my hair. I **have** my hair c*
  *Do you usually **get** your room **clea***
  No, I clean it myself.
- This is similar in meaning to the pas we do not need to say who does th action. It can be used in any tense:
  *We always **get** our clothes **washed***
  (Our clothes are washed for us.)
  *I **had** my **teeth checked** yesterday*
  (My teeth were checked yesterday.)
  *Ali **is getting** his car repaired.*
  (Ali's car is being repaired.)
- Like the passive, we can say who do the action by adding *by*:
  *I'm having my homework checked b **the teacher**.*
- Notice how we use the causative for questions and answers:
  ***Did** you **have** your meal **prepared**?*
  *No, I **didn't** (have it prepared). I prep it myself.*

WORKB PAGE 50

Reading

1 **FOCUS ON VOCABULARY**

Check the meanings of these words in your dictionary.

gain *(v)* **invisible**
process *(n)* **remove** **release** *(v)*

2 **Look at the picture and title. What do you think the article is about?**

3 **Read the article, check your ideas and answer these questions.**

a What did Van Helmot want to find out by doing his experiments?
Where plants get their food from.

b What was the invisible food? .....

c How are leaves like factories? .....

4 **Read the article again and choose the correct answers.**

a It had been thought that plants got their food from ... .
A sunshine B soil
C rain water D air

b Van Helmot decided to do his experiments ... .
A to prove that what most people thought was right
B to show that what most people thought was wrong
C to check people's ideas
D to prove that other scientists' ideas were wrong

c How was the tree different after the experiment?
A It weighed more. B It had fewer leaves.
C It weighed less. D It ate more.

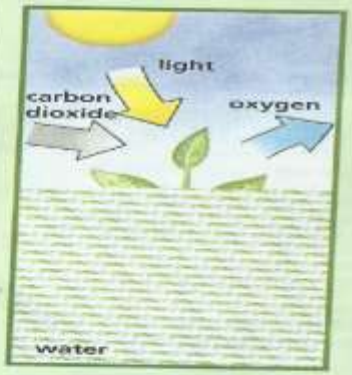
d After his experiment, where did Van Helmot think the tree's extra weight had come from?
A the soil B water
C light from the sun D oxygen in the air

e What food is produced by a plant's leaves?
A oxygen B soil C water D sugar

5 **Plants can produce their own food and oxygen. What else can benefit from this fact?**

Food from the air

Everyone has seen plants growing, but have you ever thought where they get their food from? In 1652, a European scientist called Van Helmot asked this question. Before this time, it had always been thought that plants must get their food from soil. However, Van Helmot decided to test the theory with experiments.



First, some soil was dried, put into a pot and weighed. After a small tree had been weighed, it was planted in a pot and rain water was added. Then, he had the tree watered regularly with rain water.

After five years, the tree was removed from the pot and weighed again.

Van Helmot found that the tree had **gained** a huge amount of weight. When he got the soil weighed, however, it was almost exactly the same weight as it had been five years earlier. Van Helmot thought this was strange, but decided that the extra weight of the tree must have come from the water. He did not realise that the tree was being fed by another **invisible** food.

We now know that plants and trees make their own food. Their leaves are like factories that produce everything they need, so that plants can change the energy from the sun into chemical energy. During this **process**, oxygen and sugar are produced. The oxygen is **released** back into the air, and the sugar is used by the plant as food.

Communication skills Asking for and giving facts

1 Work in pairs.

a You are going to listen to an expert talking about illnesses in the time of the ancient Egyptians. Think of two questions you would like to be answered.

b What other questions do you think he will answer?

2 Listen and circle the expressions that you hear to ask for facts.

FOCUS ON FUNCTIONS

Asking for facts

a I've heard that the ancient Egyptians had illnesses that were similar to ours today. Is that ***correct / true***?

b ***Could / Can*** you tell us something about what was eaten at this time?

c And is it ***true / right*** that they did not eat much meat?

d ***Is it possible / Do you mean*** that only rich people ate meat?

e And ***do we know / can we tell*** if the ancient Egyptians had doctors?

3 Listen again and put these phrases in the order that you hear them. Which two phrases show uncertainty?

FOCUS ON FUNCTIONS

Giving facts

- [ ] It is possible that ...
- [1] It is a well-known fact that ...
- [ ] We can be confident that ...
- [ ] We can't be sure of this, but ...
- [ ] What is certain is that ...

4 Listen again and answer the questions.

a Did the expert answer the questions you predicted in Exercise 1?

b What are the answers to Exercise 2?

5 Work in pairs. Have conversations using expressions from *Focus on functions*.

a **Student A** Prepare 3–4 questions to ask your partner about a famous scientist, using expressions from Exercise 2.

b **Student B** Prepare 3–4 questions to ask your partner about a famous sports person or doctor, using expressions from Exercise 2.

c Take turns to answer your partner's questions using expressions from Exercise 3. Remember which ones to use if you are uncertain of the answer.

6 Research important scientists

RESEARCH

Find out about two of these important scientists:


Fawzia Fahim


Ibn Al-Nafis


Gregor Mendel


Samira Moussa


Alexander Fleming

WORKBOOK PAGE 52

Lesson plan No. 7 (task-based instruction)
Topic/ theme: Finding work

School:		**Lesson focus:**	
Class:		**Date of lesson:**	
Number of student:		**Length of lesson**:	
Topic/ theme:		**Teacher's name:**	

Main aim:
By the end of this lesson, students will be able to ask and answer personal questions.

Exponent (s):

Asking and answering personal questions:

- Do you have any work experience?
- What are your interests and hobbies?
- Which exams have you passed?
- Where are you from?
- Which skills have you got?
- Where were you born and what is your nationality?
- Can you tell me about any awards or achievements?

Assumed knowledge:

- The use of present simple, present continuous, past simple, past continuous and simple future.
- The use of distributives.
- The use of so/such…..that.
- The use of passive forms.
- The use of causative: have and get.
- The use of reported statements.
- The use of related vocabulary.
- The use of related expressions.

Target function: This speaking function is used to ask and answer personal questions.

Structure:
Using the above structures to ask and answer personal questions.

Anticipated problems and solutions:

Students may have problems remembering some of related vocabularies so that the class teacher is going to refresh students' mind of them before assigning tasks to students.

Aids:
Students' textbook, flashcards, notebooks and worksheets.

Stages	Procedure	Significance of the stage	Time/ minute	Classroom interaction:

					(T-Ss/ Ss-Ss)
Pre-task		**Introduce the topic and the task:** Teacher gives out a worksheet with some personal information and the headings pertinent thereto and students have to match the correct headings to the related information. After this activity, the teacher is going to mention the instructions of the task. First, each student is going to find a couple. Second, each student is going to take one speaking card so student A is going to answer the questions that Student B asks. After that, student B is going to answer the questions that student A asks. Third, students are going to perform the task in front of the class and the rest of the class is going to take notes of the target functions covered during the task presentation.	- Teacher explains the significance of the lesson. - Teacher refreshes students' mind of the language they might need to carry out the task. - Teacher sets the stage for the task. - Students are exposed to the target language to notice the gap in their language.	10 minutes	T-Ss
Task cycle	Task	Students think or write the possible answers of the questions in students' textbook, page (65), exercise 3. In this stage, students must use the target functions to ask the questions about personal information.	- Motivation. - Focus on the use of language. - Focus on language form. - Exposure to the target language.	30 minutes	Ss-Ss
	Planning to report	Students practice how they are going to ask and answer. During this stage, teacher can help with some expressions and phrases that students may need during			

		their discussion and reporting on the task and verifies that students complete the task on time.			
	Reporting	Each couple passes in front of the class to ask and answer. At the same time, the rest of the class writes on their notebooks all target functions covered by the assigned groups while reporting on their task.			
Language focus		During the final stage, teacher is going to report what was said by a group in order to teach students how reported statements can be provided. He then asks students to provide reported statements of what was said by other classmates while preforming the task.	Teacher provides explicit instruction on the target language.	10 minutes	T-Ss

Post lesson comments:

How did the lesson come out in relation to what you have planned in terms of aim, time, anticipated problems, classroom activities and tasks and students' motivation?

……
……
……
……
……
……

Pre-task activity

- **Please match the headings to the related information.**
- **You have 5 minutes to complete this activity.**

Education	Mexico Study Abroad Summer Grant, 2018 UH Teaching Awards, 2017, 2018, 2020 Dissertation Fellowship, 2017
Research interests	English (native) Spanish (bilingual oral and written fluency) Classical Latin (written)
Achievement and awards	*Adjunct Lecturer, University of Houston* • Mexican-American Literature, Spanish 3331 • Women in Hispanic Literature, Spanish 3350 • Spanish-American Short Story, Spanish 4339 *Graduate Teaching Assistant, Northwestern University* • Elementary Spanish 1501, 1502, 1505 • Intermediate Spanish 2301, 2302, 2610
Skills	• National Association of Latino Arts and Cultures • Asociación Internacional de Literatura y Cultura Femenina Hispánica • Modern Languages Association
Publications	Hispanic Literature, Latin American Literature, Peninsular Literature

Experience	• Ph.D. in Spanish (US Hispanic Literature), 2018 – University of Houston. Dissertation: *Quixote Reborn: The Wanderer in US Hispanic Literature.* Sancho Rodriguez, Chair • M.A. in Spanish, June 2015 – University of Houston • B.A. in Spanish, June 2013 – University of Houston
Other activities	Gloria Gonzalez 3204 Windover Way Houston, TX 77204 ggonzalez@email.com 000.123.4567 (Cell)
Personal information	*Book* Gonzalez, Gloria. *Quixote Reborn: The Wanderer in US Hispanic Literature*. New Haven: Yale University Press (forthcoming) *Peer-reviewed Journals* Gonzalez, Gloria. "Mexican Immigrant Stories from the Central Valley," *Lady Liberty Journal*, 6(1): 24-41. Gonzalez, Gloria. "Comparing the Hispanic and European Immigrant Experience through Story," *Hispanic Literature Today* 12(3): 25-35. Gonzalez, Gloria. "Yearning to Be Free: 3 Hispanic Women's Diaries," *Hispanic Literature Today:* 11(2): 18-31.

The main Task:

- **Please use the following speaking cards to ask and answer the questions.**
- **Student A answers the questions asked by student B and vice versa.**
- **You have 15 minutes to complete this taks and to be ready to report on it in front of the class.**

Student A speaking card

- Where are you from?
- Can you tell me about any awards or achievements?
- What are your interests and hobbies?

Student B speaking card

- Do you have any work experience?
- Which skills have you got?
- Do you have any work experience?

Student A speaking card

- What are your interests and hobbies?
- Which exams have you passes?
- Where were you born and what is your nationality?

Student B speaking card

- Which exams have you passes?
- Can you tell me about any awards or achievements?
- Which skills have you got?

Student A speaking card

- Where were you born and what is your nationality?
- Which skills have you got?
- Do you have any work experience?

Student B speaking card

- Where are you from?
- What are your interests and hobbies?
- Can you tell me about any awards or achievements?
-

The students' textbook, p. (65)

UNIT 10

Communication skills
Asking and answering personal questions

1 **Look at the CV on page 63. Which questions could you ask to find the information you would need to complete a CV?**

2 **Listen to Amir and Baher and answer the questions.**

a Did they ask the same questions as you suggested in Exercise 1?

b Which of the jobs below does Baher want to apply for?

Representative needed for Egyptian medical company

VALLEY

All applicants should:
- have a BSc
- be under 30 years old
- have a driving license
- be able to speak English

Send your CV to:
Mrs A Hagrah
Valley plc
PO Box 701
Heliopolis

BIG COMP

We specialise in computers and computer programs.
We are now looking for a Customer Service Agent to deal with telephone calls and emails from customers.

Reply in writing to:
The Personnel Manager
PO Box 637, New City

3 **Listen again and put the questions below in the order that you hear them.**

FOCUS ON FUNCTIONS

Asking and answering personal questions

a ☐ Do you have any work experience?
b ☐ What are your interests and hobbies?
c ☐ Which exams have you passed?
d 7 Where are you from?
e ☐ Which skills have you got?
f ☐ Where were you born and what's your nationality?
g ☐ Can you tell me about any awards or achievements?

4 **Work in pairs.**

a Take turns asking and answering the questions from *Focus on functions*.

b Make a note of your answers because you will need these to write your own CV in the Workbook.

5 RESEARCH

Research the following about universities

Find out:
- which universities are near you
- which courses you would like to do in them
- what exam grades you would need to enter the university
- what qualifications the university courses would give you

WORKBOOK PAGE 64

65

Lesson plan No. 7 (presentation-practice-production)
Topic/ theme: Finding work

School:		**Lesson focus:**	
Class:		**Date of lesson:**	
Number of student:		**Length of lesson**:	
Topic/ theme:		**Teacher's name:**	

Main aim:
By the end of this lesson, students will be able to ask and answer personal questions.

Exponent (s): **Asking and answering personal questions:** - Do you have any work experience? - What are your interests and hobbies? - Which exams have you passed? - Where are you from? - Which skills have you got? - Where were you born and what is your nationality? - Can you tell me about any awards or achievements?	**Assumed knowledge:** - The use of present simple, present continuous, past simple, past continuous and simple future. - The use of distributives. - The use of so/such…..that. - The use of passive forms. - The use of causative: have and get. - The use of reported statements. - The use of related vocabulary. - The use of related expressions.

Target function: The above speaking functions are used to ask and answer personal questions.

Structure:
- Using the above structures to ask and answer personal questions.
- Using reported statements to report what someone said.

New vocabularies: candidate, choir, daycare center, fluent, grade (n), neighborhood.

Anticipated problems and solutions: Students may have problems with the use of the target grammar and vocabularies so that the class teacher starts the class by teaching the students the target	**Aids**: Students' textbook, PPT, white board, marker, computer, projector.

grammar and vocabularies.				
Stages	**Procedure**	**Significance of the stage**	**Time/ minute**	**Classroom interaction: (T-Ss/ Ss-Ss)**
Presentation	- The teacher presents the grammar rules on the page (62) in the students' textbook through description supplemented with examples. - The teacher assigns a student to read the CV on the page (63) loudly. - The teacher writes the target words on the board as the nominated student goes through them. After the student finishes his reading of the CV, the teacher asks the students to guess the meanings of the target words based on the context in which they occur, and then he explains their meanings in the target language. - The teacher has the students listen to the pronunciation of the new words and asks them to repeat after him. - Using a PPT, the teacher shows examples on how to ask and answer personal questions.	- Students read for gist. - Teacher raises students' awareness of how the target words are used in context. - Teacher raises students' awareness of the written form of the target language. - Teacher is able to provide feedback. - Teacher provides students with opportunities to properly pronounce the target language.	20	T-Ss

Practice	- The students practice saying the instructed grammar correctly. - The activities may include drills, multiple-choice exercises, gap-and-cue exercises, and/ or transformations (these activities except the drill activities are taken from the students' textbook on page (62). - The teacher directs the activities, provides positive feedback to the students, corrects mistakes and models the correct forms. - Using a PPT prepared by the teacher, the students are asked to work in small groups to match the newly learned words with their corresponding meanings. - The teacher assigns some students to practice the target speaking functions (saying them loudly).	-Teacher provides students with opportunities to apply the target language. - Teacher is able to provide feedback. - Teacher provides students with opportunities to apply the target language to sentence level constructions.	15	T-Ss
Production	- The students are asked to use the newly learned grammar, words and speaking functions in their oral production of the target language. - Typical examples of the activities include those asking the students to discuss the question 4 on the page (65) in the students' textbook. - The teacher assigns the students to work in small groups during the discussion. - The teacher makes sure that the students are fully involved in the discussion and the discussion covers all target grammar, words and speaking functions.	-Teacher provides students with opportunities to apply the target language in an authentic context. -Teacher provides students with opportunities to personalize the target language. -Teacher provides students with opportunities to develop	15	Ss-Ss

		their speaking.		

Post lesson comments:
How did the lesson come out in relation to what you have planned in terms of aim, time, anticipated problems, classroom tasks and students' motivation?

……
……
……
……
……
……

The students' textbook, pp. (62, 63 & 65)

UNIT 10

Grammar Reported statements

1 The interviewer reported what was said at the interview. What did the speakers say? Listen to check your answers.

a Mr Farag said he had passed his driving test the previous year.
"I passed my driving test last year."

b He told me that he had been working as a sales assistant. .....

c He explained that his uncle was encouraging him to find another job. .....

d He said that his uncle had sold our products for many years. .....

e He said that he was a sociable person and so he would enjoy talking to customers. .....

f I told him that we aren't interviewing any more people today. .....

g I promised that I would contact him on Saturday morning. .....

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2 Discuss these questions in pairs.

a What happens to the tense of the verb in reported statements?

b Can you circle the reporting verbs used in Exercise 1?

3 Report these sentences using the best reporting verbs.

admit	agree	explain
promise	say	shout	told

a "I'll be home tomorrow morning," he said.
He promised that he would be home the next morning.

b "My brother is helping me with my homework this afternoon," Manal said to her friend.
.....

c "We're hot because we've been playing tennis," Tarek said.
.....

d "The animal is dangerous!" said Mona loudly. .....

e "I lost the pen that you lent me," said Karim. .....

f "It would be great if we could go to England in the summer," said Nahla. .....

g "Yes, it would," I said. .....

FOCUS ON GRAMMAR

Reported statements

- To report what someone said, you usually move one step back.
  "I like tennis and I played a good game this mo said Leila. → Leila said that she liked tennis and played a good game that morning.
- You can use *that* between the reporting verb and statement. *Tell* is always followed by a pronoun:
  "It was an easy test." → He said / explained / tol (that) it was an easy test.
- You usually need to change words describing the and place, like *here, today, now* etc. The pronoun often needs to be changed:
  "I want to visit Cairo next week." → She said th wanted to visit Cairo the following week.
- Past perfect tenses and past modal verbs do not c
  "We could see the mountain after we had reach top of the tower." → He said that they could see mountain after they had reached the top of the
- There is no change when you report a fact:
  "The Nile is the longest river in the world." → The teacher told us that the Nile is the longest riv the world.
- You can have a reporting verb in the present when someone says something now or around now:
  "I am ready for the exam." → Ahmad says that h ready for the exam.
- You can use different reporting verbs, for example: *admit, explain, promise, shout, tell, threaten.*

WORKBOOK PAGE 62

62

Reading

1 FOCUS ON VOCABULARY

Check the meanings of these words and phrases in your dictionary.

candidate choir
daycare centre fluent
grade (n) neighbourhood

2 Read this CV quickly to find the answers to these questions.

a When was Ahmed Fawzy born?
He was born in 1999.

b When did he finish school? .....

c Which countries would he like to go to in the future? .....

3 Read the CV again. Are these sentences *True* or *False*? Correct the false sentences.

a Ahmed Fawzy went to school in Cairo.
False. He went to school in Alexandria.

b He did very well in the GSEC. .....

c At the moment, he is studying English at university. .....

d When he was at school, he won an award for his work on a magazine. .....

e He works in a neighbourhood daycare centre every evening. .....

f He is fluent in three languages. .....

g He likes camping, reading and singing. .....

4 Check the meaning of these abbreviations that you may see on a CV in your dictionary.

a DOB *Date of birth*

b IT .....

c BA .....

d PhD .....

e BSc .....

f MSc .....

Ahmed Fawzy

Home address
El Tonsy St, Bahary,
Alexandria, Egypt

Contact Information
Phone: 102 03 48004
Email: ahmed.fawzy@me.edu

DOB: 17/05/1999

Nationality: Egyptian

EDUCATION

2015–2018 English Secondary School, Alexandria General Secondary Education Certificate (GSEC) Thanawiya amma 2018 96%

2018–present English language, Cairo University

WORK EXPERIENCE

2016–2018 Editor of school magazine

ACHIEVEMENTS AND AWARDS

Academic

2018 – Special award for highest grade in English language

Sports: University Football Club – Captain of first team

Other activities: Charity work in home neighbourhood – in daycare centre for older people (two afternoons); camping; member of school book club and school choir

SKILLS

IT: Computing Grade 5
Experience in using Microsoft Office (Word and Excel)

Languages: Fluent in English
A little spoken Spanish and French

INTERESTS

Sports: Football, squash, athletics

Travel: I enjoy meeting people from other countries. I have travelled to Europe and Australia. My ambition is to visit the Far East (China and Japan).

5 Discuss these questions in pairs.

a What should your CV focus on in order to make you a suitable candidate for the job of Assistant Editor of an English magazine?

b Do you think that Ahmed Fawzy would be a good candidate for this job? Why / Why not?

Communication skills
Asking and answering personal questions

1 **Look at the CV on page 63. Which questions could you ask to find the information you would need to complete a CV?**

2 **Listen to Amir and Baher and answer the questions.**

a Did they ask the same questions as you suggested in Exercise 1?

b Which of the jobs below does Baher want to apply for?

3 **Listen again and put the questions below in the order that you hear them.**

FOCUS ON FUNCTIONS

Asking and answering personal questions

a ☐ Do you have any work experience?
b ☐ What are your interests and hobbies?
c ☐ Which exams have you passed?
d ☐ Where are you from?
e ☐ Which skills have you got?
f ☐ Where were you born and what's your nationality?
g ☐ Can you tell me about any awards or achievements?

4 **Work in pairs.**

a Take turns asking and answering the questions from *Focus on functions*.

b Make a note of your answers because you will need these to write your own CV in the Workbook.

5 **Research the following about universities**

RESEARCH

Find out:
- which universities are near you
- which courses you would like to do in them
- what exam grades you would need to enter the university
- what qualifications the university courses would give you

WORKBOOK PAGE 64

Appendix (H): Classroom Observations

(1) Guidance notes on the observation instrument for the observer

The aim of this observation is to understand exactly what both the teacher and students are doing each minute during the lesson. This observation is not to test the teacher or the participating students in any way but rather it aims to know how far the teacher is interacting with his students and the students are interacting with each other in the class.

All what the observer needs to do is to put a check (✔) in the appropriate box and nothing else. The observer does not intervene or interrupt the lesson under any reason, but he/she is there just to fill this form.

(2) Directions

1. Through the observation, the observer identifies what is happening at each minute in the classroom, and then he/she puts a check (✔) in the appropriate box.
2. It is possible to put more than one check in each box.
3. Also, if the participation extends for more than one minute, the observer puts also a check in the next box.
4. If anything happens during a minute that has nothing to do with the list below, the observer should leave it blank.
5. The observer should remember that he/she checks the class participation and does not check single utterances.

(3) Teachers' speaking code

P: Presenting: The teacher provides input to the students. He may describe, explain or narrate, whether from the textbook, his own knowledge, or from any other sources.

I: Giving Instructions: The teacher tells the students what to do, sets the task, says what is next, closes an activity, etc. If the teacher repeats the instructions mark it twice.

Q: Asking Questions: The teacher asks questions or elicits information. Mark as a **question** only if it demands an answer e.g. Ali, how many people are in your family? (Mark as **instruction** if the teacher asks a question with the purpose of organizing e. g. Ali, could you please ask José to summarize)

A: Answering Questions: The teacher responds to the students' questions.

F: Giving Feedback: The teacher evaluates, clarifies or comments on something students have said or done.

(4) <u>Students' speaking code</u>

ASQ: Asking Comprehension Questions: S asked their classmates for understanding of what they have heard, seen, read, said or done but after the teacher modeled the question.

ANQ: **Answering Comprehension Questions:** S answered comprehension check questions.

S&P: **Summarizing and Personalizing:** S summarized (students gave a shortened version of something that has been said, done, listened to, or read, connected the main ideas, stated the main points logically and sequentially, expressed opinion, told a personal experience, expanded on other ideas and or presented the results after a pair or group discussion)

PW: **Pair Work:** Students talked/discussed in pairs.

R: Repetition: Students repeated what the teacher or the audio said for language practice (pronunciation, grammar, etc.) but without any communicative purpose.

Observation form (TBI lesson)

Time	Teacher speaking					Students speaking				
Minute	P	I	Q	A	F	ASQ	ANQ	S&P	PW	R
1		✓								
2		✓	✓				✓			
3	✓	✓	✓				✓			
4	✓	✓✓			✓				✓	
5		✓			✓	✓✓			✓	
6		✓✓	✓			✓✓	✓		✓	
7		✓✓							✓	
8		✓							✓	
9		✓	✓			✓✓	✓	✓✓		
10		✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓✓		
11		✓	✓	✓✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	
12		✓		✓					✓	
13							✓		✓	
14									✓	
15			✓						✓	
16				✓					✓	
17						✓			✓	
18									✓	
19			✓		✓	✓		✓	✓	
20		✓		✓	✓			✓	✓	
21				✓				✓	✓	
22									✓	
23									✓	
24									✓	
25								✓	✓	
Total	2	16	8	7	5	9	7	9	20	

Time	Teacher speaking					Students speaking				
Minute	P	I	Q	A	F	ASQ	ANQ	S&P	PW	R
26								✓	✓	
27								✓✓	✓	
28		✓✓				✓			✓	
29		✓	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓		✓		✓	
30		✓		✓		✓		✓	✓	
31								✓✓	✓	
32								✓✓✓		
33								✓✓		
34								✓✓		
35								✓✓		
36								✓✓		
37								✓✓		
38								✓✓		
39								✓✓		
40								✓✓		
41	✓		✓		✓✓			✓✓		
42	✓		✓✓		✓✓		✓	✓✓		
43	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	
44				✓	✓	✓✓			✓	
45	✓					✓			✓	
46			✓	✓	✓		✓		✓	
47	✓			✓				✓		
48								✓✓		
49			✓		✓			✓✓		
50								✓		
Total	5	4	8	7	10	6	4	35	10	

Minutes	Times teacher talked					Times students talked				
	P	I	Q	A	F	ASQ	ANQ	S&P	PW	R
	7	20	16	14	15	15	11	44	30	—

* The teacher clearly defined and explained the task.
* The teacher asked lots of questions to check students' understanding of task instructions.
* The teacher provided opportunities for students to receive corrective feedback.

* The students effectively reported on the task but not all of them because time constraints.
* smooth transition from one phase to another.
* the class was full of interaction.
* All students completed the task assigned to them.
* The class time was insufficient to cover the activities in the textbook.
* The teacher managed to impose discipline and to run the lesson effectively.
* The students at the end of the lesson asked the teacher to add similar tasks in their speaking classes.
* The extensive use of the target language during the teaching and learning process

Observation form (3Ps lesson)

Time	Teacher speaking					Students speaking				
Minute	P	I	Q	A	F	ASQ	ANQ	S&P	PW	R
1		✓								
2		✓								
3	✓	✓	✓				✓			
4	✓							✓✓		
5	✓✓			✓		✓		✓✓		
6	✓	✓	✓				✓✓	✓		
7	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓		
8	✓✓	✓			✓		✓			
9	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓			
10	✓				✓	✓✓		✓		
11	✓	✓			✓✓			✓		
12	✓		✓		✓					
13	✓✓		✓✓			✓	✓✓			
14		✓						✓✓		
15	✓✓	✓	✓		✓			✓		
16	✓		✓		✓		✓		✓	
17	✓✓			✓					✓	
18	✓								✓	
19	✓	✓				✓		✓✓	✓	
20	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
21	✓		✓	✓			✓			
22	✓	✓✓					✓			
23		✓	✓✓				✓	✓✓	✓	
24			✓	✓✓	✓		✓✓		✓	
25		✓		✓	✓	✓			✓	
Total	25	15	14	8	11	8	16	18	8	

Time	Teacher speaking					Students speaking				
Minute	P	I	Q	A	F	ASQ	ANQ	S&P	PW	R
26			✓				✓		✓	
27		✓							✓	
28		✓✓								
29		✓		✓	✓	✓✓		✓		
30		✓		✓	✓	✓				
31									✓	✓
32			✓						✓	✓
33			✓	✓			✓✓	✓✓	✓	✓
34		✓	✓		✓✓	✓	✓	✓✓	✓	✓
35		✓✓		✓✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓
36	✓	✓		✓✓		✓			✓	✓
37	✓✓			✓✓					✓	
38	✓		✓						✓	
39									✓	
40									✓	
41									✓	
42									✓	
43									✓	
44	✓								✓	
45	✓				✓			✓✓	✓	
46	✓		✓				✓	✓		
47	✓			✓			✓			
48			✓✓		✓			✓		
49			✓	✓				✓		
50										
Total	8	9	9	12	7	6	7	11	16	6

Minutes	Times teacher talked					Times students talked				
	P	I	Q	A	F	ASQ	ANQ	S&P	PW	R
	33	24	23	20	18	14	23	29	24	6

* The teacher took control over the class
* The teacher managed to use the class time effectively to cover all activities.
* The teacher provided much opportunities for all students to engage by assigning them by names and by allowing them to work in groups.
* The teacher used the question - answer technique frequently to check students' understanding of the content.
* The teacher allowed for minimum use of the native language and much use of the target language.
* The students asked each other many comprehension questions to check their understanding of what the teacher said or meant.
* The teacher presented the vocabulary and their meaning effectively using computer-mediated technology.
* The teacher gave feedback during the first two stages.
* Easy transition from one phase to another.

Appendix (I): The Semi-Structured Interview

(1) Guidelines and Protocols

Dear teacher,

1. This interview is run by the researcher.
2. This interview is about the impact of task-based instruction on third-year students' speaking performance in terms of fluency.
3. The aim of this interview is to know teachers' beliefs towards the effective and successful implementation of TBI in Egypt.
4. This interview is conducted on one-on-one basis using the English language as a means for communication between the interviewer and the interviewee.
5. This interview is expected to be done in less than 30 minutes.
6. You agree to voluntarily participate in this interview and approve to give your attitudes and thoughts towards the discussed questions.
7. You take your time to answer the discussed questions. You also have the right not to answer any of these questions and to ask me to stop the interview if you do not want to continue with the interview for any reason.
8. This interview is audio-recorded to precisely analyze the recorded data.
9. The results of this interview will be kept confidential, and the names of the participants will be coded.
10. We will start the interview by collecting some demographic information about you before we go further in-depth into collecting the information about the task-based instruction strategy and its implementation in the Egyptian classroom context.
11. The following questions will be used to guide me during the interview and you may expect some follow-up questions based on your responses to enhance clarity and remove any ambiguity that may arise from your answers.

Thank you in advance for your participation

The researcher

(2) Questions' Guide

A. Biography data

1. How old are you?
2. What qualifications do you have?
3. How long have you been teaching English as a second language?
4. What kind of schools do you work in?
5. Which school level and grade do you teach?
6. How many courses, workshops or program did you attend to improve your teaching experience and skills in general and to improve your understanding of TBI in particular?

B. Information with the focus on TBI

7. Teachers' understanding of TBI
    - Where did you learn about TBI and when?
    - How do you define TBI?
    - How do you define a task?
    - What are the different types of tasks?
    - What are the different TBI frameworks?
8. Teachers' teaching experience using TBI
    - Have you implemented TBI in EFL classrooms before?
    - If yes, how often?
    - How were the lessons instructed? Give an example?
9. Teachers' opinion about TBI
    - Do you think that TBI could be used in the classroom to improve students' speaking abilities in general and speaking fluency in particular?
    - What are the merits of application of TBI in Egypt?
    - What are the challenges against the application of TBI in Egypt?
    - Do you think that the current educational system in terms of evaluation and curriculum is suitable for TBI? Why?
    - Do you think that TBI could positively change EFL teaching in Egypt? Why?
10. Teachers' teaching practices
    - What are the teaching strategies you currently use in the classroom?
    - What do you think is most important for students in EFL classrooms in Egypt: focus on form or focus on meaning? Why?

Appendix (J): Samples of the Semi-Structured Interviews

Sample No. 1

Interviewee code: **A** Interview time: **28.05 minutes**

Starting time: **1:12pm** Ended time: **1:40 pm**

Interview date: **March 14, 2021**

Place of the interview: **Teachers' room in the first floor.**

Interview facilities/instruments used: **Field note, pen, mobile recorder and copies of the interview's guidelines and guiding questions.**

Speaker	Speech
Researcher	This interview is about the impact of task-based instruction on third-year students' speaking performance in terms of fluency. You agreed to voluntarily participate in this interview. I explained to you the reasons for this interview and you approved to give your attitudes and thoughts towards the discussed questions. You have the right not to answer any of these questions and to ask me to stop the interview if you do not want to continue with the interview for any reason. Now, we will start this interview by collecting some demographic information about you before we go further in-depth into collecting the information about the task-based instruction strategy and its implementation in the Egyptian classroom context.
Researcher	My first question is: How old are you?
Teacher	I am 36 years old.
Researcher	What qualifications do you have?
Teacher	I had the master degree in English language teaching from the Faculty of Education, from Mansoura University in 2015. Department of curriculum and teaching methods. This in my latest degree. I also had some diplomas in Teaching English before the master degree as a pre-requisite to have the master in English.
Researcher	Good. How long have you been teaching English as a second language?
Teacher	Well, I have been teaching English as a second language after one year from graduation from the Faculty of Education. Approximately from 2006.Almost about 14 years now.
Researcher	Ok, good. It's good. Long experience in English language teaching. So, what kind of schools do you work in?
Teacher	I work in a government school in the morning. Also I work in a private educational institute in the afternoon. It is an educational center and it is provides English language teaching services for students from different ages

	and from different language levels. It also provide certificates for the students who completed the courses.
Researcher	Very interesting. So, which level and grade do you teach in the governmental school?
Teacher	I teach third-year secondary school at the moment in this school.
Researcher	And what courses do you teach in the private center?
Teacher	I teach general courses, advanced courses, conversation courses, IELTS courses, and it is for the students at different levels and for different qualifications.
Researcher	Ok, my last question in this category is: How many courses, workshops or programs do you attend to improve your teaching experience and skills in general and to improve your understanding of task-based in particular?
Teacher	I did not take any private courses or workshops. I had my teaching experience from the observation of senior teachers and the recommendations of my supervisors. From teaching in schools and other educational centers also. I also had theoretical teaching experience and background during my master.
Researcher	Ok, now, let us move to the questions about task-based instruction and its implementation in the classroom. We will start this by the questions about your knowledge of the task-based strategy, and the first question in this category is: Where did you learn about task-based instruction strategy and when?
Teacher	I first learned about the strategy from my study at the bachelor and master level. This is before I teach English for students of course. Then, I learn more about it during my practical experience and observations of my colleagues and also through the exchange of experience with them.
Researcher	So, to confirm this information, you have a theoretical and practical experience about task-based. Theoretically from the books you studied and practically from you being involved in teaching process.
Teacher	Yes, exactly.
Researcher	This sounds great.
Researcher	Ok. By the way, I have another question: did the lecturers or professors use or focus on task-based strategy in their teaching?
Teacher	No, they did not. They just reviewed it among other teaching approaches used in second language classrooms. They were lecturing or presenting the information to cover the books.
Researcher	Ok, now from your knowledge about task-based: how do you define this teaching strategy?
Teacher	Well, this strategy is one of the communicative strategies to language teaching. It is a new strategy. It focuses on communication in classroom. It focuses also on teaching through interaction with students. This allow students to be responsible for their learning. Teachers work on as supervisors for students, direct them and also advise them and correct their mistakes when they make them.

Researcher	Sounds like you know this strategy very well, but to confirm this: can you tell me what is meant with a task in the task-based instruction strategy?
Teacher	Tasks are similar to classroom activities but here the students work together not individually in order to finish the task given to them. The students have to consult each other to finish the task. Also, the task is not considered done until they finish it and tell the teacher about it.
Researcher	Ok, good. Did you hear about different types of tasks? If so, what are they?
Teacher	Well, yes I heard. There are different tasks for each skill. There are tasks for speaking, tasks for writing, tasks for reading and tasks also for listening.
Researcher	Ok, good. Are there any particular tasks used to improve the speaking skill?
Teacher	No, i do not know about this, but we can make any task for speaking if the teacher give the students the chance to interact and speak during the task.
Researcher	Ok, this leads us to the next category with the questions about the use of task-based instruction in the classroom, and the first question in this category is: have you implemented task-based instruction in second language classrooms?
Teacher	Yes, I did. I tried it before, but to be honest I do not use it much in my classroom, because the class is big and the students are a little bit weak.
Researcher	Ok, we will go back to this reasons later in the interview. Ok, now, let's move ahead to the following question which is: How did the lesson look like? let me simplify this for you: how did you give the lesson using the task-based strategy?
Teacher	Well, first I give the students general instruction about the lesson. How it will be conducted. Then, I give them a brief about the task, trying to refresh their minds of the topic. Then, I divide the students into small groups, and ask each group to work together. Also, I allow them to write what they know on a paper. Then, I create an atmosphere of competition among the groups, in order to motivate them to finish the task. I also give the students time to prepare, and then I choose some students from different groups to speak about the task. After the students finish, I comment or give my comments on their work, and give feedback and also explain the mistakes in their language.
Researcher	Ok. This sounds very interesting.
Researcher	Do you adopt any particular task-based framework?
Teacher	No, this is what I use when I teach the lessons using task-based.
Researcher	Ok. Have you heard about the different types of task-based frameworks?
Teacher	No, I do not remember this.
Teacher	What are those frameworks?
Researcher	Ok. There are many types of task-based frameworks introduced by task-based advocates. Some of them focus on meaning before form, and some on form before meaning, and some on both together, but they are all agree with you on three phases of tasks, as you just explained. The three phases are the pre-task

	phase, the during-task phase and the post-task phase.
Teacher	Ok. Good.
Researcher	Now, we are moving to the following category which provides questions about your opinion towards task-based, and my first question in this category is: do you think that task-based instruction could be used in the classroom to improve students' speaking abilities in general and their speaking fluency in particular?
Teacher	Yes, I think so. Task-based is an effective strategy, and can be applied in the classroom to improve the speaking skill, including fluency of course because it gives the students the chance to talk much and use, to use the second language. It makes the teacher focus on the mistakes in the language, and to improve the poor language of students. Also, it gives them time to think before they speak, and this enable them to speak fast and improve fluency.
Researcher	Great, so, from your opinion: what are the advantages of application of task-based in Egypt?
Teacher	This is a good question. Yes. The advantages are many. For example, our students cannot speak proper English and this is a good strategy to improve this skill. Not only this, it can also improve their grammar and vocabulary when they work with other and receive feedback from teachers. It also makes the students active in class. Also, make them responsible students and not passive students. Also, it creates interaction and also allow to use the tasks that touch the students, and this would help to motivate students to speak. Also, it improve the teachers' speaking skills and allow them to use the second language as much as possible. Moreover, it reduces the burden from teachers. Also, it gives teachers the chance to know the weak points of students. Additionally, it breaks the barrier and fear among students when they interact with other students in the class and allow the students also to think of the task themselves with help from the teacher.
Researcher	Very detailed answer indeed. Thank you for this, and from you viewpoint: what are the challenges against the application of this strategy in Egypt?
Teacher	Well, there are also many disadvantages and these disadvantages hinder me from using it in my classroom. Well, first of all is our classes are very big, and this need more time to enable the students to interact in class. This also hinder me from focusing on the weakness of students which is the main reason for using it. The second thing is that, the students are weak in my class. Even when I try this to encourage them to speak, they give very short answers. They cannot provide lengthy answer. They are afraid to make mistakes. Also, teachers are not qualified well to use this strategy. They are not trained on these strategies. They know it from the books only and they do not practically experience it by themselves. Also, many do not use it because they do not know it. Also, many of them do not use it because it is difficult and need teachers to be good speakers of English or fluent in English, and they do not have confidence to speak and they used the first language much in class also. As I said before, It also needs more time to allow students to engage with their groups in the work and also tell their teachers the result of their work. Adding

	also to this, the exam assess students only on writing and having good vocabulary. That's it.
Researcher	Great. Very detailed and elaborate answer. This is going to be my next question: why do you think that the current educational system in terms of evaluation is not suitable for this strategy?
Teacher	Because the exams evaluate memorization of words and if students are able to write proper English, and task-based focus on speaking not on words and not on writing.
Researcher	Ok. What about its suitability for the current curriculum?
Teacher	For curriculum, I think it is suitable because, you know, the textbook gives many speaking activities which encourages students to work in groups. This is one of the principles of task-based.
Researcher	Ok. Very interesting answer indeed. Now let's move to the next question: do you think that task-based could positively change English as a foreign language teaching in Egypt?
Teacher	Of course, I totally agree because teaching now focus on teachers while in task-based the focus is on the students themselves. This will change the students from passive to active students.
Researcher	Great. We are approaching the end of these questions, with only one category left which includes questions about the teaching practices in the classroom. My first question here is: What is the teaching strategy you currently use in the classroom? And why you use it?
Teacher	I am currently using the grammar translation method because it is suitable for the level of students and also because it is suitable for the number of students and the time of the class. I can cover almost the whole material also. Most important, I teach the final-year and the students in this year is interested in getting high marks only, and my teaching methods help students more in this matter.
Researcher	Ok. Our last question is: what do you think is most important for students in English language classrooms: focus on form or focus on meaning, and why?
Teacher	I think it depends on the level of the students. In my classes, I think the focus is on the form is more important because it does not require high level of students. The focus on meaning would be the next steps after the students know the basic of the language. This is also one of reasons why I use the grammar-translation method in my classes.

Sample No. 2

Interviewee code: **C** Interview time: **23.14 minutes**

Starting time: **1:36pm** Ended time: **1:58 pm**

Interview date: **March 15, 2021**

Place of the interview: **Teachers' room in the first floor.**

Interview facilities/instruments used: **Field note, pen, mobile recorder and copies of the interview's guidelines and guiding questions.**

Speaker	Speech
Researcher	This interview is about the impact of task-based instruction on third-year students' speaking performance in terms of fluency. You agreed to voluntarily participate in this interview. I explained to you the reasons for this interview and you approved to give your attitudes and thoughts towards the discussed questions. You have the right not to answer any of these questions and to ask me to stop the interview if you do not want to continue with the interview for any reasons. This interview consists of two main phases. The first phase is to collect some demographic information about you, and the second phase is about the implementation of task-based instruction strategy in the Egyptian classroom context.
Researcher	Now we will start the first phase with the questions about your demographic information, and the first question is: How old are you?
Teacher	I am 29 years old.
Researcher	What qualifications do you have?
Teacher	Well. I have a graduate diploma in English from the Faculty of Education. At the moment I am taking the second diploma in English also. I had my bachelor degree from the Faculty of languages, English department in 2012 from Al-Azhar university.
Researcher	Ok. The following question is: How long have you been teaching English as a second language?
Teacher	Ok. I am teaching English since I graduated from the faculty in 2012.
Researcher	Ok. The following question is: What kind of schools do you work in?
Teacher	I taught English in private schools like Nile school and Delta school, but now I teach in the government school also since 2015, which is five years ago. This is not my school but I am teaching in another nearby school. It is a secondary school for men, but I am here to help only because, you know, the shortage of language teachers in this school. My administration asked me to work in this school this whole term until things get back to normal, as you know because of corona virus.
Researcher	Ok, good. The following question is, which school level and grade do you

	teach?
Teacher	Now, I teach in secondary schools, and first-year students.
Researcher	Ok, our last question about the demographic information is: how many courses, workshops or program did you attend to improve your teaching experience and skills in general and in this strategy in particular?
Teacher	As I said before, I had a graduate diploma, and now I am working on a second or another diploma right now. Also, I had two workshops with my colleagues in my school after I joined to work in the school, to know about the school, about the books, you know, approved by the Ministry of Education, also about the teaching techniques they use and also about the other services provided by the school.
Researcher	Ok, great. Based on you answer I need to ask you one more question before going to the next phase of the interview, and the question is: what are the teaching techniques adopted in your school?
Teacher	Well, we are told that the ministry of education wants students to interact and also to speak more in the classroom through the use of many communicative activities because English, as you know, is very important language, and the whole world speak it.
Researcher	But is there any specific teaching technique or strategy?
Teacher	Well, we are not told to use a specific one. It is left to us, I mean to teachers, to try and find the best one for our students.
Researcher	Now, we are moving to the second phase in our interview with the questions about the knowledge and implementation of task-based instruction in the classroom, and the first question in this phase is: where did you learn about the task-based instruction and when?
Teacher	Right, I have learned about this strategy, which is the task-based strategy, during the diploma I got in 2014. We have studied many teaching techniques and approaches related to language teaching, and we have studied also the task-based as one of strategies we take.
Researcher	Ok. What were the teaching strategies adopted by the professors?
Teacher	Yes, at this time they used the traditional teaching strategies. We attend the lecture and we listen to it.
Researcher	Ok. So, can you tell me what does task-based instruction mean?
Teacher	Well, yes I can. This technique focus on achieving the outcome which is, improve students' communicative skills. This is the main goal of this strategy. Also, this technique allows students to discover and also to think critically. The teacher are not the provider of information but the students have to find it themselves. Also, It requires that, students have pervious knowledge about the language to use it when they work by themselves in the classroom.
Researcher	Very interesting answer. Ok, can you tell me what is exactly meant with a task in the task-based instruction strategy?

Teacher	Yes, I can. It is a good question indeed because there is a confusion between tasks and activities. We had this argument in our class before with my colleagues, and our professor explained it to us. He said that the task has many procedures in the classroom. For example, the task should have organized shape, such as the pre-task and the post-task. There is also report on the task. There is feedback on the task. The activities do not have this. They, I mean the activities, are exercises on the lessons.
Researcher	Ok. Then, what are the different types of tasks?
Teacher	Well, there are many tasks of course teachers can use. There are reading tasks, speaking, grammar tasks, writing tasks and also we have listening tasks.
Researcher	Great, ok. What about the speaking tasks, can you mention some of them?
Teacher	Yes of course, we have discussion task, debate task, greeting tasks, road direction tasks and many other tasks of course.
Researcher	Excellent. Good answer. So, what do you know about the different types of task-based frameworks, do you know them?
Teacher	Well, I remember, I think, the one by Skehan and the one by Nunan.
Researcher	What do you know about them?
Teacher	The one by Skehan focus on the grammar first then communication, as I remember I think, and the other one do the opposite, I mean, focus on communication first then grammar.
Researcher	Very good. You sound very familiar with this strategy, and this leads us to the next category in this phase of interview which is about teachers' experience in using task-based instruction in the classroom, and the question is: have you implemented this strategy before in your classrooms?
Teacher	In fact, no, I have not. It is hard for my students because it needs high level students and the level of my students is low and medium sometimes but not high. This strategy requires students to think in English, and have previous knowledge about English first. It needs that, the students are able to speak in English. The students should think and speak in English also using the second language, and my students do not have good level in English to do this.
Researcher	Ok. Your answer is clear, but I wonder, from where you got this confidence that your students are not going to benefit from this strategy, you know, because a major part of the success of any strategy is on the teacher and also on his understanding of the principles of the strategy being used in the classroom?
Teacher	Well, I do not agree with you in this point, which is the major part is on the teacher. The teacher role is important I know but, now, and according to the new techniques, the major part is on the students. If you know that there are weak students, and you know that this strategy wants high level students, then the students will not benefit from it.
Researcher	Ok, good idea, but does it mean that this strategy is not effective to improve students' speaking abilities in general and speaking fluency in particular?

Teacher	Of course it is effective. Actually it is very effective, and I know its basic lines very well. But in my classroom I need to modify it to suit the level of my students.
Researcher	Ok. How can you modify it to suit the level of your students?
Teacher	Well, first, the tasks should not be difficult. You can give the students the tasks about things, for example, and they can imagine or face everyday. If the task is difficult I should change it. I can use tasks like shopping or, for example, family member. These tasks are familiar to the students and not hard for them, and I can use them in the class to improve my students' speaking.
Researcher	Good, why then did not you modify the task to suit the level of your students?
Teacher	If I use this strategy I am not going to teach the content of the text book of course, and this is not allowed by the administration of my school. I think this is not allowed also by the Ministry of Education.
Researcher	Well, ok. We will go back to this point later in this interview because it is very important and we have something to talk about. Now, the following question is: what are the advantages of the application of task-based in Egypt from your point of view?
Teacher	Right, no content, and this means more creativity by the teacher, means more searching and reading by the teacher, and this good for the students of course. Also, Make of use of technology available in the schools, and the students will be more engaging. Also, the students will develop their thinking and will be critical thinkers, and this is important now in the new ways of teaching.
Researcher	Ok, on the other hand, what are the challenges against the application of task-based in Egypt?
Teacher	I think it is not suitable for the level of student. The administration will not support this. The content will not be covered also. It also need more time because, as you know, it is full of interaction, and this, is needs more time. Also, the teachers have to be able to modify the task if it is hard for the students, and not all teachers, as you know, can do this. Also, teachers may run away from it simply because they may not know about it, and this will make them uncomfortable with the teaching, or may not use it correctly or properly.
Researcher	Yes. Very detailed response indeed. Thanks for this. Now let's go back to your response about the unsuitability of the textbook, can you explain in details why the textbook is not suitable for this strategy?
Teacher	Yes. Textbook is content-based while the task-based is goal-based, this is the main difference, and we are asked to cover the students' book from the first page to the last page, and with the task-based we can use any tasks that finally will lead us to improving the language level of students. This also going to be a problem if the textbook provided tasks not suitable for students' level. Also, the teachers may not be able to modify them and then the students will not benefit from it of course.
Researcher	Ok, a very insightful idea, now: what about the suitability of the evaluation system for the task-based instruction?

Teacher	Right. Indeed this is a very good question because the evaluation system needs more reviews by education experts in order to improve the education system in Egypt. The current one depends only on knowing the grammar, and nothing to test the communication skills. This means that, this strategy is useless, because the students and teachers will not give it their concern, simply because communication is not part in the exam.
Researcher	Ok, very good. The following question is: do you think that the task-based strategy could positively change English language teaching in Egypt?
Teacher	Yes of course, if applied. It will make a shift in teaching indeed. The teaching will meet the new ways of teaching also, in which students are the source of the knowledge not the teacher, as we do now in our classes.
Researcher	Ok, great. Ok, now, let's move to the last category in our interview with the questions about teachers' teaching practice in the classroom, and my question is: What is the teaching strategy you currently use in the classroom? And why do you use it?
Teacher	Right. Yes, in fact, I am using the traditional one but with focus in the activities of communication. For example, I explain the lesson for the students, and if there is a new grammar, I teach and after I make sure that they understood the lesson by asking them questions about the lesson, I give the students the chance to solve the activities together. Each desk has a question and I choose one from each desk to answer the question, and let the other students interact with this answer.
Researcher	Ok, good explanation, ok, using of course an example, Now my last question is, what do you think is most important for students in English language classrooms: focus on form or focus on meaning, and why?
Teacher	Right. I think the focus on form should come first, then focus on meaning. It is very important to provide students with the necessary knowledge that they can use, to give good answers.

Sample No. 3

Interviewee code: **G** Interview time: **21.33 minutes**

Starting time: **1:18pm** Ended time: **1:40 pm**

Interview date: **March 17, 2021**

Place of the interview: **Teachers' room in the first floor.**

Interview facilities/instruments used: **Field note, pen, mobile recorder and copies of the interview's guidelines and guiding questions.**

Speaker	Speech
Researcher	This interview is about the impact of task-based instruction on third-year students' speaking performance in terms of fluency. You agreed to voluntarily participate in this interview. I explained to you the reasons for this interview and you approved to give your attitudes and thoughts towards the discussed questions. You have the right not to answer any of these questions and to ask me to stop the interview if you do not want to continue with the interview for any reasons. This interview consists of two main parts. The first part is to collect some demographic information about you, and the second part is about the implementation of task-based instruction strategy in the Egyptian classroom context.
Researcher	Now we will start the first part with the questions about your demographic information, and the question is: How old are you?
Teacher	I am 40 years old.
Researcher	Ok. What qualifications do you have?
Teacher	I have a master degree in TESOL.
Researcher	Ok. So, the second or the third question: How long have you been teaching English as a second language?
Teacher	I have been teaching English as a second language for the past 16 years.
Researcher	So, what kind of schools do you work in?
Teacher	At the moment, I work in secondary school. And before, I worked in private and international schools.
Researcher	Ok. Which school level and grade do you teach?
Teacher	I taught across from KG 2 up to grade 10 in international schools, and now, I am teaching first-year in secondary school in governmental school.
Researcher	Ok. So, how many courses, workshops or program did you attend to improve your teaching experience and skills in general and in this strategy in particular?
Teacher	I took so many. Over 5 courses to improve my teaching skills.
Researcher	Very interesting. Ok. Actually, you sound over-qualified. It is the first time to

	find a teacher with this number of courses taken to develop her teaching experience and skill. Ok, so, can you please mention some of the courses you attended?
Teacher	Yes. I attended, for example, making PYP happen in the classroom, category one. Reading and write through inquiry, category three. Achieving excellency through life skills education, English as a foreign language. And, inquiry teaching and learning in PYP, category two.
Researcher	Ok. So, now we will move to the second part of the interview with the questions about your knowledge towards the task-based instruction, and my question here is: where did you learn about the task-based and when?
Teacher	The first time I heard about task-based was in 2011, 10 years ago, when I started working in an IB school because IB school, they use the task-based instruction.
Researcher	Ok, very interesting. Ok. So, the question is: How do you define task-based instruction?
Teacher	Task-based instruction is a student-centered and the strategy focus on student, and the teacher provide the student with the task to work on, and this is how they develop certain skills like speaking.
Researcher	Ok. So, how can you define a task in the task-based instruction?
Teacher	Task-based refer to two different type, whether it is pedagogical task that is related to any subject like maths, or English or any subject, or it could be real-life task related to, let's say, to science that they need to investigate. A task has to involve the process of the information, and then the student, they need to communicate, and it could be done like in, you know, partner or in a group work.
Researcher	Ok. Good. So, what are the different types of task-based frameworks?
Teacher	There are so many. There is Prabhu's task-based frame. There is also Long's task-based framework and there is Nunan's, and there is Willis, and Willis is the most famous, and this is the one I used in my classroom.
Researcher	Very good. This answer allows us to smoothly move, actually, to the second category in this second part with the questions about teachers' practical experience in this strategy, and the question is: how often do you implement this strategy in your classroom?
Teacher	I did this when I taught the task-based when I was teaching in IB school, and this is, was from 2011 till 2017, and all the lessons that I taught, they were task-based, but now, because I am teaching in, you know, governmental school, we implement the 3Ps strategy not the task-based.
Researcher	Ok. You mentioned earlier that you used Willis's task-based framework, so the question is, how do you implement this framework in your classroom?
Teacher	It goes into steps. So, the first steps is to make the information or the task easier for the students through an introduction, where we refresh the students' information through the vocabulary, and anything related the task. Then the second step is where the student, they work on the task and they reflect and report on the task, and this is the most important steps, because the teacher will take what the student reflected on the task and what they reported, and the

	teacher will focus on the mistakes and explain it again, whether it was grammar, whether it was any mistake or any information, so the student will improve.
Researcher	Ok. So, this is going to be the third step, so we have three steps, right?
Teacher	Yes.
Researcher	Yes, great.
Researcher	Ok, you sound very familiar, actually, with task-based instruction and its implementation in the classroom. Ok. Now let's move to the third category in this second part with the questions about your beliefs, attitudes and opinions towards this strategy, and the question is: do you think that this strategy is effective to improve students' speaking abilities in general and speaking fluency in particular?
Teacher	The task-based instruction is very good way of teaching, and definitely teaching student to speak is easy to implement using these strategies. Yes, and it also help the student fluency because the student have to do the rehearsals before reporting on the task, and this will make their speaking more fluent.
Researcher	Ok. That is a very good opinion. Thanks for this. Now, the following question is: what are the advantages of implementation of task-based in Egypt?
Teacher	The task-based, the approach are usually, any activity in rich in language, and it focus on all the skills, whether it is the speaking, the writing, the listening or reading. So, when we say that, the student are improving their learning, it will be in all the skills, the language skills. And then, since I mentioned, remember, early that it is the student-oriented strategy, so the student will be more active in classroom, and they will be, you know, critical thinker as well. So, these two will definitely make the student improve and learn easier and faster.
Researcher	Ok, good. So, what about the challenges against the application of task-based in Egypt?
Teacher	The main thing is that it is not applicable to all student, and the reason that I am saying this is that some student are not being creative, and they do not have the ability to do the research and they do not like to, you know, being in the spotlight and to lead. Some of them also because they lack the language and they do not like to learn English, and they do not understand, and this is the problem if they do not understand the significance of learning English as a second language, this is will make it difficult for them. Also, in Egypt, most of us, teachers, are not trained to apply this strategy in the classes. So, I do not know, in my opinion, I feel that if the strategy is implemented the correct way with the teacher being trained and you know have the student differently, like, have to the ability to learn, then it will be a success in Egypt. And, you know that the class size also is huge and it make a big difference. So, when we have classes that have more than 24 student, it will make it hard to implement task-based activity and for any teacher to maintain discipline in the classroom. So, I think it depend on the place and the program implemented. So, again we go back to, I feel that, in my opinion, this strategy will be successful more in the IB schools because the teachers are more trained, the students are well aware of what happening more

	than the governmental schools, and I am talking this because I experience this in two different type of school. So, there is a big difference, a big gap between both of them.
Researcher	Great. So, can you, please, elaborate more on the difference between IB schools and the governmental schools in terms of curriculum and evaluation systems?
Teacher	Now, the curriculum and evaluating system in the governmental school are more through teacher-orient strategy where the focus in the delivering the content by the teachers, and the students, they have to understand, but in the IB, the curriculum and evaluating system is through student-orient strategies, and they focus on the students being, you know, the one is being critical thinker and the problem solver, and they are able to learn by doing the task themselves and the teacher is just an assistant in the classroom.
Researcher	Interesting, ok. So, the following question is: do you think that the task-based strategy could positively change English language teaching in Egypt?
Teacher	Yes. You know, if it is implemented in a proper way and they use teachers who are trained, and of course as I said, the class size, it is smaller not huge like in governmental school, and the type of student, if they have, you know, they are encouraged to creative student, all of this, yes.
Researcher	And it is going to be effective, right?
Teacher	Yes.
Researcher	Ok. Excellent. Now we will move to the last category in our interview with the questions about teachers' teaching practice in the classroom. You already mentioned that you currently use the 3Ps strategy in your classroom, of course in the governmental school, and the question is: why do you use it?
Teacher	Because the type of student that I have now are different. So, many of my student in my classes are passive and they are not creative. So, they are used to receiving the information before using it in any activity, and this is what I do now when I use the 3Ps strategy. Also, I do not think so, that the time will enable me to teach the textbooks, you know, using the task-based as this will be a problem for the student because they have exam and they need to study from the textbook.
Researcher	Excellent. So, ok, what do you think is most important for students in English language classroom in Egypt: focus on form or focus on meaning?
Teacher	This is depend on the place where the second language is taught. So, the student of IB schools are definitely differently from the governmental schools. The IB school, they focus on meaning before form because there is interaction between the teacher and the student, but in the governmental school the focus is on the form before the meaning because the teachers, they present the content and give it delivered to the student. So, I think the focus on meaning is most important for IB student because they are used to it and this is what they focus on opposite to the governmental schools, where the focus is on form.