

**The Effect of Task-Based Language Teaching on  
Developing Speaking Skills among the Palestinian  
Secondary EFL Students in Israel and Their  
Attitudes towards English**

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## **Dedication**

To Allah, The Merciful, I dedicate this humble work.

To my parents who were very enthusiastic, proud and supporting through my studying at different universities.

To my wife, Manal, for her patience in the difficult situations and for her encouragement.

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## **ABSTRACT**

Tareq, Mitib Murad. (2009). The Effect of Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) on Developing Speaking Skills among the Palestinian Secondary EFL Students in Israel and Their Attitudes towards English. Ph.D. Dissertation, Yarmouk University. (Supervisor: Professor Oqlah Smadi).

This objective of this study was to investigate the effect of a task-based language teaching program on developing the speaking skills of Palestinian secondary students and their attitudes towards English. The students were in the eleventh grade (second secondary grade) during a period of three months in which this study was conducted (January-March) of the academic year 2008/2009.

The present study attempted to answer the following questions:

First, is there a statistically significant difference between the subjects' mean scores on the English speaking test due to the interaction between the teaching procedure (TBLT vs the conventional procedure) and subjects' gender?

Second, is there a statistically significant difference between the subjects' mean scores of the attitudes towards English due to the interaction between the teaching procedure and subjects' gender?

The participants in the study are 91 eleventh grade students, 37 boys and 54 girls, from Bueina- Nujidat and Tamra High Schools. A task-based

language teaching program was developed by the researcher for the experimental group.

The following instruments were used in this study::

1. A pre-test of speaking skills and post-test to measure the effect of the instructional program on developing the students' oral social interaction. The test covered the dimensions of accuracy and fluency. A rubric for assessing the students' oral social interaction was used to assess the students' performance before and after implementing the designed program.
2. A task-based program: The researcher designed an instructional program based on TBLT principles and procedures.
3. An attitudinal questionnaire that consisted of four dimensions (developmental, instrumental, integrative and travel motivations). The questionnaire aimed at investigating the students' attitudes before and after the implementation of the program.

The validity and reliability of the research instruments were validated.

ANCOVA and MANCOVA were used to analyze the findings of the study. The findings of the study were the following:

Firstly, the TBLT program enhanced significantly the speaking skill of the students of the experimental group and positively affected their attitudes towards English. Secondly, the TBLT program improved the girls' speaking skills more than the boys in the experimental group.

Based on the results of the current study, it is recommended that EFL teachers adopt the TBLT principles and procedures in their classroom practices. In addition, it is recommended that the English inspectors set up in-service and pre-service training programs to develop the Palestinian EFL teachers' ability to use TBLT when designing and executing their lesson plans. Finally, the researcher recommended that curriculum designers incorporate TBLT principles and procedures in the students' books and teachers' guides.

**Key Words: Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), language attitude, speaking skill, task**

# **Chapter One**

## **Introduction**

### **Background of the Study**

English has attained increasing importance throughout the world in general and in Israel in particular. Consequently, Arab parents and educators have begun to be concerned about their children's low level in English,, and have begun to look for solutions to this problem (Amara and Marai, 2002).

Amara and Marai (2002) considered English as the second language in terms of importance in Israel, and it is formally the first foreign language taught in both Jewish and Arab sectors. The same national curriculum is used for both sectors, and supervised by the same personnel. It is taught in the Arab schools starting from the fourth grade, and there is strong pressure from many parents to start instruction even earlier. Amara and Marai (2002) added that English is as important to the Arabs as it is to other Israelis because of its status as the international language of science, technology, commerce, tourism and communication. There is no distinct English curriculum for Arab students, and the methods of study used in the Arab sector are identical to those used in all streams of education: general, religious and technological.

However, Arab students encounter unique problems in their study of English. Many Israelis have regular contact with English-speaking immigrants in the neighborhoods, English speaking relatives abroad, or English speaking tourists who come to their cities, but few Arabs live in direct contact with English speaking communities. The English language is therefore foreign to many Arab students. It is the third language that they study, and in contrast to Hebrew, the second language, which is linguistically related to Arabic with similar phonology and morphology and many cognate words. Few members of the adult community know English, and the Arab schools do not have the high proportion of English native or near native –speaking teachers. All these conditions make English more difficult for Arab students.

English as a foreign language (EFL) is considered an integral part of the Israeli matriculation examinations. Without a good mark in English, Arab students cannot continue their academic studies in the universities or colleges; and therefore their success in life will be very limited, especially in a competitive country such as that which exists in Israel.

It appears that English is considered a ‘threat’ for Arab students living in Israel. Amara and Marai (2002) believed that these students feel uneasy about learning English, since they consider it difficult subject to learn. Some of them suffer from high anxiety which causes examination failure. Some students who finish high school education often receive low

grades in English. This causes students to be fearful of the Matriculation examinations and creates a negative attitude toward English (Amara and Marai, 2002).

Elazar (1993) stressed the idea that Israeli Arab students encounter problems in learning English and a low percentage of them pass the English examination in the matriculation. He attributed Arab students' low achievement in English to the lack of exposure to English as a native language. Arab students practice English formally in the classroom setting. Most Arabs live in villages and rural communities. In addition, few members of the adult community know English, and Arab Schools do not have native or near native English speaking teachers.

According to Elazar (1993), all of these conditions affect Arab students' proficiency in English, and for this reason English is considered a barrier for entering higher education. Only 20% of Arab school graduates continue their academic studies, and those who continue encounter problems in their first year because they need English in their academic performance; therefore, most of them usually need remedial courses in English.

Spolsky and Shohamy (1999) attributed the low percentage of Arab school graduates in universities and colleges to Israeli higher education institutions. These institutions require a high level of proficiency in English, ignoring the needs of some sectors such as the Arab sector

whose students encounter difficulties in English. This condition may constitute a barrier for entrance to university.

In 1998, a new curriculum was approved for Israeli schools. Spolsky and Shohamy (1999:181) argued that:

the circumstances today, and even in the foreseeable future, are quite different. More and more pupils have extensive contact with English before beginning formal English instruction or outside of school, whether through radio, television, computers, family, travel, or meeting overseas visitors. Most pupils, at whatever age they start English in school, have already learned words and phrases of the language.

Curriculum designers set new standards for English while taking these standards into consideration. The new standards are extremely flexible, and offer schools and teachers freedom to determine the appropriate methodology to be used and the priority of the elements of the curriculum (Amara and Marai, 2002). They added that the aim of the new curriculum is to raise standards in the four domains of language learning: access to information, social interaction, presentation and appreciation of literature, culture and language. It is hoped that by the end of grade twelve students will be able to use English freely in all skills of language in their social interactions, in obtaining and presenting information, and in developing appreciation of the English language and its literature.

The textbooks for English instruction are the same for Arabs and Jews. There are no materials in the textbooks about the Arabs, and this, according to (Amara and Marai, 2002) upsets the balance that exists in the curriculum. In the existing textbooks, the Arab students learn about

Jews and Western culture, but they do not learn about themselves. The researcher thinks that studying a subject that is familiar to the students increases their interest in learning and the focus will be only on the linguistic area. This is not the case in the Israeli textbooks that are presently used in the Arab sector.

The gap in achievements in English between the Arab and Jewish students reaches alarming levels. Only 40% of students in the Arab sector reached a satisfactory level of achievement (that is the required level), and only 10% reached an advanced level. However, 60% of the Arab students failed in the examination, compared to 15% among Jewish students (Amara and Marai, 2002).

Although researchers and educators agree that Arab school graduates are not proficient in English (Amara, 2002; Spolsky and Shohamy, 1999; Elazar, 1993), few studies have been conducted to examine procedures, approaches and strategies of teaching and learning to improve students' achievements in English. To the researcher's best knowledge all previous studies focused on students' weaknesses and the reasons for them. Few studies have been conducted designed to offer solutions to the problem and improve the students' proficiency in English.

The Inspectorate for teaching English is concerned about Arab students' achievements in English. In 1998, a new curriculum was approved in Israeli schools including the Arab sector (Spolsky and Shohamy, 1999).

In the new curriculum, it was suggested to teach according to domains rather than skills. Four domains are proposed: social interaction, access to information, presentation and appreciation of literature, culture and language.

The concept of social interaction was added to the new curriculum when the English advisory committee recognized that English is a language for communication. The domain of social interaction aims to produce graduates who can conduct conversations and written communication with other English speakers wherever they live regardless of their native language. It does not take on the goal of producing near-native speakers of English, but merely strives to enable speakers of Hebrew, Arabic and other languages to function comfortably in English whenever it is appropriate (Ministry of Education, 2002).

The standards of the domain of social interaction call for students to interact effectively in English orally and in writing in varied social contexts with people from varied linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Students should be proficient in maintaining effective communication, and using appropriate written communication for a wide range of social contexts. They should interact by using rich vocabulary and complex syntactic structures accurately (Ministry of Education, 2002).

The new curriculum focuses on speaking skills through the domain of social interaction. This is because speaking skills are extremely important

when teaching EFL. Graham-Mar (2004) claimed that the importance of teaching speaking skills stems from the fact that human beings have been acquiring language through speaking and listening long before they began reading and writing. . Our brains are well programmed to learn language through sound and speech.

Brown and Yule (1983) believed that many language learners regard speaking skills as the criteria for knowing a language. They defined fluency as the ability to communicate with others much more than the ability to read, write, or comprehend oral language. They regarded speaking as the most important skill students acquire. Students assess their progress in terms of their accomplishments in spoken communication.

The researcher proposed using a procedure based on the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching called Task-Based language Teaching (TBLT) to enhance the speaking ability of EFL learners. TBLT puts tasks at the center of the methodological focus. It views the learning process as a set of communicative tasks that are directly linked to the curricular goals they serve (Brown, 2001).

Richards and Rodgers (2001) emphasized that the role of tasks has received further support from some researchers in second language acquisition who are interested in developing pedagogical application of second language acquisition theory (e.g., Long and Crookes, 1991).

## **Statement of the Problem**

Many studies have been conducted that have investigated the effect of TBLT on developing the reading ability of the learners (e.g., Skehan, 1998; Foster and Skehan, 1996; Willis, 1996; among others), but few have examined the effect of this procedure on the speaking skills of EFL learners (Birjandi and Ahangari, 2008 and Hitutozi, 2008).

Speaking in an L2 has occupied a unique position throughout much of the history of language teaching. It has begun to emerge as a branch of teaching, learning, and testing in its own right only in the last two decades has, but rarely focuses on the production of spoken discourse (Carter and Nunan, 2001). Due to the difficulty of studying speaking, it was easier for teachers, methodologists, applied linguists and linguists to focus on written than spoken language.

Arab students are no exception and have difficulty with the English language.. This is reflected in their achievement in the matriculation examination; their scores are usually very low in all English language skills, especially in speaking. Arab students usually hesitate to speak English because they have problems using accurate, fluent and complex language.

In order to enhance the speaking ability of Arab EFL students, the researcher proposed using a procedure based on the use of tasks as the

core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching called Task-Based language Teaching (TBLT).

This study aimed to investigate the effects of using TBLT on developing the speaking skill of the Arab EFL students in secondary schools in Israel, and their attitudes towards English.

### **Research Questions**

The present study attempted to answer the following questions:

1. Is there a statistically significant difference between the subjects' mean scores on the English speaking skills test due to the interaction between the teaching procedure (TBLT vs the conventional procedure) and subjects' gender?
2. Is there a statistically significant difference between the subjects' mean scores in the attitudes towards English due to the interaction between the teaching procedure and subjects' gender?

### **Significance of this Study**

The significance of this study stems from the following factors:

1. It attempts to examine the effect of using Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) for developing the speaking skills of Palestinian students at the secondary school level. In addition, the findings may lead to a change in the students' attitudes towards English.

2. This study may provide EFL teachers with a specific language teaching procedure which they can use in their classroom to enhance their students' achievement in English in the matriculation examinations.

3. The research results can be presented to EFL teachers, learners and decision-makers in order to enhance the students' performance in English as a foreign language.

### **Definitions of Terms**

The following terms have the associated meanings in the dissertation:

#### **Task- Based Language Teaching (TBLT)**

TBLT refers to teaching a second/foreign language that seeks to engage learners in interactionally authentic language use by having them perform a series of tasks. It aims to both enable learners to acquire new linguistic knowledge and to proceduralize their existing knowledge.

The main characteristics of TBLT are the following (Ellis, 2003):

- 'Natural' or 'naturalistic' use of language
- Learners- centered rather than teacher controlled learning
- Focus on form (attention to form occurs within the context of performing the task; intervention while retaining 'naturalness').
- Tasks serve as the means for achieving natural use of language.
- Traditional approaches are ineffective.

The details of the research procedure are presented in Chapter Two..

## **Secondary Stage**

It is the third schooling stage in Israel which begins by the beginning of tenth grade and ends by the end of twelfth grade.

### **Textbook Teaching Procedure for Speaking**

Each unit in the textbook includes one activity for speaking. This activity provides an opportunity for the students to relate to the theme of the text as well as to engage in social interaction. The teacher should encourage students to express themselves and accept individual answers that the students can justify. If the teacher wishes to assess the students' oral skills, he/she should take into account content, use of English, clarity, participation, attitude, fluency and accuracy (Wilson, 2003).

The teachers' guide does not specify a technique to teach the speaking skill. This is left to the teacher.

### **Language Attitudes**

These are the attitudes which speakers of different languages or language dialects have towards each other's languages or their language.

Expressions of positive or negative feelings towards a language reflect impressions of linguistic difficulty or simplicity, ease or difficulty in learning, degree of importance, elegance and social status. Attitudes towards a language may also reveal what people feel about the speakers of that language.

Language attitudes also have an effect on SL or FL learning. The measurement of language attitudes provides information that is useful in teaching and language planning (Richards, Platt and Platt, 1997). In the present study, students' attitudes are measured by their responses to the attitude questionnaire that was developed by the researcher.

### **Speaking Skills**

Speaking in a second language (L2) involves the development of a particular type of communication skills. Because of its circumstances of production, oral language tends to differ from written language in its typical grammar, lexical and discourse patterns. In addition, some of the processing skills needed in speaking differ from those involved in reading and writing (Bygate, 2002). In the present study this is measured by the students' scores on the speaking test.

### **Task**

The researcher has adopted Ellis' (2003:16) definition:

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

## **Research Limitations**

The current study has the following limitations:

1. The study was limited to Arab EFL students in secondary schools in Israel.
2. The study was limited to the use of Task-Based Language Teaching.
3. The study was also limited to investigating speaking skills.
4. The time limit of the study may affect the oral production of the students. If the study time had been longer, the results might have been different.

## **Chapter Two**

### **Review of Related Literature**

This chapter begins with a definition of speaking skills and their importance in learning English as a foreign language. The second section defines students' attitudes towards English and how students' positive attitudes enhance learning. The researcher then reviews additional studies that dealt with students' attitudes towards English. The last section deals with Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT). This section consists of two sub-sections: theoretical and practical. From the theoretical standpoint, the researcher attempts to shed light on the TBLT, and to clarify its developments in theory and practice. The objectives, principles and advantages of TBLT are also emphasized in this section. The practical subsection consists of brief reports about relevant studies.

### **Speaking Skills**

Of the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), speaking seems intuitively the most important. People who know a language are referred to as 'speakers of that language, as if speaking included all other types of skills, and many, if not most foreign language learners are primarily interested in learning to speak (Ur, 2006).

Speaking is an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing, receiving and processing information (Brown, 1994; Burns

and Joyce, 1997). Its form and meaning are dependent on the context in which it occurs, including the participants themselves, their collective experiences, the physical environment, and the purposes for speaking. Speaking requires that learners not only know how to produce specific points of language such as grammar, pronunciation, or vocabulary (linguistic competence), but also they understand when, why and in what ways to produce language (sociolinguistic competence) (Cunningham, 1999).

Swain (1985), an important contributor of immersion- based evidence, was led to consider whether other factors beside input might affect language competence. In particular she proposed the “comprehensible output hypothesis”, that is, to learn to speak we have actually to speak. Swain argued that knowing that one will need to speak makes one more likely to attend to syntax when one is listening.

Levelt (1989) identified three autonomous processing stages in speech production: (1) conceptualizing the message, (2) formulating the language representation, and (3) articulating the message.

Wilson (1997) claimed that children who can translate their thoughts and ideas into words are more likely to succeed in school. Students who do not develop good listening and speaking skill will have life-long consequences because of their deficit. He also pointed out that speaking skills do not need to be taught as a separate subject. These skills can

easily be integrated into other subject matter. This is because, students learn talking, clarify thoughts by talking, comprehend better with discussion of reading, write better after talking during writing conferences, develop confidence by speaking in front of peers, and provide a window to their own thinking through their talk.

Skehan (1998) distinguished three aspects of production: (1) fluency; (2) accuracy and (3) complexity. This may also involve a greater willingness to take risks, and use fewer controlled language subsystems. This area has also taken a greater likelihood of restructuring that is development in the inter-language system.

Speaking in L2 has occupied a peculiar position throughout much of the history of language teaching, and only in the last two decades has it begun to emerge as a branch of teaching, learning and testing in its own right, rarely focusing on the production of spoken discourse (Bygate, 2002).

Graham- Marr (2004) mentioned many reasons for focusing on listening and speaking when teaching English as a foreign language, not least of which is the fact that we as humans have been learning languages through our ears and mouth for thousands upon thousands of years, far longer we as humans have been able to read. Although not a set curriculum in most schools, speaking skills have been found to be a fundamental skill necessary for a child success in life.

Brown and Yule (1983) began their discussion on the nature of spoken language by distinguishing between spoken and written language. They pointed out that for most of its history; language teaching has been concerned with the teaching of written language. This language is characterized by well- formed sentences which are integrated into highly structured paragraphs. Spoken language, on the other hand, consists of short, often fragmentary utterances, in a range of pronunciations. There is often a great deal of repetition and overlap between one speaker and another, and speakers frequently use non-specific references. Brown and Yule (1983) also pointed out that the loosely organized syntax, the use of non-specific words and phrases, and the use of fillers such as 'well' and 'ahuh' make spoken language feel less conceptually dense than other types of language such as expository prose. They suggested that, in contrast with the teaching of written language, teachers concerned with teaching the spoken language must confront the following types of questions:

- What is the appropriate form of spoken language to teach?
- From the point of view of pronunciation, what is a reasonable model?
- How important is pronunciation?
- Is it any more important than teaching appropriate handwriting in the foreign language?
- If so, why?
- From the point of view of the structures taught, is it all right to teach the spoken language as if it were exactly like the written language, but with a few 'spoken expression' thrown in?
- Is it appropriate to teach the same structures to all foreign language students, no matter what their age is or their intentions in learning the spoken language?
- Are those structures which are described in standard grammars, the structures which our students should be expected to produce when they speak English?

- How is it possible to give students any sort of meaningful practice in producing spoken English?  
(Brown and Yule, 1983: 3)

Brown and Yule (1983) also drew a useful distinction between two basic language functions. These are the transactional function, which is primarily concerned with the transfer of information, and the interactional function, in which the primary purpose of speech is the maintenance of social relationships.

Nunan (1992) mentioned another basic distinction when considering the development of speaking skills: distinguishing between dialogue and monologue. The ability to give an uninterrupted oral presentation is quite distinct from interacting with one or more other speakers for transactional and interactional purposes. While all native speakers can and use language interactionally, not all native speakers have the ability to extemporise on a given subject to a group of listeners. Brown and Yule (1983) suggested that most language teaching is concerned with developing skills in short, interactional exchanges in which the learner is only required to make one or two utterances at a time.

The interactional nature of language was examined by Bygate (1996). Bygate distinguished between motor-perceptive skills, which are concerned with correctly using the sounds and structures of the language, and interactional skills, which involve using motor-perceptive skills for the purposes of communication. Motor-perceptive skills are developed in

the language classroom through activities such as model dialogues, pattern practice, and oral drills and so on. Bygate (1996) suggested that, in particular, learners need to develop skills in the management of interaction as well as in the negotiation of meaning. The management of the interaction involves such things as when and how to take the floor, when to introduce a topic or change the subject, how to invite someone else to speak, how to keep a conversation going and so on. Negotiation of meaning refers to the skill of making sure the person you are speaking to has correctly understood you and that you have correctly understood them.

Nunan (1996) added that one can apply the bottom-up/top-down distinction to speaking. The bottom up approach to speaking suggests that speakers start with the smallest unit of language, i.e. individual sounds, and move through mastery of words and sentences to discourse. The top-down view, on the other hand, suggests that speakers start with the larger chunks of language, which are embedded in meaningful contexts, and use their knowledge of these contexts to comprehend and use correctly the smaller elements of language.

Nunan (1996) claimed that a successful oral communication should involve developing:

- The ability to articulate phonological features of the language comprehensibly;
- Mastery of stress, rhythm, intonation patterns; an acceptable degree of fluency;
- Transactional and interpersonal skills;
- Skills in taking short and long speaking turns;

- Skills in the management of the interaction;
- Skills in negotiating meaning;
- Conversational listening skills (successful conversations require good listeners as well as good speakers);
- Skills in knowing about and negotiating purposes for conversations;
- Using appropriate conversational formulae and fillers.

## **Oral Communication Skills in Pedagogical Research**

Brown (2001) asserted that a review of the current issues in teaching oral communication will help to provide some perspective to moral practical considerations as the following:

### **Conversational discourse**

Brown claimed that when someone asks you "Do you speak English?" they are usually implying: "Are you able to carry on a reasonably fluent conversation?" The benchmark of successful language acquisition is almost always the demonstration of an ability to accomplish pragmatic goals through interactive discourse with other speakers. The goals and the procedures for teaching conversation are extremely diverse, depending on the student, teacher, and overall context of the class. Recent pedagogical research on teaching conversation has provided some parameters developing objectives and techniques.

### **Teaching pronunciation**

There has been some controversy over the role of pronunciation work in a communicative, interactive course of study. Because the overwhelming majority of adult learners will never acquire an accent-free command of a foreign language, the language programs should emphasize whole

language, meaningful contexts, and automaticity of production should focus on these tiny phonological details of language.

### Accuracy and fluency

Accuracy and fluency are both important goals to pursue in communicative language teaching. While fluency may be an initial goal in many communicative language courses, accuracy is achieved to some extent by allowing students to focus on elements of phonology, grammar, and discourse in their spoken output.

### Affective factors

One of the major obstacles learners have to overcome in learning to speak is the anxiety generated by the risk of blurting things out that are wrong, or incomprehensible. Because of the language ego that informs people that "you are what you speak", learners are reluctant to be judged by listeners.

### The interaction effect

The greatest difficulty that learners encounter in attempting to speak is not the multiplicity of sounds, words, phrases, and discourse forms that characterize any language, but rather the interactive nature of most communication. As Nunan (1996) notes, Conversations are collaborative, which presents a further complication in interactive discourse. He calls this the interlocutor effect or the difficulty of a speaking task as gauged

by the skills of one's interlocutor. In other words, one learners' performance is always colored by that person (interlocutor) he or she is talking to.

### **Microskills of Oral Communication**

Brown (2001: 272) mentioned these Microskills of communication:

1. Produce chunks of language of different length.
2. Orally produce differences among the English phonemes and allophonic variants.
3. Produce English stress patterns, words in stress and unstressed positions, rhythmic structure, and intonational contours.
4. Produce reduced forms of words and phrases.
5. Use an adequate number of lexical units (words) in order to accomplish pragmatic purposes.
6. Produce fluent speech at different rates of delivery.
7. Monitor your own oral production and use various strategic devices- pauses, fillers, self-corrections, backtracking- to enhance the clarity of the message.
8. Use grammatical word classes (nouns, verbs, etc.), systems (e.g., tense, agreement, and pluralization), word order, patterns, rules, and elliptical forms.
9. Produce speech in natural constituents – in appropriate phrases, pause groups, breath groups, and sentences.
10. Express a particular meaning in different grammatical forms.
11. Use cohesive devices in spoken discourse.
12. Accomplish appropriately communicative functions according to situations, participants, and goals.
13. Use appropriate registers, implicature, pragmatic conventions, and other sociolinguistic features in face-to-face conversations.
14. Covey links and connections between events and communicate such relations as main idea, supporting idea, new information, given information, generalization, and exemplification.
15. Use facial features, kinesics, body language, and other nonverbal cues along with verbal language to convey meanings.
16. Develop and use a battery of speaking strategies, such as emphasizing key words, rephrasing, providing a context for interpreting the meaning of words, appealing for help, and accurately assessing how well your interlocutor is understanding you.

## Attitudes towards English

Attitudes towards English in general refer to the state of emotion and thought relating to the English language and the culture of English-speaking people. The attitude towards the English language implies the students' feelings, prejudice, or fears about the learning of English as a second language (Spolsky, 2000).

Brown (1994:169) asserted that:

Attitudes, like all aspects of the development of cognition and affect in the human beings, developed early in childhood and are the results of parents' and peers' attitudes, contact with people who are 'different' in any number of ways, and interacting affective factors in the human experience. These attitudes form a part of one's perceptions of self, of others and of the culture in which one is living.

Ellis (1985) encountered a problem in defining attitudes and motivations because these cannot be directly observed, but have to be inferred from what the person actually does. He adopted Schuman's (1978) definition of attitude. Schuman defined 'attitude' as a social factor influenced by variables such as 'size of learning group', and 'motivation' as an affective factor alongside 'culture shock'. Ellis also defined motivation in terms of L2 learner's overall goal of orientation, and attitude as the persistence shown by the learner in striving for a goal.

Brown (1994) stated that L2 learners benefit from positive attitudes and that negative attitudes may lead to decreased motivation and in all likelihood, to unsuccessful attainment of proficiency due to decreased input and interaction. Therefore, teachers should be aware that every

learner has both positive and negative attitudes towards English.

According to Gardner and Lambert (1972), motivation to learn a second language is based on positive attitude towards the second language community and upon a desire to communicate with valued members of that community and to become similar to them. This latter desire is integrative motivation, which constitutes a support for language learning. An instrumental orientation is associated with a desire to learn L2 for pragmatic gains such as getting a better job or a higher salary.

Dornyei (2001) believed that the role of orientation is to help arouse motivation and direct it towards a set of goals with either a strong interpersonal quality (integrative orientation) or a strong practical quality (instrumental orientation). Gardner (1985) developed the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) to measure L2 learners' motivation. The test battery consists of a multi-component motivation test made up of approximately 120 items concerned with such variables as attitudes towards French Canadians and learning French, interest in foreign languages, orientation to learn French, French class anxiety, parental encouragement, motivation intensity, desire to learn French and a motivation index.

Considerable research has been done in the areas of students' attitudes and motivations. The researcher was selective in this respect. Gardner and Lambert's (1972) categorized learner's motivation into two types:

"Instrumental" which stresses "the practical value and advantages of learning a new language", and "integrative", which stresses "a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other group". In addition to Gardner and Lambert's integrative and instrumental classifications, Al-Abed-Al Haq and Smadi (1996) added a third type of motivation which they called "religious motivation" in which learners learn a foreign language for religious purposes. Such learning could be compulsory [fard ayn] or optionally [fard kifaya].

Cooper and Fishman (1977) mentioned a fourth type of motivation which they termed "developmental". Developmental motivation refers to motivation relating to personal development or personal satisfaction.

Students' learning goals are also broken up into different motivation clusters, the definition of which varies depending upon the socio-cultural setting in which the data was gathered (Clement, Dornyei and Noel1994). Thus new motivation clusters have been identified such as intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. Extrinsic motivation, like instrumental orientation, refers to the desire to learn a second/foreign language because of some pressure of reward from the social environment (such as career advancement or course credit). Internalized reasons for learning an L2 (such as guilt or shame) and/or personal decision to do so, and its value for the chosen goals (Noels, Clement, and Pelletier, 2001). Intrinsically motivated students like integratively motivated ones, learn an L2 because

of the inherent pleasure in doing so; they are expected to maintain their effort and engagement in the L2 learning process, even when no external rewards are provided (Oxford and Shearin, 1994; Noels et al., 2001). When a learner has no extrinsic or intrinsic goals for learning a language, motivation increases.

In conclusion, both integrative and instrumental orientations and intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as well as religious and developmental motivations contribute to the learning of a second/ foreign language. Nevertheless, the importance of each type varies from one context to another. Likewise, students in different contexts may be motivated to learn a second/foreign language by different orientation (Liu, 2007).

Previous studies revealed a correlation between positive attitudes and successful language learning. Widdows and Voller (1991) investigated Japanese college students' motives, needs, and attitudes toward studying English. They found that students were the most interested in developing speaking and listening skills but that many college English classes neglected to teach to these needs.

Abed Al-Hafez (1994) demonstrated that Jordanian English majors at Yarmouk University were instrumentally motivated to learn English, and that there was no significant correlation between the subjects' attitudes and motivations and their levels of achievement in the English courses.

Moreover, the results demonstrated that males showed more integrative motivation to study English than females.

Abo Rabia (1996) examined the attitudes of 126 Arab students in the Canadian and Israeli 'melting pot'. Their results revealed that their motivation towards learning L2 was instrumental in nature. The results also revealed that female students showed higher integrative motivation.

Noels et al. (2000) also found a strong correlation between instrumental motivation and Self-Determination Theory, which deals with students' need for competence, satisfactory social connections, and autonomy.

Yashima (2002) found that motivated students have greater self-confidence in their second language, resulting in a greater willingness to communicate.

An investigation conducted by Masgoret and Gardner (2003) focused on the relationship of L2 achievement to five attitude/motivation variables. Their results clearly demonstrated that the correlation between achievement and motivation was uniformly higher than that between achievement and integrativeness, and that this correlation was somewhat lower than between achievement and attitudes toward the learning situation.

Yashima, Zenuk and Shimizu (2004) investigated Japanese adolescent learners' willingness to communicate in English as an L2. Their results showed that those who had higher scores in willingness to communicate

tended to communicate more in the classroom and to ask questions or talk to teachers more frequently outside class.

Moreover, gender has been an important perspective in second language learning investigations, and has highlighted females to show more interest, positive behaviors and performances in comparison to the males (Dornyei and Shoaib, 2005). These gender differences are due to students' levels of motivations and attitudes toward language learning.

Liu (2007) investigated Chinese third-year undergraduate non-English majors' attitudes towards English, e.g., their English-learning orientations. The statistical analyses reveal that these students had positive attitudes towards learning English and were highly motivated to learn the language as well. This could be attributed to the fact that the rapid development of economy in China in recent years has yielded an increasingly high demand of university graduates with high English competency in various fields such as education, market, business and science and technology.

Chan, Jung, Masaki and Park (2007) asserted that students who have been learning a language via a variety of traditional approaches but are subsequently introduced to task-based teaching. Such students initially tend to have negative attitudes toward TBLT, but when using and experiencing tasks, they may overcome their original judgments and react more favorably towards TBLT practices. They also suggested that

attitudes affect various aspects of TBLT, and more research is needed that specifically investigates attitudes and reactions towards TBLT. They added that no studies of TBLT address attitudes at the administration level or higher, such as the governmental/policy level, which points to another potential area of exploration. By looking at these different levels, more interest may be garnered for TBLT teacher training and in-service support. They also added that in order to see more empirically-driven effects of learner attitudes on second language acquisition and instructional outcomes, future research should be conducted in terms of the degree to which positive attitudes towards TBLT and self-perceptions may actually influence language development. In closing, students commonly have positive attitudes towards TBLT, once they become familiar with how it works in the classroom. However, if teachers are constrained, either by examinations, lack of training, or lack of support, their attitudes towards TBLT have a tendency to be more negative. In addition, if instructors are already accustomed to one method of teaching and are required to switch to another, they are inclined to have unenthusiastic reactions toward TBLT, particularly if they do not receive sufficient assistance. It would therefore appear that if teachers are provided with TBLT training and in-service help, positive attitudes towards TBLT may develop accordingly.

Task-Based Language Teaching

## **Theoretical Background**

Task-based language teaching is not a new concept. Prabhu (1987) used a task-based approach with secondary school classes in Bangalore, India, in his Communicational Teaching Project, beginning in 1979. American Government Language institutions switched to task-based instruction (TBI) for foreign language for adults in the early 1980s. Other teachers and institutions throughout the world are following the TBLT (Shehadeh, 2005). Why, then, are teachers making this change to TBLT?

Shehadeh believed that the answer to this question is often because they realize that most language learners taught through methods that emphasize mastery of grammar do not achieve an acceptable level of competency in the target language. Language learning in the classroom is usually based upon the belief that language is a system of wordings governed by a grammar and a lexicon. However, it is more productive to see language primarily as a meaning system. Halliday's (1975) description of his young son's acquisition of his first language is significantly entitled 'learning how to mean'.

Apart from highly gifted and motivated students, most learners working within a structure-based approach fail to attain a useable level of fluency and proficiency in second language (L2) even after years of instruction (Skehan,1996). In India, Prabhu (1987: 11) notes that the structure-based

courses required "a good deal of remedial re-teaching which, in turn, led to similarly unsatisfactory results".

American government language institutions found that with task-based instruction and authentic material, learners made far more rapid progress and were able to use their new foreign language in real-world circumstances with a reasonable level of efficiency after quite short courses. They were able to operate an effective meaning system, i.e. to express what they wanted to say, even though their grammar and lexicon were often far from perfect (Lever and Willis, 2004).

In recent years a number of researchers, syllabus designers and educational innovators have called for a move in language teaching toward task-based approaches to instruction (Prabhu, 1987; Nunan, 1989, Long and Crooks, 1991; Ellis, 2003).

Since the advent of communicative language teaching and the belief that language is best learned when it is being used to communicate messages, the communicative task has ascended to a position of prominence as a unit of organization in syllabus design. Nunn (2006), for example, proposed a task-based unitary framework because it "leads to student-led holistic outcomes in the form of written reports, spoken presentations and substantial small-group conversations that lead to decision-making outcomes" (p.70). This interest in the task has been motivated to a considerable extent by the fact that 'task' is seen as a construct of equal

importance to second language acquisition (SLA) researchers and to language teachers (Pica,1997).

The rise of task-based language teaching has led to a variety of different interpretations of what exactly constitutes a task. Central to the notion of a communicative task is the exchange of meanings. Willis (1996) defined task as an activity where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome. Here the notion of meaning is subsumed in 'outcome'. Likewise, for Nunan (2006) tasks have a non-linguistic outcome. He defines task as a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right with a beginning, middle and an end (p.17).

There are two main sources of evidence which justify the use of tasks in language classes. Lynch and Maclean (2000) said that the first source of justifications for Task-Based Learning is what it might be termed the ecologic alone: the belief that the best way to promote effective learning is by setting up classroom tasks that reflect as far as possible the real world tasks which the learners perform, or will perform. Task

performance is seen as rehearsal for interaction to come. The second source of evidence comes from SLA research. “ Those arguing for TBL, drawing on SLA research, have tended to focus on issues such as learnability, the order of acquisition of particular L2 structures, and the implications of the input, interaction and output hypotheses” (Lynch and Maclean,2000,p.222).

TBLT is also discussed from a psycholinguistic perspective. From this perspective, “...a task is a device that guides learners to engage in certain types of information-processing that are believed to be important for effective language use and/or for language acquisition from some theoretical standpoint” (Ellis, 2000, p.197). It assumes that while performing the tasks, learners engage in certain types of language use and mental processing that are useful for acquisition. Ellis (2006) asserts that “tasks reduce the cognitive or linguistic demands placed on the learner” (p.23).

The underlying theoretical position adopted by task-based researchers who work in this tradition derives from what Lantolf (1996) has called the ‘computational metaphor’. Lantolf comments: “It quickly became regularized as theory within the cognitive science of the 1970s and 1980s. Mainstream cognitive science so strongly believes in the metaphor – in effect, to be in mainstream cognitive science means that many people find it difficult to conceive of neural computation as a theory, it must surely be

a fact” (p.724). This metaphor underlies the work on task-based learning/teaching of Long’s Interaction Hypothesis (cited in Ellis 2000), Skehan’s Cognitive Approach (1996), which is based on the distinction between two types of processing that learners can engage in (lexical processing and rule-based processing), and Yule’s model of Communicative Effectiveness (Ellis,2000).

A more recent trend within the communicative approach considers how attention can be profitably channeled through the instructional choices that are made (Schmidt, 1995). The assumption is that learners have limited attention capacities available to them and that the different components of language production and comprehension compete for such limited capacities. Therefore the choice to devote attention to one area may well be at the expense of other areas. A central choice in this regard is between devoting attention to form or meaning. The last 20 years have seen a protracted debate in language teaching concerning the relative merits of focusing on accuracy and form as opposed to focusing on fluency and meaning. “Most current research in SLA hypothesized that some level of attention to form is needed for language acquisition to take place” (Radwan, 2005:70). A number of proposals have been made as to how some attention may be focused on form. This can be done through task design (Fotos and Ellis, 1991), pre-task and post-task activities, and consciousness-raising activities (Willis, 1996).

There are also researchers who oppose TBLT. Seedhouse (1999) argued that the interaction that results from tasks is often impoverished and can lead to fossilizations. He also argued that 'task-as a workplan' has weak construct validity because the interaction that transpires when learners perform a task (i.e. the 'task-as-process') frequently does not match that intended by designers of the task. Moreover, Sheen (1994) characterizes TBLT as requiring that any treatment of grammar take the form of quick corrective feedback allowing for minimal interruption of the task activity. Swain (2001) claims that beginning learners need to be taught grammar because they will not be able to shift attention to code features in interaction if their knowledge of basic grammar is so limited that they cannot produce discourse to shift from. TBLT is only suitable for 'acquisition-rich contexts'.

#### Rationale for Task-Based Language Teaching

Ellis (2003) reports that task-based language teaching is a form of teaching that treats language primarily as a tool for communicating rather than as a subject for study or manipulation. It is clear that if learners are to develop the competence they need in order to use a second language easily and effectively in the kinds of situations they meet outside the classroom, they need to experience how language is used as a tool for communication within it. 'Task' serves as the most obvious means for organizing teaching along these lines.

TBLT proposes the use of tasks as a central component in language classroom because it provides better contexts for activating learner acquisition processes and promoting L2 learning (Shehadeh, 2005). TBLT is therefore based on a theory of language learning rather than a theory of language structure. Richards and Rodgers (2001: 228) suggest that because the reason for this is that "tasks are believed to foster processes of negotiation, modification, rephrasing, and experimentation that are at the heart of second language learning".

Feez (1998: 17) summarizes the following basic assumptions of TBLT:

- The focus of instruction is on process rather than product.
- Basic elements are purposeful activities and tasks that emphasize communication and meaning.
- Learners learn language by interacting communicatively and purposefully while engaged in meaningful activities and tasks.
- Activities and tasks can be either those that learners might need to achieve in real life, or those that have a pedagogical purpose specific to the classroom.
- Activities and tasks of a task-based syllabus can be sequenced according to difficulty.
- The difficulty of a task depends on a range of factors including the previous experience of the learner, the complexity of the tasks, and the degree of support available. (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 224).

### Defining the Term 'Task'

The term task can mean different things to different people (Leaver and Willis, 2004). Just as there are weak and strong forms of communicative language teaching, there are different definitions of the word 'task'. Most of the definitions include mention of achieving or arriving at an outcome, or attaining an objective. The definitions also show that tasks are meaning focused. In other words, learners are free to use whatever language they want in order to convey their intended meaning and to

sustain the interaction. Prabhu (1987:2) defines a task as "an activity which requires learners to arrive to an outcome from given information through some processes of thought and which allowed teachers to control and regulate that process was regarded as a task". Nunan (1999: 10) defines task as "a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form".

Willis (1996:53) asserted that task is a goal-oriented activity with real outcome; this implies that a task is "a goal- oriented activity which learners use language to achieve a real outcome. In other words, 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".

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

Ellis (2003:16) mentioned six criterial features of a task:

- A task is a workplan. A task constitutes a plan for learning activity. This workplan takes the form of teaching materials. The actual activity that results may or may not match that intended by the plan.

- A task involves a primary focus on meaning. A task seeks to engage learners in using language pragmatically rather than displaying language. It seeks to develop L2 proficiency through communicating. Thus, it requires a primary focus on meaning.
- A task involves real-world processes of language use. The workplan may require learners to engage in language activity such as that found in the real-world, for example, completing a form, or it may involve them in language activity that is artificial, for example, determining whether two pictures are the same or different.
- A task can involve any of the four language skills. The workplan may require learners to (1) listen or read a text and display their understanding, (2) produce an oral or written text, or (3) employ a combination of receptive and productive skills.
- A task engages cognitive processes. The workplan requires learners to employ cognitive processes such as selecting, classifying, ordering, reasoning and evaluating information in order to carry out the task.
- A task has a clearly defined communicative outcome. The workplan stipulates the non-linguistic outcome of the task, which serves as the goal of the activity for the learners. The stated outcome of a task serves as the means of determining when participants have completed a task.

## Types of Tasks

Ellis (2003) classified tasks into the following types

### Unfocused Tasks

An unfocused task is one that encourages learners to use English freely without concentrating on just one or two specific forms (i.e., a replication activity).

### Pedagogic (rehearsal, activation)

Pedagogical tasks have a psycholinguistic basis in SLA theory and research but do not necessarily reflect real-world tasks. For example, four students are given pictures and must describe them to the rest of the class. The other students ask the four students questions about their pictures, and a student then tries to tell a story. Pedagogic tasks can be:

### Rehearsal tasks

The following tasks of pair-work role play are examples of rehearsal tasks.

A: You are a passenger calling to reconfirm a reservation. Use the e-ticket (provided separately) to check the details of your flight.

B: You are an airline employee. Use the information sheet (provided separately) to answer your partner's questions.

#### Activation tasks

The teacher gives pairs of students two different pictures, and then asks each one to talk to their partner about the differences between the pictures.

#### Real-world tasks

Tasks are everywhere in everyday life. Washing our face is a task, as is preparing breakfast, going to work by car, etc. Tasks are a part of our lives to such an extent that there is hardly any activity that cannot be called a task.

#### Focused Tasks

A focused task (Ellis, 2003) is either a consciousness-raising activity that focuses on examining samples of language to explore particular features. These are sometimes called "meta-cognitive" activities. Examples of this are classifying the uses of a verb plus – "ing" forms that appear in a reading text or identifying phrases from a spoken transcript containing the preposition in and categorizing them into time, location, or other, or a

task used because it is likely to encourage the comprehension of, and/or the use of, particular language forms (i.e., a citation or simulation activity).

Long and Crooks (1991) provided an example by using a split-information quiz with facts derived from a written report about company sales over the last half year. This report on company sales contained a large number of noun and verb expressions of increase and decrease, including the use of past simple and present perfect verb forms. Learners had to obtain information from each other in order to complete the graph representing sales trends. The follow-up exercise entailed reading the full report in detail in order to check the figures in their graph. Most of this work plan involved receptive skills of listening to others reading out their information and reading the text to check results. In doing so, students were obliged to focus on the meaning of the expressions of quantity and increase and decrease.

Willis (1996: 149) listed the following types of tasks of TBLT:

1. Listing: Including a brainstorming and fact-finding, the outcome is a completed list or draft mind map. This type of task can help train students' comprehension and induction ability.
2. Ordering, sorting: Including sequencing, ranking and classifying, the outcome is a set of information ordered and sorted according to specific

criteria. These types might foster comprehension, logic and reasoning ability.

3. Comparing: This type of task includes matching, finding similarities, or differences. The outcome can be appropriately matched or assembled items. This type of task enhance students' ability of differentiation.

4. Problem solving: This type of task includes analyzing real situations, reasoning, and decision-making. The outcome involves solutions to the problem, which can then be evaluated. These tasks help promote students' reasoning and decision-making abilities.

5. Sharing experience: These types of tasks include narrating, describing, exploring and explaining attitudes, opinions, and reactions. The outcome is usually social. These tasks help students to share and exchange their knowledge and experience.

6. Creative tasks: These include brainstorming, fact finding, ordering and sorting, comparing and many other activities. The outcome is an end product that can be appreciated by a wider audience. Students cultivate their comprehensive problem-solving abilities as well as their reasoning and analyzing abilities.

These tasks are listed from easy to difficult, and all of them reveal the recognition process of students. The tasks in TBLT should be applicable to real life to help students accomplish the tasks and show their

communicative competence in classroom teaching and real life situations (Willis, 1996: 149).

### TBLT Methodology

Ellis (2003) asserted that the design of a task-based lesson involves consideration of the stages or components of a lesson that has a task as its principal component. Various designs have been proposed (for example, Prabhu, 1987; Skehan 1996). However, they all have in common three principal phases, these phases reflected the chronology of a task-based lesson. Thus the first phase is 'pre-task' and concerns the various activities that teachers and students can undertake before they start the task; such as whether students are given time to plan the performance of the task. The second phase, the 'during task' phase, centers on the task itself and affords various instructional options, including whether students are required to operate under time pressure. The final 'post-task' phase involves procedures for following up on the task performance.

#### The pre-task phase

The purpose of the pre-task phase is to prepare students to perform the task in ways that will promote acquisition. Skehan (1996) refers to two broad alternatives available to the teacher during the pre-task phase:

An emphasis on the general cognitive demands for task, and/or an emphasis on linguistic factors, attentional capacity is limited, and it is needed to both linguistic and cognitive demand, then engaging in

activities which reduce cognitive load will release attentional capacity for the learner to concentrate more on linguistic factors. These alternatives can be tackled procedurally in one of four ways:

- (1) Supporting learners in performing a task similar to the task that will perform in the during task phase of the lesson;
- (2) Asking students to observe a model of how to perform a task;
- (3) Engaging learners in non-task activities designed to prepare them to perform the task
- (4) Strategic planning of the main task performance.

#### Performing a similar task

The use of a 'pre-task' is a key feature of the Communicational Teaching Project (Prabhu, 1987). It was carried out as an activity involving the entire class with the teacher, and involved the learners in completing a task of the same type and content as the main task. Thus, it served as a preparation for performing the main task individually. For example, if the main task involving talking about clothes and appearance of individuals or groups; the teacher may talk to the students about how they dress and how this affects their personalities.

#### Providing a model

An alternative to this first example is to ask the students to observe a model of how the task can be performed without requiring them to undertake a trial performance of the task. This involves presenting them

with an oral text to demonstrate an 'ideal' performance of the task. Both Skehan (1996) and Willis (1996) suggested that 'observing' others perform a task can help reduce the cognitive load on the learner.

#### Non-task preparation activities

There are a variety of non-task preparation activities that teachers can choose from. These center on reducing the cognitive or linguistic demands placed on the learner. Activating learners' content schemata or providing them with background information serves as a means of defining the topic of a task. Examples of this are brainstorming and mind maps.

#### Strategic planning

Learners should be given time to plan how they will perform the task. This can be distinguished from other pre-task options in that it does not involve students in a trial performance of the task or observing a model. Planning can be carried out individually, in groups, or with the teacher.

#### The task cycle

Richards and Rodgers (2001) asserted that the task is undertaken by students (in pairs or groups) and gives students a chance to express themselves and say whatever they want to say. This may be in response to reading a text or listening to a recording. The teacher should move about the classroom and monitor students' activities, encouraging everyone's

attempts at communication in the target language. Moreover, the teacher should help students to formulate what they want to say, but not intervene to correct errors. The emphasis should be placed on spontaneous, exploratory speaking and confidence-building within the privacy of the small group. Success in achieving the goals of task increases students' motivation.

### Planning

- Planning prepares students for the next stage, when they are asked to report briefly to the whole class how they performed the task and what the outcome was.
- Students draft and rehearse what they want to say or write.
- The teacher circulates among the students, offering them advice about language, suggesting phrases and helping them polish and correct their language.
- Emphasis is placed on clarity, organization, and accuracy, as appropriate for an open representation.
- Individual students often take the opportunity to ask questions about specific language items.

### Report

- The teacher asks some pairs or groups of students to report briefly to the entire class so that every student can compare findings, or begin a survey.

- The teacher runs the discussion, comments on the content of the students' reports, rephrase, but does not make corrections in public.

#### Post-task

- The students listen to an authentic recording of fluent speakers performing the same task, and compare it to the ways in which they performed the task.

#### Analysis

- The teacher establishes some language-focused task, based on the texts students have read or on the transcripts of the recordings they have heard.
- Examples include the following:

Students find words and phrases related to the title of the paragraph or text.

Students read the transcript, find words ending with s or 's, and tell what the s means.

Students find all the verbs in the simple past tense and tell which ones refer to past time and which do not.

Students underline and classify the questions in the transcript.

- The teacher helps students begin and then they continue on their own or in pairs or groups.
- The teacher offers help and the students can ask questions.

- The teacher then reviews the analysis in complete form. The teacher also writes a list of relevant language items on the board. Students respond and make notes.

### Practice

Students carry out practice activities as needed, based on the language analysis work already written on the board, or use examples from the text or transcript. Practice activities may consist of any of the following:

Choral repetition of the phrases identified and classified

Memory challenging games based on partially erased examples

Using lists already on blackboard for progressive deletion

Sentence completion, matching the past tense verbs with the subject or objects in the text

Kim's game (in teams) with new words and phrases.

### Teacher's Role

Willis (1996) assigned the following roles for the teachers in the framework for TBLT:

In the pre-task, the teacher should:

Present and define the topic.

Use activities to help students memorize/learn some useful words and phrases.

Ensure that students comprehend the task instructions.

Play recordings of others performing the same task or a similar one.

In the task cycle, the teacher should:

act as monitor and motivate students.

ensure that the purpose of the report is clear.

Act as a language advisor.

help students review oral reports.

act as chairperson; selecting who will speak next

- Offer brief feedback on content and form.
- play a recording of others doing the same or similar task.

In the post-task (language focus), the teacher should:

review each analysis activity with the whole class.

bring other useful words, phrases and patterns to students' attention.

Review language items from the report stage.

conduct practice activities after analysis activities where necessary, to

build confidence.

Students' Role

Willis (1996) assigned the following roles for the learners in the framework of TBLT:

In the pre-task, students should:

Write down useful words and phrases from the pre-task activities and/or the recording.

spend a few minutes preparing for the task individually.

In the task cycle, the students should:

Perform the task in pairs or small groups.

prepare to report how they performed the task and what they discovered to the class

Rehearse what they will present to the entire class.

present their spoken reports to the class.

In the post-task (language focus), the student should:

Perform consciousness-raising activities to identify and process specific language features from the task and transcript.

ask about other features they noticed.

practice words, phrases and patterns from the analysis activities.

enter useful language items in their language notebooks.

Ellis (2007) mentioned some pedagogical problems that occur during the implementation of TBT and suggested a solution for each problem. Those are:

1. Teachers often believe that teaching using TBLT is not possible with beginners. The suggested solution is that teachers need to understand that TBLT is input-based, and that it is possible to initially increase proficiency through a series of situational tasks.
2. Students may be unwilling to risk communication 'freely'. Ellis suggested that teachers should allow planning time and train the learners.
3. Students will resort to communicating in their L1. Ellis claimed that

this is arguably not a problem; As proficiency develops, learners automatically begin to use L2 more.

4. Teachers may not fully understand the principles of TBLT or have the proficiency to teach 'communicatively'. Ellis claimed that more effective teacher training may solve this problem. Ellis also mentioned some problems with educational system that may emerge during the implementation of TBLT however; she suggests the following solutions for these problems:

1. Placing emphasis on 'knowledge learning'. To solve this problem, she claims that educational philosophy needs to be changed.

2. Examination system. To solve this problem, Ellis claims that more communicative tests need to be developed.

3. Large classes. Ellis claimed that teachers may use group work or develop tasks suited to large classes

TBLT and communicative language teaching

TBLT stems directly from the Communicative language teaching method (CLT) (Leaver and Willis, 2004). It began to take form in the early 1970s as a reaction to focus-on-form language teaching methods used at the time. As such, CLT has utilized insight from a number of fields of knowledge. The concepts of competence and performance are associated with Chomsky's (1965) Transformational-Generative Grammar theory. Furthermore, from the standpoint of anthropology and sociolinguistics,

Hymes' disagreement with Chomsky on the boundaries of competence led to a redefinition of this concept which, from his perspective, should comprise language use (performance) as well. Thus focusing on language in actual performance, Hymes devised an interdisciplinary (Hayes Jacobs, 1989) model of communicative competence.

Communicative language teaching has also received important contributions from the field of psycholinguistics. For instance, Krashen (1985) suggested through his input + 1 theory hypothesis that exposure to authentic language is fundamental for language acquisition. It can be said that CLT emerged from an invisible, interdisciplinary movement. A version of this, known as task-based language teaching, began to materialize approximately two decades ago. Regarding the issue of paradigm shifting, Hermans (1999) claimed the existence of an invisible school of thought which mainly unnoticed establishes or changes theory paradigm.

Moskowitz (1977) gave examples of what she called 'humanistic exercises' for language learning, which in fact, have all the characteristics of tasks defined by Ellis (2003). For example, "identity cards" require students to wear cards that give some personal information about themselves, such as 'three adjectives that describe you'. The students circulate while the teacher plays music. When the music stops they choose a partner and talk about the information written on their "identity

cards”. Moskowitz discussed the affective and linguistic purposes of such tasks. One of the affective purposes of 'identity cards' is enable a new group of students to become acquainted, while the linguistic purpose is to practice asking and answering questions. There was no attempt to focus students' attention on the linguistic purpose; however, Moskowitz envisaged these humanistic tasks as supplementing and reinforcing traditional materials, i.e. as contributing to task-supported language teaching.

## Empirical Studies on TBLT

It appears that Prabhu's Communicational Teaching Project in Bangalore (Prabhu, 1987) was a major milestone in the process of "changing winds and shifting sands" (Brown, 2000: 13) towards this new language teaching paradigm (Leaver and Willis, 2004). In reality, the results of this project indicated that TBLT might represent a promising alternative to existing methods of the 1980s, as suggested by Tarone and Yule (1989)

Reports on the Bangalore Project indicated that a syllabus organized around problem-solving tasks and feedback can effectively accomplish, and in many respects improve on, what a traditional linguistic syllabus provides.

Since the implementation of the Bangalore project (Bretta and Davis, 1985) a considerable amount of research findings have provided a reasonably firm basis for adopting of TBLT in the L2 classroom. These researches are presented chronologically in this section.

Cathcart in Chaudrun (1988: 98) was one of the language oriented researchers who performed TBLT with empirical examinations. After observing eight Spanish-speaking kindergarten children in various activities for a year, Cathcart pointed out that "an increase in utterance length or complexity was found in those peer-peer interactions".

The results of a study conducted by Rulon and McCreary's (1986), which compared between teacher-fronted and group work negotiation for meaning also endorse the reliability of TBLT. The point they made was that through group work focused on meaning, interaction is promoted, and, eventually L2 learning ensues.

Fotos and Ellis (1991) demonstrated that the adoption of "task-based language teaching" to communicate about grammar is conducive to both learning and communication. They also found that communicative grammar-based tasks helped Japanese college-level EFL learners increase their knowledge of difficult grammatical rules and facilitated the acquisition of implicit knowledge.

Bygate (1996) found evidence that repetition of a task affected accuracy in some interesting ways that were consistent with this account. Without any prior warning or indication that the task was to be repeated, and without any use of reference to the task in class of repeating a video narrative task, the speaker showed significant adjustments to the way she spoke. According to several experienced judges, her lexical selection, selection of collocates, selection of grammatical items, and her ability of self- correct were better when the task was repeated. During the first performance, the speaker was likely to have been more taxed by the task of holding meanings in memory, transferring the meanings into words and articulating them, under time pressure. During the second

performance, the speaker was likely to have been able to take advantage of the familiarity of the content and with the processes of formulating the meanings, and was able to devote more attention to the lexicogrammatical selection. Bygate also concluded that repetition of similar tasks is more likely to provide a structured context for mastery of form-meaning relations than is a random sequencing of tasks.

Pica-Porter, Paninos and Linnel (1996) investigated the effect of interaction during the implementation of a task on promoting the process of comprehension between L2 students. The participants of this study were sixteen English-speaking intermediate students of French as a foreign language at the University of Hawaii. The findings of this study showed that the language produced by participants during the simulation was typical of negotiation for meaning. The results also indicated that the interaction between L2 students offer data of considerable quality, but may not provide the necessary input that would result in reconstruction of the learners' language. The study concluded that L2 students can be a source of modified and limited input and the interaction between them is not as rich as the interaction between native speakers and non-native speakers. Pica et al. (1996) recommended that negotiation for meaning may have a beneficial role when used in combination with other pedagogical principles that promote language acquisition.

Studies based on experiments with tasks requiring justifications indicated that these generate highly complex utterances. By the same token, results from comparisons between interactive and monologic tasks showed that the former produces much more precision and complexity, whereas the latter generates more fluency (Skehan and Foster, 1997.)

In several studies conducted by Foster and Skehan (1996, 1999), Mehnert (1998) and Ortega (1999), it was verified that task planning produces positive influence on these two aspects of learner's performance.

Jaccobs and Navas (2000) investigated the clarity of three task categories for a group of Philippines teachers of English as a second language working in the Philippines. The goal was to shed lights on the usefulness of these classifications as intervention points to be included in language teacher education. Thirty three in-service teachers of English in the Philippines participated in this study; they were attending a course on language instruction at the Philippines Normal University in Manila. The findings of the study showed that the term "task-based language teaching" was fairly new to most participants; most participants seemed to feel that the categories were at least moderately useful in their teaching.

Foster and Skehan (1996) compared the effects of (1) meaning/form-focused strategic planning, (2) undetailed strategic planning and (3) minimal strategic planning on EFL learners' speech in three experimental

tasks: personal information exchange, oral narrative, and decision making. They found that, under the meaning/form-focused strategic planning, speech was more complex and fluent (for all three tasks), and more accurate (for two of the three tasks) than speech under minimal strategic planning condition. In addition, they found that the meaning/form-focused strategic planning condition promoted significantly higher speech complexity and higher fluency than the undetailed strategic planning condition.

Carless (2001) explored the implementation of task-based teaching in three primary classrooms in Hong- Kong. He reviewed six issues (teachers' understanding of tasks, their attitudes, and the classroom time available for task-based teaching, teacher preparation of resources, the influence of textbook and topics, and the language proficiency of students) which were found to impact on how teachers approached the implementation of the communicative tasks in their classroom. The subjects of this case study were three female English teachers implementing task-based innovation over a seven month period in their own primary one or primary two classrooms with students aged six to seven. The findings in terms of the six issues which emerged from the data indicated that there was a certain amount of interplay between different issues. For example, the most positive the teacher attitude towards task-based teaching, the more likely he/she is to take time to

prepare supplementary task-based materials or to create classroom time for carrying out activities.

Swain and Lapkin (2001) reported on a study in which two communicative tasks (dictogloss vs jigsaw), similar in content but different in format, were used with adolescents studying French. These students remain non-native-like in their spoken and written French, even after some eight years of comprehensible input. In this study they asked the students to carry out two contrasting tasks; one class did jigsaw tasks while the other did dictogloss tasks. In both cases, the tasks were preceded by a short lesson on French pronominal verbs as an input enhancement activity. Their goal was to examine the data for instances of second language learning during task performance. The results showed that one task is not better than another for pedagogical purposes. The value of a task depends upon the instructional goals of the teachers. Both tasks generated a similar and substantial proportion of form-focused language-related episodes. Another important result, the dictogloss enhances accuracy in the production of pronominal verbs and led students to notice and reproduce complex syntactic structures. The jigsaw task led to a greater range of vocabulary use and language related episodes, suggesting that perhaps its open-ended nature might inspire greater linguistic creativity.

Bugler and Hunt (2002) proposed how tasks can be used as a basis for teaching and gave detailed account of a twelve-week long task-based learning project. The project, which was called "student-generated action research", required an entire twelve-week semester to complete. They implemented their project at a major private Japanese university with approximately 340 first year students enrolled in a second-semester speaking course. The project required the students to work in groups of two to four persons and to choose a topic they were interested in. The groups then designed a questionnaire that would be used to investigate the opinions that a specific target group holds about the chosen topic. The findings indicated that learners who participated in the task-based project found the experience to be rewarding, intrinsically interesting, and educationally beneficial. Thus, the final product was generally of a high level.

In his study based on interviews with teachers, teacher educators, and ministry officials, Nunan (2004) indicated that TBLT emerged as a central concept from a study of curriculum guidelines and syllabi in the Asia-Pacific countries including Japan, Vietnam, China, Hong Kong, Korea and Malaysia

Lopez (2004) conducted an experiment based on task-based instructions instead of presentation-practice-production (PPP) approach for teaching English in two classes in a private school in the south of Brazil. He found

that students using task-based instructions (TBI) learned English more effectively because they were using the language to do things- to access information, solve problems, and to talk about personal experiences. The students who were exposed to real language were able to deal with real-life situations when they encountered them outside the classroom. He also concluded that teachers who come from a different background, as far as teaching approaches are concerned, should be trained before using TBLT in the classroom.

Muller (2005) introduced task-based learning to a small class of weak students at a private English school in Japan, to give them more opportunities to speak. The researcher adapted a vocabulary-focused lesson from the Presentation Practice Production (PPP)-based textbook that he was using. He adopted Willis's (1996) task structure in his classes as follows: Performing a communicative task, planning a report of the performance, and reporting the task results to the class. In order to incorporate tasks with a clear link to each unit of the textbook, Muller listed vocabulary from each textbook unit, assigned topics to the vocabulary lists, listed tasks following Willis's (1996) task-types and decided in which weeks each unit would be covered. He concluded that although the task and the subsequent planning and report stages did not fulfill the criteria or features of task-based lessons found in literature, his approach did not show how TBL could be used as a starting point for use

with low-level learners who may not be ready for the full version. As these students progressed they would gradually be able to tackle tasks, planning, and reporting sessions that are less restricted and more demanding while working with the familiar task- plan- report framework.

Al Nashash (2006) investigated the effect of a task-based program for teaching English language productive skills on the development of first-year secondary grade female students' oral and written skills at a secondary school in Amman. The results showed that task-based language teaching through the designed program based on the procedures and principles of TBLT improved the learning of communicative speaking and writing skills somewhat better than the conventional method of teaching.

Lochana and Deb's (2006) project in a school run by the Basaveshwara Education Society in India also revealed evidence in support of a task-based approach to language teaching and learning. They developed an experiment in which non-task-based textbook activities were converted into task-based ones in order to test two hypotheses: (1) 'Task-based teaching enhances the language proficiency of the learners' and (2) 'Tasks encourage learners to participate more in the learning processes'. Their findings suggest that TBL is beneficial to learners not only in terms of proficiency enhancement but also in terms of motivation.

Joen and Jung (2006) explored EFL teachers' perceptions of TBLT in Korean secondary school context. The data for their study were collected through questionnaires from a total of 228 teachers at 38 middle and high schools in Korea. The overall findings of their study revealed that despite a higher level of understanding of TBLT concepts, many Korean EFL teachers retain some fear of adopting TBLT as an instructional method because of perceived disciplinary problems related to classroom practice. They also concluded that teachers had their own reasons to use or avoid implementing TBLT. Based on the overall findings, they gave three important implications for teachers and teacher trainers: First, since teachers' views regarding instructional approach have a great impact on classroom practice, it is necessary for the teacher, as a practical controller and facilitator of learners' activities in the classroom, to have a positive attitude toward TBLT in order for it to be successfully implemented. Second, given the research finding that teachers lack practical application knowledge of task-based methods or techniques, teachers should be given the opportunity to acquire knowledge about TBLT related to planning, implementing, and assessing. They suggested that teacher education programs, which aim at in-depth training about language teaching methodologies, should properly deal with both the strengths and weaknesses of TBLT as an instructional method ranging from basic principles to specific techniques. Third, when taking into account that one

of the major reasons teachers avoid implementing TBLT is deeply related to a lack of confidence, much consideration should be given to overcoming potential obstacles that teachers may come across in a task-based classroom. They also recommended that teachers consider alternative solutions for classroom management such as leveled tasks, peer assessment, and a variety of various task types including two-way information gap activities as well as one-way activities such as simple asking and answering.

Aljarf (2007) investigated the effect of TBLT on 52 female EFL students at the college of language at King Saud University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. The students were in their third semester of college and were enrolled in a two-hour speaking course. The students were taught using TBLT principles, instructions, and procedures and were pre and post-tested. The results showed that the students could speak fluently using correct grammar and pronunciations, and could easily generate ideas. The success of this improvement was due to efficient task-based instructions.

Suxiang (2007) explored the effects of combining task-based language teaching with online English language teaching on Chinese university non-major English graduate students. He examined whether this combination promoted the students' interest in English learning and if it improved the students' basic skills in listening, speaking, reading and

writing. The results of the study showed that the students' interest in English gradually increased, and it stimulated the students' potential ability in English learning, particularly their reading, writing, speaking and listening.

Hitutozi (2008) investigated Liberal Arts TEFL undergraduates from the Federal University of Amazonas. A study was designed and implemented to experiment with clustered tasks as a means of maintaining peer-peer oral/aural interaction in the classroom levels. The results indicated that the learners were kept engaged in the meaningful interactions in the classroom for an extended period of time. A key assumption underlying the experiment is that the longer learners use the target language to communicate in the classroom the more their interlanguage is enhanced.

Birjandi and Ahangari (2008) examined the effects of task repetition and task type on fluency, accuracy, and complexity. The researchers assigned 120 students to six groups. The results and the analysis of variance indicated that task repetition and task type, as well as the interaction between these variables, resulted in significant differences in subjects' oral discourse in terms of fluency, accuracy and complexity.

Reports of research findings such as these are likely to encourage teachers to feel comfortable applying TBL to their classrooms. It also fulfills fundamental conditions for learning a second language, namely

exposure, meaningful use, motivation, and language analyses, as pointed out by Willis (in Willis and Willis, 1996).

Narita (2008) conducted a research an elementary school in Japan where she taught English as a foreign language. The classes were given lessons and activities in which they experienced realistic communicative situations such as shopping tasks and an interview tasks. The results showed that many students had a feeling of contentment and strong willingness to continue to study English in the future after completing the tasks.

#### Concluding Remarks

In summary, research findings show that TBLT offers an opportunity for authentic learning in the classroom. Moreover, TBLT not only emphasizes meaning over form, but also caters to learning the form. In addition, TBLT is intrinsically motivating and may be compatible with a learner-centered educational philosophy. At the same time, it allows for teacher input and direction. Finally, it caters to the development of communicative fluency while paying attention to accuracy, and can be used alongside a more traditional procedures. Therefore, TBLT motivates students and promotes higher levels of proficiency. It also creates a low-anxiety learning environment in which students can utilize their ideas and practice their language to develop confidence. Teachers can provide timely guidance, which leads to higher

retention rates. Despite that TBLT is labor intensive and high maintenance, it develops a cooperative learning community among students.

The current study is similar to others from the standpoint of the steps and framework of processes used to analyze the effects of TBLT on the students' achievements and performance in learning a foreign language, but it differs from the studies cited here in several aspects:

1. The current research focused on the effect of TBLT on the students' speaking skills, which are considered the most important skill in learning English as a foreign language.

2. Few studies have been conducted on the effects of task-based language teaching on language skills in general, and on the speaking skills in particular. There has also been only limited research in the Israeli context in general, and in the Palestinians context in Israel in particular. Therefore, the current research is unique since it examines the effects of TBLT on the speaking skills of Palestinian EFL secondary students living in Israel and their attitudes towards English. Its results and implications will no doubt be very beneficial to policy-makers, school principals, and EFL teachers.

## **Chapter Three**

### Methods and Procedures

This chapter presents the methods and procedures that the researcher followed to pinpoint the effect of Task-based language teaching on developing the speaking skills of the subjects and examines their attitudes towards English. The chapter begins with a description of the research subjects and research instruments, and concludes with a description of the research procedures and statistical measures that were used to analyze the data of the study.

### The Research Subjects

Two Arab schools were deliberately chosen from the Arab secondary schools in the lower Galilee in Northern Israel. Each school population consisted of Palestinian boys and girls who studied together in the same classes. These schools were deliberately selected from many Arab high schools in the region because the EFL teachers in these schools are qualified, veteran teachers who are experienced in EFL teaching methods. Moreover, the researcher had easy access to these institutions. These schools are:

1. Bueina-Nujidat High School: The student body consists of 450 boys and girls from three different villages in the lower Galilee. They are distributed in fifteen classes.

2. Tamra High School: The student body consists of 422 boys and girls from Tamra Town in the lower Galilee. They are distributed to fifteen classes.

Four sections of the eleventh grade in the two schools were selected randomly. Two of them constituted the experimental group, while the other two represented the control group. Table 1 presents the distribution of the subjects.

**Table 1: Distribution of the Research Subjects by School and Gender**

School	No. of Students		No. of Subjects in Both Groups			
	Boys	Girls	Experimental Group		Control Group	
			Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Bueina	21	32	14	16	6	17
Tamra	16	22	10	10	7	11
Total	37	54	24	26	13	28

### **Instruments of this Study**

The researcher used the following instruments to achieve the purpose of the study:

#### **The speaking test**

The speaking test was designed and developed by the researcher, and includes oral questions and evaluation rubrics. The oral questions consisted of three types of questions:

- Biographical such as "where do you live?" and "How large is your family"?

- Guided questions such as "What is your favorite subject? Why? "Do you like to study English only? Why?

- Open questions such as: "In your opinion, what should the school do to help you study English? "Why do you think most Arab students do not like English? (Appendix 5:159).

The purpose of the speaking test was to assess the participants' speaking skills before and after the implementation of the instructional program in order to detect the effect of the program on the participants' speaking skills. The participants were pre and post-tested orally, and were then tape- recorded by two EFL teachers who evaluated them after each session according to an evaluation scheme presented by the researcher. The evaluation rubrics for the speaking test were adopted from Ur (2006) and validated by a panel of experts to suit the local context. Table 2 presents the specifications and the weight of fluency and accuracy in the oral social interaction test.

**Table 2: The Specifications for the Speaking Skills Test**

<b>Accuracy</b>		<b>Fluency</b>	
Little or no language production	1	Little or no communication	1
Poor vocabulary, mistakes in basic grammar, very strong foreign accent	2	Very hesitant and brief utterances, sometimes difficult to understand	2
Adequate but limited vocabulary, makes obvious grammar mistakes, slight foreign accent	3	Gets ideas across, but hesitantly and briefly	3
Good range of vocabulary, occasional grammar slips, slight foreign accent	4	Effective communication in short turns	4
Wide vocabulary appropriately used, virtually no grammar mistakes, native like or slight foreign accent	5	Easy and effective communication, uses long turns	5

The following procedures were carried out for the preparation and administration of this test:

1. The test was prepared by the researcher and validated by a panel which consisted of EFL teachers, instructors and lecturers in the College of Sakhnin for Teacher Education (See appendix 3:153).
2. The researcher and the EFL teachers who carried out the test held a training session in which they discussed the questions in the speaking test and the evaluation rubrics and agreed on the content and the procedures of the test and its evaluation.
3. The teachers held individual sessions with the students who participated in the study. The teachers met with each student for ten minutes, during which they asked questions from the speaking skills test. Each session was tape-recorded. After each session the teachers evaluated the student's speaking performance according to the evaluation scheme (Appendix 4: 155). This procedure was conducted before and after the implementation of the instructional program.

### **The attitudinal questionnaire**

The questionnaire was designed to examine the participants' attitudes towards English before and after the implementation of the TBLT program. The attitudinal questionnaire was used by Liu (2007) to examine Chinese students' motivation to learn English as a foreign

language at a tertiary level. Liu used some items that were originally developed by Gardner (1985).

This questionnaire consisted of items about students' attitudes towards learning English. The questionnaire was designed in the form of a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree" with values 1-5 assigned to each alternative. The questionnaire had four dimensions: developmental orientation (items 1-7), integrative orientation (items 8- 20), instrumental orientation (items 21-36), and travel orientation (items 37-42). The survey for travel orientation was adopted mainly because some participants are highly exposed to computers and to the Internet and some of them participated in summer schools in England. For this reason it was thought that they might be specifically motivated to learn English through travel. (See Appendix 2).

The questionnaire was administered to the participants in both groups before and after the implementation of the instructional program.

### **Validity and reliability of the Research Instruments**

A panel of judges consisting of nine academic college instructors and three high school teachers were asked to evaluate the attitudinal questionnaire items in light of the context in which it was used. The instructional program and the speaking test and its evaluation scheme were also validated by the same panel (See Appendix 3).

Both the speaking skills test and the attitudinal questionnaire were tested on a pilot group. This group consisted of ten students randomly selected from the section of the target grade at the assigned schools who were not members of two specified groups who participated in the study. A technique of a test-retest was used to ensure the reliability of the research instruments. The period between the test and the re-test was two weeks. The correlation coefficient of the test was calculated using Pearson's Correlation Coefficient and was found (87%) for the attitudinal questionnaire and (85%) for the speaking skills test, which was considered statistically acceptable for the current study.

Table 3 presents the reliability of the questionnaire while Table 4 presents the agreement percentage of the speaking skills test.

**Table 3: Reliability of the Attitudinal Questionnaire**

<b>Questionnaire And its dimensions</b>	<b>Stability Index (Pearson)</b>	<b>Consistency Index (Cronbach's Alpha)</b>	<b>N of Items</b>
Developmental Orientation	0.71	0.65	7
Integrative Orientation	0.63	0.73	13
Instrumental Orientation	0.65	0.83	16
Travel Orientation	0.66	0.71	6
Whole	0.70	0.85	42

**Table 4: The Agreement Percentage of the Speaking Skill Test**

<b>Oral Test</b>	<b>Stability Index (Pearson)</b>
Accuracy	0.85
Fluency	0.89
Overall	0.87

#### The Instructional Program

To achieve the aim of the study, an instructional program to teach speaking by TBLT was designed by the researcher (see Appendix 1).

#### General objectives

The program was basically designed to be an instructional syllabus for developing the oral social interaction skills of students in the experimental group. Fluency and accuracy were the priority in this program. There was direct teaching of grammar generalizations during the last two phases of the TBLT framework (while and post- task).

By the end of the program students will be able to:

- interact effectively orally in English in various social contexts with people from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds.

This will be accomplished through fluency and accuracy.

Students will exhibit communicative ability (fluency), and will be able to: understand questions, interact fluently, and provide elaborate answers.

Students will exhibit accuracy and will be able to use complex language structures such as relative and conditional clauses correctly.

Students will be able to use a rich vocabulary and pronounce words correctly.

#### Description of the Program:

EFL teachers face a problem when designing course materials. Many institutions require students to purchase a textbook which is often based on Presentation Practice Production (PPP) procedure based textbooks. There is no way that teachers can construct their own curriculum, and they therefore use the textbook to provide their syllabus. TBLT may be a preferable alternative to PPP (Skehan, 1996), and teachers therefore have the option of adapting class textbooks to TBLT.

This program was designed on the basis of TBLT procedures and principles. Textbooks for teaching English as a foreign language are based on PPP syllabus. Therefore, the researcher adapted materials found in the traditional textbooks to fit the procedures and principles of TBLT. This program focused on speaking skills.

To create a design of TBLT, the researcher developed a plan to be followed when adapting the tasks found in advance through more relevant activities (henceforth, Targets).

Skehan (1996: 22) advises that educators must balance the three goals of 'accuracy', 'complexity restructuring', and 'fluency' when using TBLT. Willis (1996), suggests three stages in a cycle that concentrates on

fluency first (in the task), complexity restructuring next (in planning), and finally combines accuracy with fluency (in the report).

### Context

Teaching oral social interaction for EFL students in Israel is the same in both Jewish and Arab schools. It is intended to make students interact effectively in English with people from varied linguistic and cultural backgrounds in varied social contexts. This should be achieved at the end of the proficiency level (high school). In both high Bueina-Nujidat and Tamra schools English classes are held for forty five minutes four times a week, forty eight classes per semester (three months). Both schools are under the jurisdiction of the Israeli Ministry of Education. The program was designed to cater to the eleventh grade students' level of English. The students are 17 years old and the classes are heterogeneous. The population is 872 students. The sample consisted of 91 subjects. 50 subjects made up the experimental group and 41 made up the control group. The TBLT program was implemented in the experimental group.

### Method

The researcher adopted Willis' (1996) task structure in the classes as follows:

Performing a communicative task

Planning a report of the performance

Reporting the task results to the class

Willis's structure encouraged focus on fluency (communication) during the task phase, then form (restructuring for complexity and accuracy) during the planning and the reporting phases.

In order to incorporate tasks with a clear link to each chosen unit for the program, the researcher took the following steps:

1. Listing vocabulary from each textbook unit.
2. Assigning topics to the vocabulary lists.
3. Listing tasks following Willis's (1996) task types.
4. Deciding in which weeks each unit would be covered. (For further information (Appendix 1: 120).

#### Data Collection

Prior to the beginning of the study, the subjects were administered the pretest and the attitudinal questionnaire. The intervention process then began. The subjects in the experimental group were taught English speaking using the TBLT program, while the participants in the control group were taught the same material conventionally. The post-test and the attitudinal questionnaire were also administered at the conclusion of the study.

#### Design of the Study

The current study adopted the quasi-experimental design in terms of using one experimental group and one control group. These groups were chosen randomly from eleventh grade classes from the two schools. They

were judgmentally random. The experimental group was taught using the task-based program (TBP) designed by the researcher and the control group was taught using the conventional method of teaching used by teachers of EFL at these schools. Both the experimental and the control groups were pre-tested and posttested in their speaking skills and their attitudes towards English.

The experimental group (two sections) was taught by two trained EFL teachers: one male and female, while the control group (two sections) was also taught by two teachers: one male and one female. Each EFL teacher had a BA degree in English literature and linguistics and was a certified teacher.. All teachers had at least 10 years of teaching experience.

#### Research Variables

The study has two dependent variables: They are the subjects' mean scores on the speaking skill test and the mean scores of their responses to the items of the attitudinal questionnaire, whereas the independent variables are the students' gender and the instructional program.

#### Statistical Analysis

To answer the research questions, the speaking skills test and the attitude questionnaire were administered as a pre-test and a post-test. Covariance (ANCOVA, MANCOVA) were used to test the difference in adjusted mean scores between the two groups to find out if they were statistically significant. The adjusted post scores were also calculated.

## Research Procedures

The study was carried out in the following manner:

1. Permission to conduct the study was obtained from the school principals.
2. The relevant literature was reviewed to establish the theoretical background of the study.
3. The TBLT program was prepared and validated.
4. The speaking skills test and the attitudinal questionnaire were prepared and validated.
5. A training session was held that included the researcher and the EL teachers who implemented the instructional program and who tested and evaluated the participants. The teachers were trained in the principles and procedures of TBLT.
6. A pilot study was conducted on ten students from the target population who did not participate in the study. This is to ensure the reliability of the instrument.
7. The speaking test and the attitudinal questionnaire were administered before and after the study. The results of both instruments were statistically analyzed.
8. The designed program was applied for a period of three months.
9. The findings of the study were analyzed and discussed.

10. The researcher wrote and produced the dissertation according to the guidelines presented in the guide for writing theses and dissertations at Yarmouk University.

## Chapter Four

### Research Findings

The purpose of the current study is to investigate the effect of an instructional program based on the TBLT principles and procedures on the students' speaking skill and their attitudes towards English. The findings of the study are presented in this chapter according to the research questions.

Findings related to the first research question

Is there a statistically significant difference between the subjects' mean scores on the English speaking skill test due to the interaction between the teaching procedure and gender?

To simplify presenting the findings related to this question, the researcher divided it as follows:

a. The scores of students on the speaking skills test according to the independent variables of the study: The researcher calculated the means, the standard deviations of the adjusted means and the standard error of the students' scores on the pre and post-test according to the teaching procedure and students' gender. The results are presented in Table 5.

**Table 5**

Means, Standard Deviations, Adjusted Means and Standard Errors of the Subjects' Scores on the Pre and Post Tests According to the Teaching Procedure and Students' Gender

Group	Gender	N	Pretest of Overall Speaking Test (Covariate)		Posttest of Overall Speaking Test			
			Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Adj. Mean	Std. Error
Control	Male	13	4.654	1.51	5.077	1.44	5.850	0.17
	Female	28	5.804	1.25	5.893	1.31	5.661	0.11
	Total	41	5.439	1.42	5.634	1.39	5.755	0.10
Experimental	Male	24	6.083	1.52	7.292	1.33	6.816	0.12
	Female	26	5.192	1.18	7.077	1.23	7.379	0.12
	Total	50	5.620	1.42	7.180	1.27	7.097	0.08
Total	Male	37	5.581	1.65	6.514	1.73	6.333	0.10
	Female	54	5.509	1.25	6.463	1.40	6.520	0.08

Table 5 shows that there are observed differences between the adjusted means of both groups according to the teaching procedure and students' gender. The researcher used ANCOVA to find the significance of these differences. The results are presented in Table 6.

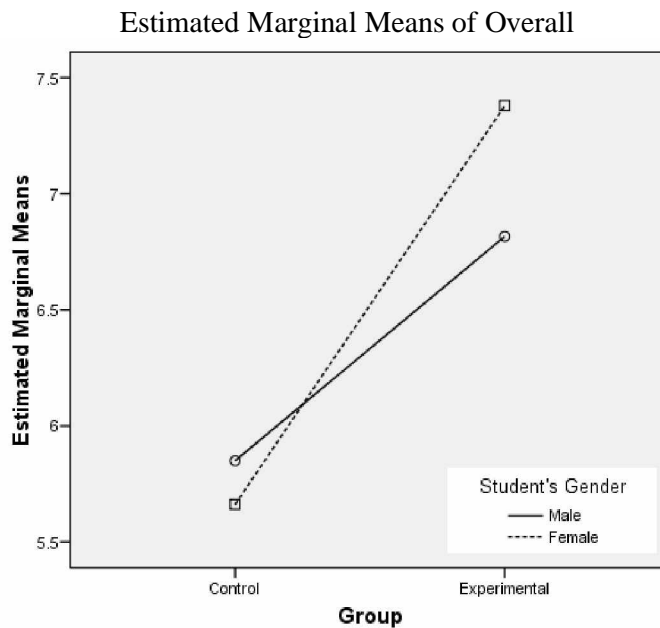
**Table 6**

Results of ANCOVA on the Total Score of the Speaking Test Due to Teaching Procedure and Subjects' Gender

Source	Sum of Squares	Degree Freedom	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial $\eta^2$
Overall Speaking Test (Covariate)	120.366	1	120.366	<b>344.589</b>	0.000	80.0%
Group	36.567	1	36.567	<b>104.686</b>	0.000	54.9%
Gender	0.729	1	0.729	2.086	0.152	2.4%
Group*gender	2.580	1	2.580	<b>7.387</b>	0.008	7.9%
Error	30.040	86	0.349			
Total	210.725	90				

Table 6 shows that there is a statistically significant difference ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ) between the two adjusted means of the students' scores on the post -test attributed to the teaching procedure in favor of the members of the experimental group. Table 6 also shows that there is no statistically significant difference ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ) between the two adjusted means of the

students scores on the post test due to the students' gender. The Table also shows that there are statistically significant differences at ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ) between the adjusted means of the students' scores on the post-test attributed to the interaction between the teaching procedure and students' gender. Figure 1 presents this interaction.



**Figure 1: The Interaction between the Variables of the Study**

Figure 1 shows that there is a significant difference between girls and boys in the experimental group in favor of the girls. Figure 1 also shows an observed difference between the boys and the girls in the control group in favor of the boys. In addition, the figure shows that there is a significant difference between the achievement of boys and girls in the experimental group and boys and girls in the control group in favor of the experimental group.

**b. The dimensions of the speaking test:**

The researcher calculated the means, the standard deviations, the adjusted means and the standard error of the students' scores on the two dimensions of the pre and post tests according to the teaching procedure and students' gender. The results are presented in Table 7.

**Table 7**

Means, Standard Deviations, Adjusted Means and Standard Error of the Students' Scores on the Dimensions of the Pre and Post- Tests According to the Teaching Procedure and Subjects' Gender

Dimension	Group	Gender	Pretest of Speaking Test (Covariate)		Posttest of Speaking Test			
			Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Adj. Mean	Std. Error
Accuracy	Control	Male	2.462	0.85	2.769	0.83	3.108	0.12
		Female	2.946	0.55	2.929	0.66	2.813	0.08
		Total	2.793	0.69	2.878	0.71	2.960	0.07
	Experimental	Male	3.083	0.79	3.708	0.81	3.467	0.09
		Female	2.596	0.62	3.615	0.70	3.794	0.09
		Total	2.830	0.74	3.660	0.75	3.630	0.06
	Total	Male	2.865	0.86	3.378	0.92	3.287	0.07
		Female	2.778	0.60	3.259	0.76	3.303	0.06
	Fluency	Control	Male	2.308	0.72	2.308	0.75	2.662
Female			2.857	0.77	2.964	0.74	2.861	0.07
Total			2.683	0.79	2.756	0.80	2.761	0.06
Experimental		Male	3.000	0.82	3.583	0.65	3.358	0.07
		Female	2.596	0.63	3.462	0.65	3.604	0.07
		Total	2.790	0.75	3.520	0.65	3.481	0.05
Total		Male	2.757	0.85	3.135	0.92	3.010	0.06
		Female	2.731	0.71	3.204	0.74	3.232	0.05

Table 7 shows that there are observed differences between the adjusted means of the students' scores on the two dimensions of the test.

The researcher used MANCOVA to analyze the speaking test dimensions according to the independent variables of the study. The results are presented in Table 8.

**Table 8**

Results of MANCOVA on the Dimensions of the Speaking Test  
According to the Teaching Procedure and Subjects' Gender

Effect	MANCOVA Test	Value	F	Hypothesis degree freedom	Error degree freedom	Sig.	Partial $\eta^2$
Accuracy (Covariate)	Wilks' Lambda	0.671	<b>20.632</b>	2	84	0.000	0.329
Fluency (Covariate)	Wilks' Lambda	0.588	<b>29.408</b>	2	84	0.000	0.412
Group	Hotelling's Trace	1.483	<b>62.299</b>	2	84	0.000	0.597
Gender	Hotelling's Trace	0.093	<b>3.911</b>	2	84	0.024	0.085
Group*gender	Wilks' Lambda	0.897	<b>4.828</b>	2	84	0.010	0.103

Table 8 shows that there is a significant effect for the teaching procedure and students' gender and the interaction between them ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ) on the dimensions of the speaking test. The researcher used ANCOVA to find the effect of the research variables on each dimension separately,. The results are presented in Table 9.

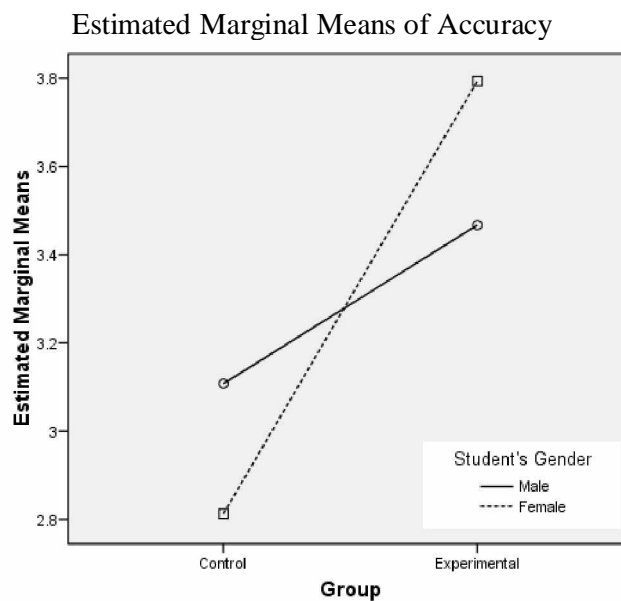
**Table 9**

ANCOVA Results on each Dimensions of the Speaking Separately According to the Teaching procedure and Subjects' Gender

Dependent Variable	Source	Sum of Squares	Degree freedom	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial $\eta^2$
Accuracy	Accuracy (Covariate)	6.654	1	6.654	<b>36.417</b>	0.000	30.0%
	Fluency (Covariate)	1.124	1	1.124	<b>6.149</b>	0.015	6.7%
	Group	9.135	1	9.135	<b>49.996</b>	0.000	37.0%
	Gender	0.005	1	0.005	0.028	0.867	0.0%
	Group*gender	1.782	1	1.782	<b>9.754</b>	0.002	10.3%
	Error	15.531	85	0.183			
	Total	61.385	90				
Fluency	Accuracy (Covariate)	0.864	1	0.864	<b>6.716</b>	0.011	7.3%
	Fluency (Covariate)	7.074	1	7.074	<b>54.965</b>	0.000	39.3%
	Group	10.531	1	10.531	<b>81.824</b>	0.000	49.0%
	Gender	1.018	1	1.018	<b>7.913</b>	0.006	8.5%
	Group*gender	0.010	1	0.010	0.076	0.783	0.1%
	Error	10.940	85	0.129			
	Total	59.187	90				

Table 9 shows that there is a statistically significant difference ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ) between the two adjusted means of the students' scores on the two dimensions (accuracy and fluency) due to the teaching procedure in favor of the experimental group. In addition, the table shows that there is a statistically significant difference ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ) between the two adjusted

means of the students' score on the dimension of fluency due to the students' gender in favor of the girls. Finally, the results show that there is a statistically significant difference ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ) between the means of students' scores on the dimension of accuracy due to the interaction between the teaching procedure and students' gender. This interaction is presented in Figure 2.



**Figure 2: The Interaction between the Teaching Procedure and Students' Gender on the Dimension of Accuracy.**

Figure 2 shows that there is a significant difference between the achievement of boys and girls in the experimental group in favor of the girls, while there is a significant difference between the achievement of boys and girls in the control group in favor of the boys.

### **Findings related to the second research question**

*Is there a statistically significant difference between the subjects' mean scores of the attitudes towards English due to the teaching procedure and subjects' gender?*

To simplify presenting the findings related to the question, the researcher divided them into two parts as follows:

a. The total score of the students' attitudes towards English according to the independent variables of the study: To measure the students' attitudes towards English, the researcher calculated the means and standard deviations of the students' responses to the attitudinal questionnaire items before and after implementing the TBLT program. The post adjusted means and the standard errors were also calculated. The results of analysis are presented in Table 10.

**Table 10**

Means, Standard Deviations and the Adjusted Means and Standard Errors of the Pre and Post Subjects' Responses to the Attitudinal Questionnaire Items According to the Independent Variables of the Study

Group	Gender	N	Pretest of Overall Attitudes (Covariate)		Posttest of Overall Attitudes			
			Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Adj. Mean	Std. Error
Control	Male	13	2.304	0.20	2.531	0.28	2.587	0.09
	Female	28	2.280	0.24	2.428	0.21	2.502	0.06
	Total	41	2.287	0.22	2.461	0.24	2.544	0.06
Experimental	Male	24	2.487	0.21	4.039	0.48	3.955	0.07
	Female	26	2.418	0.16	4.124	0.38	4.093	0.06
	Total	50	2.451	0.19	4.083	0.43	4.024	0.05
Total	Male	37	2.423	0.22	3.509	0.84	3.271	0.06
	Female	54	2.346	0.22	3.244	0.91	3.297	0.04

Table 10 shows that there is an observed difference between the two post adjusted means of the students' responses according to the teaching procedure and students' gender. The researcher used ANCOVA to find the significance of the observed difference,. The results are presented in Table 11.

**Table 11**

Results of ANCOVA on the Total Score of the Attitudinal Questionnaire Due to the Teaching Procedure and Subjects' Gender

Source	Sum of Squares	Degree freedom	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial $\eta^2$
Overall Attitudes (Covariate)	2.128	1	2.128	<b>20.586</b>	0.000	19.3%
Group	39.644	1	39.644	<b>383.590</b>	0.000	81.7%
Gender	0.014	1	0.014	0.139	0.710	0.2%
Group*gender	0.257	1	0.257	2.485	0.119	2.8%
Error	8.888	86	0.103			
Total	70.493	90				

Table 11 shows that there is a statistically significant difference at ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ) between the adjusted means of the post students' responses in favor of the students in the experimental group. The size effect (81.7) indicates

that the instructional program affected positively the overall attitudes of the students towards English, while gender was not significant (0.2).

b. The researcher calculated the means, the standard deviation of the adjusted means and the standard error of the students' pre and post responses to the items of the questionnaire dimensions according to the independent variables of the study. The results are presented in Table 12.

**Table 12**  
**Means, Standard Deviations, Standard Errors and the Adjusted Means of the Pre and Post Subjects' Responses to the Items of the Questionnaire Dimensions According to the Independent Variables of the Study**

Dimension	Group	Gender	Pretest of Questionnaire Dimensions (Covariate)		Posttest of Questionnaire Dimensions			
			Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Adj. Mean	Std. Error
Developmental Orientation	Control	Male	2.253	0.38	2.418	0.37	2.417	0.11
		Female	2.097	0.39	2.270	0.45	2.334	0.08
		Total	2.146	0.39	2.317	0.43	2.376	0.07
	Experimental	Male	2.280	0.37	4.196	0.52	4.145	0.09
		Female	2.275	0.35	4.401	0.35	4.380	0.08
		Total	2.277	0.36	4.303	0.45	4.263	0.06
	Total	Male	2.270	0.37	3.571	0.98	3.281	0.07
		Female	2.183	0.38	3.296	1.15	3.357	0.06
	Integrative Orientation	Control	Male	2.331	0.19	2.503	0.31	2.547
Female			2.368	0.25	2.514	0.25	2.547	0.08
Total			2.356	0.23	2.510	0.27	2.547	0.07
Experimental		Male	2.417	0.31	3.686	0.54	3.676	0.09
		Female	2.479	0.28	3.825	0.53	3.777	0.08
		Total	2.449	0.29	3.758	0.53	3.726	0.06
Total		Male	2.387	0.28	3.270	0.74	3.112	0.07
		Female	2.422	0.27	3.145	0.78	3.162	0.06
Instrumental Orientation		Control	Male	2.293	0.22	2.572	0.44	2.657
	Female		2.288	0.41	2.433	0.32	2.521	0.07
	Total		2.290	0.36	2.477	0.37	2.589	0.06
	Experimental	Male	2.604	0.30	4.245	0.55	4.107	0.08
		Female	2.373	0.30	4.228	0.40	4.218	0.07
		Total	2.484	0.32	4.236	0.47	4.162	0.05
	Total	Male	2.495	0.31	3.657	0.96	3.382	0.06
		Female	2.329	0.36	3.297	0.97	3.370	0.05
	Travel Orientation	Control	Male	2.333	0.37	2.615	0.67	2.690
Female			2.280	0.39	2.411	0.32	2.508	0.10
Total			2.297	0.38	2.476	0.46	2.599	0.09
Experimental		Male	2.569	0.59	4.069	0.66	3.955	0.11
		Female	2.571	0.38	4.167	0.51	4.131	0.10
		Total	2.570	0.49	4.120	0.58	4.043	0.07
Total		Male	2.486	0.53	3.559	0.96	3.323	0.09
		Female	2.420	0.41	3.256	0.98	3.319	0.07

Table 12 shows that there are observed differences between the adjusted means of the post students' responses according to the teaching procedure

and students' gender. In order to find out if ANCOVA or MANCOVA is more suitable, the researcher conducted an intra-class linear correlation between the dimensions of the questionnaire. The researcher also used the Bartlett's test to reveal the significance of the correlation between each dimension of the attitudinal questionnaire. The results are presented in Table 13.

**Table 13**

The Intra Class Linear Correlation of the Dimensions of the Attitudinal Questionnaire and the Results of Bartlett's Test According to the Teaching Procedure and Subjects' Gender

<b>Pearson Correlation</b>	Developmental Orientation	Integrative Orientation	Instrumental Orientation	Travel Orientation
Developmental Orientation	1			
Integrative Orientation	<b>0.83</b>	1		
Instrumental Orientation	<b>0.89</b>	<b>0.87</b>	1	
Travel Orientation	<b>0.85</b>	<b>0.83</b>	<b>0.92</b>	1
<b>Bartlett's Test of Sphericity</b>	<b>Likelihood Ratio</b>	<b>Approx. Chi<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>Degree freedom</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
	0.000	<b>103.141</b>	9	0.000

Table 13 shows that there is a significant proportion ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ) between the elements of the residual matrix and the elements of the identity matrix on the dimensions according to the teaching procedure and students' gender. This fact obliged the researcher to use the MANCOVA; The results are presented in Table 14

**Table 14**

The Results of MANCOVA on the Dimensions of the Attitudinal Questionnaire According to the Teaching Procedure and Subjects' Gender

Effect	MANOVA Test	Value	F	Hypothesis degree freedom	Error degree freedom	Sig.	Partial $\eta^2$
Developmental Orientation(Covariate)	Wilks' Lambda	0.817	<b>4.494</b>	4	80	0.003	18.3%
Integrative Orientation (Covariate)	Wilks' Lambda	0.890	2.461	4	80	0.052	11.0%
Instrumental Orientation (Covariate)	Wilks' Lambda	0.702	<b>8.483</b>	4	80	0.000	29.8%
Travel Orientation (Covariate)	Wilks' Lambda	0.928	1.559	4	80	0.193	7.2%
Group	Hotelling's Trace	6.120	<b>122.404</b>	4	80	0.000	86.0%
Gender	Hotelling's Trace	0.016	0.327	4	80	0.859	1.6%
Group*gender	Wilks' Lambda	0.948	1.090	4	80	0.367	5.2%

The results show that there is a statistically significant effect ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ) attributed to the task-based program, while there is no significant effect ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ) for the gender variable and the interaction between the teaching procedure and students' gender. To find out the effect of the variables of the study on each dimension separately, ANCOVA was used. The results are presented in Table 15.

**Table 15**  
**Result of ANCOVA on the Dimensions of the Attitudinal Questionnaire**  
**According to the Teaching Procedure and Subjects' Gender**

Dependent Variable	Source	Sum of Squares	Degree freedom	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial $\eta^2$
Developmental Orientation	Developmental (Covariate)	2.663	1	2.663	<b>16.275</b>	0.000	16.4%
	Integrative Orientation (Covariate)	0.111	1	0.111	0.679	0.412	0.8%
	Instrumental Orientation (Covariate)	0.207	1	0.207	1.264	0.264	1.5%
	Travel Orientation (Covariate)	0.142	1	0.142	0.866	0.355	1.0%
	Group	64.048	1	64.048	<b>391.400</b>	0.000	82.5%
	Gender	0.113	1	0.113	0.693	0.407	0.8%
	Group*gender	0.502	1	0.502	3.067	0.084	3.6%
	Error	13.582	83	0.164			
	Total	106.105	90				
Integrative Orientation	Developmental (Covariate)	0.014	1	0.014	0.081	0.777	0.1%
	Integrative Orientation (Covariate)	1.734	1	1.734	9.767	0.002	10.5%
	Instrumental Orientation (Covariate)	0.003	1	0.003	0.016	0.898	0.0%
	Travel Orientation (Covariate)	0.049	1	0.049	0.278	0.599	0.3%
	Group	25.023	1	25.023	<b>140.968</b>	0.000	62.9%
	Gender	0.049	1	0.049	0.279	0.599	0.3%
	Group*gender	0.052	1	0.052	0.292	0.591	0.4%
	Error	14.733	83	0.178			
	Total	52.027	90				
Instrumental Orientation	Developmental(Covariate)	0.023	1	0.023	0.170	0.682	0.2%
	Integrative Orientation (Covariate)	0.353	1	0.353	2.586	0.112	3.0%
	Instrumental Orientation (Covariate)	3.152	1	3.152	<b>23.069</b>	0.000	21.7%
	Travel Orientation (Covariate)	0.022	1	0.022	0.164	0.686	0.2%
	Group	44.520	1	44.520	<b>325.824</b>	0.000	79.7%
	Gender	0.003	1	0.003	0.021	0.885	0.0%
	Group*gender	0.304	1	0.304	2.223	0.140	2.6%
	Error	11.341	83	0.137			
	Total	85.993	90				
Travel Orientation	Developmental (Covariate)	0.099	1	0.099	0.390	0.534	0.5%
	Integrative Orientation (Covariate)	0.167	1	0.167	0.657	0.420	0.8%
	Instrumental Orientation (Covariate)	1.211	1	1.211	<b>4.774</b>	0.032	5.4%
	Travel Orientation (Covariate)	0.786	1	0.786	3.098	0.082	3.6%
	Group	37.507	1	37.507	<b>147.816</b>	0.000	64.0%
	Gender	0.000	1	0.000	0.001	0.976	0.0%
	Group*gender	0.636	1	0.636	2.507	0.117	2.9%
	Error	21.060	83	0.254			
	Total	86.059	90				

Table 15 shows that there is a significant difference ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ) between the adjusted means of the post students' responses to the items of the questionnaire dimensions according to the teaching procedure in favor of the experimental group. The size effect for the teaching procedure related to each dimension (82.5% for the developmental orientation, 62.9% for integrative orientation, 79.7% for the instrumental orientation and 64% for travel orientation) proves that TBLT affected positively the students' attitudes towards English on the dimensions of the questionnaire.

## **Chapter Five**

### **Discussion, Conclusions and Recommendations**

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of an instructional program, based on the Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), on developing the speaking skills of Palestinian secondary EFL students living in Israel and their attitudes towards English. For this purpose, the researcher conducted the current study on a sample of two groups: an experimental group taught by the task-based program (TBP) and a control group taught conventionally. The discussion of the findings is presented according to the questions of the study.

#### **Discussion of the findings related to the first research question**

The first question tried to examine the effect of the TBLT program on the students' speaking skills test.

Table 6 shows that there is a statistically significant difference ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ) between the two adjusted means of the students' scores due to the teaching procedure in favor of the experimental group. The results can be explained by the fact that the TBLT program emphasized the fluency of the participants rather than the bits and pieces of the linguistic competence of the learners. In task based learning, the tasks are central to the learning activity. The method is based on the belief that students can learn more effectively when their minds are focused on the task, rather

than on the language they are using. Learning to speak and to understand the language automatically in a vast variety of situations requires intensive exposure to language and unlimited interaction with language users. Furthermore, TBLT enables the teachers to improve the students' communicative skills, to provide opportunities for native like interactions, to practice making oral representations immediately after getting enough meaning. Unlike the conventional approach which moves the learner from accuracy to fluency, the most important feature of task-based framework, like any other communicative focused activities, is that it moves the learner from fluency to accuracy. In TBLT class, the atmosphere is comfortable, cooperative and non-threatening. Consequently, less confident students who normally refuse to speak in public want to perform because they benefit from the core activity so much that all the psychological barriers such as stress, anxiety and fear are put away.

The program included various speaking activities, exercises and instructions which focused on the process rather than the product. In addition the activities were purposeful and the tasks emphasized communication and meaning. The students also learned English by interacting communicatively and purposefully while engaged in meaningful activities and tasks were either those that the students need to

achieve in real life, or those that had a pedagogical purpose specific to the classroom.

Students were able to understand questions, interact fluently and give extended answers in the designed tasks and activities. This process enhanced students' fluency. Students were also able to use correct complex language structures, such as relative and conditional clauses and they used rich vocabulary and pronounced correctly. This enhanced their accuracy. In addition, the students had ample opportunities to express their opinions and ideas that were related to the designed task especially in the pre task phase. The teachers who implemented the program also played an important role in developing the students' speaking skills. First, they had a positive attitude towards TBLT, and were enthusiastic to teach according to its procedures and principles. Willis (1996) and Carless (2001) emphasized the role of the teachers in promoting students' learning through TBLT. Second, during the implementation of the program, the teachers acted as monitors or facilitators, and encouraged their students to perform the activities. The teachers who were involved in the current study kept in mind that a task in TBLT is goal- directed and based on meaning and form. They also took into account that a task for oral social interaction is a simulation of a real life activity; authenticity of tasks is critical quality in TBLT.

In addition, group work, authentic materials, visual aids such as realia and stickers to explain vocabulary items, using the students' personal knowledge about the given task and the presentation of oral reports about the topics of the tasks enhanced the students' speaking skill and motivated them to speak in English. Such activities as well as using authentic material are considered essential in TBLT teaching (Nunan, 1993; Skehan, 1998; Ellis, 2003).

These findings are also supported by researchers who emphasized the role of TBLT in promoting speaking skills. Lever and Willis (2004) pointed out that learners made far more rapid progress through TBLT and were able to use their new foreign language in real world situations with reasonable levels of efficiency after relatively short courses. Ellis (2000), Nunan (2006) and Willis (1996) noted that while performing the tasks, learners engage in certain types of language use and mental processing that are useful for acquisition. In TBLT learners also use the language for a communicative purpose. Moreover, TBLT enhances students' oral discourse in terms of utterance length or complexity, fluency and accuracy, and then communication is promoted (Cathcard, 1988; Bygate, 1996; Skehan and Foster, 1997; Birjandi and Ahangari, 2008).

### **Discussion of the findings related to the second research question**

The second question attempted to examine the effect of the teaching procedure and students' gender on students' attitudes. The related hypotheses claim that there is no statistically significant difference among the students' mean scores on the attitudinal questionnaire due to the implementation of the instructional program and students' gender.

Table 11 shows that there is a statistically significant difference ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ) between the adjusted means of the Palestinian secondary students' mean scores on the attitudinal questionnaire due to the teaching procedure in favor of the experimental group.

This result can be justified since the students of the experimental group were taught the speaking material in an organized manner, when presenting, practicing and evaluating this material. The researcher feels that the design of the program helped considerably in improving the attitudes of the experimental group students towards English. For example, dividing the task into three phases (pre, during and post) and performing different activities during each phase appears to be useful in motivating students to learn English and in positively affecting their attitudes towards English. In addition, the use of tasks, the discussion among the students, planning activities such as brain storming and presentation of reports could have provided better context for activating the students' learning processes and motivated them to participate in the

class activities, and then to change their attitudes towards English. Furthermore, rewarding the winning group by publishing their report on the school site should have developed their attitudes toward English positively. When asked about the significance of the program, some students reported that they enjoyed English and planned to learn as much English as possible as a result of the designed program, while before implementing the instructional program, they reported that they hated English and thought that it was a dull subject to study. However, after the implementation of the designed program, their attitudes developed and they began to like English and reported that they would continue to practice English individually after they finished school (these responses were to items numbers 1-7 in the attitudinal questionnaire, (Appendix 2). This change in the students' attitudes towards English is related to the fact that through the designed program, the students learnt by interacting freely with their colleagues without being afraid that they would make errors. In addition the teachers' encouragement might have motivated the learners to participate in the designed tasks and activities. For example, in a problem solving activity the students found themselves in a situation that they were motivated to think and use the language; they had less stress, anxiety and apprehension, and so participated in classroom interactions with the highest self-esteem and self-confidence. This active and successful engagement in class may develop their attitudes positively.

Better achievement, for sure, leads to better attitudes. Widdowson, (1990) pinpointed that through TBLT the students' attitudes would improve and that they would be more motivated to take part in these activities.

Table 15 showed a significant effect of TBLT on each dimension of the students' attitudes towards English. The findings in this table indicate that TBLT is an efficient teaching procedure which could promote students' attitudes towards English. Before the implementation of the instructional program, most of the students responded that they were neither interested in the culture of English native speakers, nor were they like to travel to English speaking countries, and they did not expect to get a job as a result of their good English, whereas, after implementing the TBLT program their responses changed totally. They mostly agreed or strongly agreed that mastering English may increase their opportunities to get a job in the future, and that they became interested in reading about the culture of the native speakers of English and they were interested in traveling to English-speaking countries in order to practice their English (these responses were given in response to items numbers 15, 20, 21, 32, 36 and 37 in the attitudinal questionnaire (Appendix 2).

These findings are also supported by researchers who emphasized the role of TBLT in motivating students and changing their attitudes towards English as a foreign language through its various activities. Bugler and Hunt (2002) pointed out that TBLT enhanced the students' interest in

learning English; the students found the experience to be rewarding, intrinsically interesting and educationally beneficial. Lopes (2004) found out that students using TBLT instructions learned English more effectively because they used the language to perform tasks, access information, solve problems, and talk about personal experiences. Lochana and Deb (2006) noted that TBLT was beneficial to the students not only in terms of proficiency but also motivationwise. Suxiang (2007) asserted that TBLT improved gradually the students' interest in English, and it could stimulate the students' potential ability in English learning.

Tables 11-16 show that there is a statistically significant difference at ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ) between the two adjusted means of the post students' responses on the attitudinal questionnaire due to the teaching procedure in favor of the experimental group, while there is no statistically significant difference at ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ) due the students' gender and the interaction between the teaching procedure and students' gender.

The findings also show that there is a significant difference between the boys' and girls' attitudes and achievements in the experimental group in favor of the girls. This result can be explained by the fact that the girls are more socialized and ready to participate in the task activities than boys. The girls also excelled as linguistic learners because they were much more likely to be better listeners. They were motivated to learn English because they believed that getting a good mark in English is the first step

in their acceptance to colleges or universities, while the boys were busy in thinking about other fields of life such as joining a football team and spending times with other boys after school.

The findings also show that there is an observed difference between the boys' and the girls' attitudes and achievement in the control group in favor of the boys. This result can be explained by the fact that students in the control group were taught traditionally and did not participate in activities and tasks. Instead, they were only answering the teacher's questions which were usually found in the text. On the other hand, students in the experimental group were required to take an active part in negotiating the designed tasks and activities, they need to talk more. Girls seem to be more active than boys in task- based work. This may be explained sociolinguistically, in many speech communities women were found to be in the forefront of change, namely they are more innovative than men. Some other sociolinguistic studies found women to be more status- conscious (Labov, 1972; Milroy, 1987)

## **Conclusions**

The researcher drew the following conclusions from the findings of the study and theoretical propositions of the related literature:

1. Task-based language teaching (TBLT) improves students' speaking skill and develops students' attitudes towards English.
2. It is clear that the girls' speaking skills improved more than the boys' when classroom practice was organized and authentic as is the case in TBLT. The boys did better in conventional teaching situations. This is due to the fact that TBLT requires students to be active participants in the various tasks and activities.
3. In TBLT, teachers can assume various roles when performing the tasks. Nunan (1989) and Richards and Rodgers, (2001) mentioned the following task roles for teachers: selector/sequencer of tasks, preparer of learners for task, pre-task consciousness raiser about form, guide, nurturer, strategy-instructor, and provider of assistance.
4. The textbooks used in English instruction are the same for Arabs and Jews. There are no texts in the books about the Palestinians, and this, according to Amara and Marai (2002) upsets the balance that exists in the curriculum. Arab students learn about Jews and Western culture, but they do not learn about themselves. Teachers should therefore design authentic Palestinian texts that cater to Palestinian students' needs and interests and add them to the existing material.

5. Despite the criticism that the students may be unwilling to interact freely, the results of this research show that through TBLT students' fluency and accuracy have improved significantly. This might be attributed to the fact that the teachers planned the tasks well according to the three stages of the tasks.

6. Palestinian EFL students who live in Israel usually encounter problems in learning English, and only a low percentage of them pass the English matriculation examination. This might be partially attributed to the lack of exposure to authentic English. TBLT can be the solution for this lack of exposure to authentic English; TBLT gives the students a chance to practice their English by using different activities in real world tasks and in a stress free atmosphere in the classroom setting. Through TBLT procedures, students have more time to discuss the task topic using their personal experiences either with other mates or with the teacher.

7. The purpose of the new curriculum that is currently being used in the Arab schools is to improve students' standards in the four domains of language learning: access to information, social interaction, presentation and appreciation of literature, culture and language. The concept of social interaction was added to the new curriculum when the English advisory committee recognized that English is a language for communication. The domain of social interaction aims to develop students' oral and written communication with other speakers of English wherever they live and

whatever their language is (Ministry of Education, 2002). The results of this study show that TBLT improves students' oral social interaction. This result confirms that TBLT could be one of the most appropriate teaching procedures that may help students to communicate accurately and fluently with other speakers of English.

## **Recommendations**

On the basis of recent research findings, it is advisable to suggest these recommendations to researchers, EFL teachers, and English supervisors:

1. The researcher recommends that EFL teachers use TBLT procedures in their teaching, since it enhances students' accuracy and fluency as well as their attitudes towards English.
2. Due to the important role that EFL teachers play in TBLT procedure, the researcher recommends that English supervisors organize pre-service and in-service training programs for teachers in the use of TBLT procedures and principles in their daily classroom practices.
3. Curriculum designers are recommended to include TBLT in the English textbooks. Well-designed activities and tasks should be included in the teachers' and students' books.
4. It is recommended that other researchers conduct additional studies to examine the effect of TBLT on developing the speaking skill of Arab and non Arab students in different schooling stages. In addition, the researcher recommends other researchers to conduct studies on the effect of TBLT on developing other language skills.
5. It is recommended that teachers design some of the content of the textbooks they use according to the procedures and principles of TBLT. By doing so, they can vary their teaching procedures, and as a result, their students will be more interested in learning English as a foreign language.

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# **Appendices**

## **Appendix 1**

### **The Task-Based Language Teaching Program**

#### **What is task-based language teaching (TBLT)?**

An approach to teaching a second/foreign language that seeks to engage learners in interactionally authentic language use by having them perform a series of tasks. It aims to both enable learners (1) acquire new linguistic knowledge and (2) proceduralize their existing knowledge.

#### **Rationale for Task-Based Language Teaching**

Ellis (2003) asserts that task-based language teaching is a form of teaching that treats language primarily as a tool for communicating rather than as an object for study or manipulation. It is clear that if learners are to develop the competence they need to use second/foreign language easily and effectively in the kinds of situations they meet outside the classroom, they need to experience how language is used as a tool for communication inside it. 'Task' serves as the most obvious means for organizing teaching along these lines.

Task-based language teaching (TBLT) proposes the use of tasks as a central component in language classroom because they provide better contexts for activating learner acquisition processes and promoting L2 learning (Shehadeh, 2005). TBLT is thus based on a theory of language

learning rather than a theory of language structure. Richards and Rodgers (2001: 228) suggest that this is because 'tasks are believed to foster processes of negotiation, modification, rephrasing, and experimentation that are at the heart of second language learning'.

### **Types of tasks**

Ellis (2003) classified the tasks into the following types:

#### **Unfocused tasks**

An unfocused task is one that encourages the learners to use freely any language they can master, without concentrating on just one or two specific forms (i.e., a replication activity).

#### **Pedagogic (rehearsal, activation)**

Pedagogical tasks have a psycholinguistic basis in SLA theory and research but do not necessarily reflect real-world tasks; for example, four students- each has one picture and describes it to the rest of the class; the students from the rest of the class may ask the four students questions about their pictures, and then one student from the whole class tries to tell a story. Pedagogic tasks could be:

#### **Rehearsal task**

The following pair-work role play is an example of a rehearsal task.

A: You are a passenger calling to reconfirm a reservation. Use the eticket (provided separately) to check the details of your flight.

B: You are an airline employee. Use the information sheet (provided separately) to answer your partner's questions.

### Activation tasks

For example, the teacher will give a pair of students' two different pictures, and then ask each one to talk to his partner about the differences between the pictures.

### Real world tasks

Tasks in every day life are to be found everywhere. These tasks surround us in the morning till late at night. Washing our face is a task, as is preparing breakfast, going to work by car, etc. Tasks pervade our lives, so much so that there is hardly any activity that cannot be called a task.

### **Focused tasks**

A focused task (Ellis, 2003) can be either a consciousness raising activity, where the focus is on examining samples of language to explore particular features of it (these are sometimes called "meta-cognitive" activities), for example, classifying the uses of a verb plus – "ing" forms that appear in a reading text or identifying from a spoken transcript phrases containing the preposition *in* and putting them into three categories: time, location, other; or a task used because it is likely to encourage the comprehension of, and/or the use of, particular language forms (i.e., a citation or simulation activity). Long (1999) provides an

example. He used a split-information quiz with facts taken from a written report of company sales over the last half year.

This report of company sales contained a large number of noun and verb expressions of increase and decrease, including the use of past simple and present perfect verb forms. Learners had to obtain information from each other in order to complete the graph representing sales trends. The follow-up entailed reading the full report in detail in order to check the figures in their graph. Most of this work plan involved receptive skills of listening to others reading out their information and reading the text to check results. In doing so, students were obliged to focus on the meaning of the expressions of quantity and increase and decrease.

### **TBLT Methodology**

Ellis (2003) asserts that the design of a task-based lesson involves consideration of the stages or components of a lesson that has a task as its principal component. Various designs have been proposed (for example, Prabhu, 1987; Skehan 1996). However they all have in common three principal phases, these phases reflected the chronology of a task-based lesson. Thus the first phase is 'pretask' and concerns the various activities that teachers and students can undertake before they start the task; such as whether students are given time to plan the performance of the task. The second phase, the 'during task' phase, centers on the task itself and affords various instructional options, including whether students are required to

operate under time pressure or not. The final phase is 'post-task' and involves procedures for following up on the task performance. These three phases are further explained on the following pages.

### The pre-task phase

The purpose of the pre-task phase is to prepare students to perform the task in ways that will promote acquisition. Skehan (1996) refers to two broad alternatives available to the teacher during the pre-task phase:

An emphasis on the general cognitive demands for task, and/or an emphasis on linguistic factors, attentional capacity are limited, and it is needed to both linguistic and cognitive demand, then engaging in activities which reduce cognitive load will release attentional capacity for the learner to concentrate more on linguistic factors. These alternatives can be tackled procedurally in one of four ways:

Supporting learners in performing a task similar to the task that will perform in the during task phase of the lesson; (2) asking students to observe a model of how to perform a task; (3) engaging learners in non-task activities designed to prepare them to perform the task; and (4) strategic planning of the main task performance. The researcher will consider each in some details.

### Performing a similar task:

The use of a 'pre-task' was a key feature of the Communicational Teaching Project (Prabhu, 1987). It was carried out as a whole-class activity with the teacher and involved the learners in completing a task of the same kind as and similar content to the main task. Thus, it served as a preparation for performing the main task individually. For example, if the main task involving talking about clothes and appearance of individuals or groups, the teacher may take the students as an example, how they dress, and how this affects their personalities.

### Providing a model:

An alternative is to ask the students to observe a model of how the task can be performed without requiring them to undertake a trial performance of the task. Minimally, this involves presenting them with an oral text to demonstrate an 'ideal' performance of the task. Both Skehan (1996) and Willis (1996) suggest that simply 'observing' others perform a task can help reduce the cognitive load on the learner.

### Non-task preparation activities:

There are a variety of non-task preparation activities that teachers can choose from. They can centre on reducing the cognitive or the linguistic demands placed on the learner. Activating learners' content schemata or providing them with background information serves as a means of

defining the topic area of a task. For example, brainstorming and mind maps.

### Strategic planning:

Finally, learners can be given time to plan how they will perform the task. It can be distinguished from other pre-task options in that it does not involve students in a trial performance of the task or in observing a model. Planning can be carried out individually, in groups, or with the teacher.

### The task cycle

Richards and Rodgers (2001) asserts that the task is done by students (in pairs or groups) and gives students a chance to express themselves and say whatever they want to say. This may be in response to reading a text or hearing a recording. The teacher should walk around and monitor, encouraging in a supportive way everyone's attempts at communication in the target language. Moreover, the teacher should help the students to formulate what they want to say, but will not intervene to correct errors of forms. The emphasis is on spontaneous, exploratory talk and confidence building, within the privacy of the small group. Success in achieving the goals of task helps students' motivation.

## Planning

- Planning prepares for the next stage, when students are asked to report briefly to the whole class how they did the task and what the outcome was.
- Students draft and rehearse what they want to say or write
- Teacher goes around and advice students on language, suggesting phrases and helping students to polish and correct their language.
- The emphasis is on clarity, organization, and accuracy, as appropriate for a public representation.
- Individual students often take this chance to ask questions about specific language items.

## Report

- The teacher asks some pairs to report briefly to the whole class so everyone can compare findings, or begin a survey.
- The teacher chairs, comments on the content on the students' reports, rephrase perhaps, but gives no public correction.

## Post-task

- The students listen to a recording of fluent speakers doing the same task, and compare the ways in which they did the task themselves.

## The language focus

## Analysis

- The teacher sets some language-focused task, based on the texts students have read or on the transcripts of the recordings they have heard.

- Examples include the following:

Find words and phrases related to the title of the topic or text.

Read the transcript, find words ending with s or 's, and say what the s means.

Find all the verbs in the simple past form. Say which refer to past time and which do not.

Underline and classify the questions in the transcript.

- The teacher starts students off, and then students continue, often in pairs.

- The teacher goes round to help; students can ask individual questions.

- In plenary, the teacher then reviews the analysis, possibly writing relevant language up on the board in list form; students may make notes.

## Practice

- Students conduct practice activities as needed, based on the language analysis work already on the board, or using examples from the text or transcript.

Practice activities can include:

Choral repetition of the phrases identified and classified memory challenge games based on partially erased examples or using lists already on blackboard for progressive deletion, sentence completion, matching

the past tense verbs with the subject or objects they had in the text, and Kim's game (in teams) with new words and phrases.

## **Description of the Program**

EFL teachers face a dilemma when designing course material. Many institutions require students to purchase a textbook which are often based on Presentation Practice Production (PPP) based textbooks. There is no way that teachers could possibly come up with their own curriculum, so they use the textbook to provide their syllabus. TBLT may be a preferable alternative to PPP (Skehan, 1996), so an option open to teachers is to adapt class textbooks to TBL.

This program was designed on the basis of TBLT procedures and principles. Textbooks for teaching English as a foreign language are based on PPP syllabus; therefore, the researcher adapted materials found in the traditional textbooks to fit the procedures and principles of TBLT. The focus of this program was on the speaking skill.

To create a design of TBLT, the researcher developed a plan that could be followed when adapting the tasks found in advance through more relevant activities (henceforth, Targets).

In using TBLT, Skehan (1996: 22) advises that educators must balance the three goals of 'accuracy', 'complexity restructuring', and 'fluency'. Willis (1996), suggests three stages in a cycle that concentrates on

fluency first (in the task), complexity restructuring next (in planning), and finally combines accuracy with fluency (in the report).

## **Context**

Teaching oral social interaction for EFL students in Israel is the same for Jewish and Arab schools. It is intended to make students interact effectively in English in varied social contexts with people from varied linguistic and cultural backgrounds. This should be achieved at the end of the proficiency level (high school). In both high schools where the program was implemented, Bueina-Nujidat and Tamra, English classes are forty five minutes four times a week, forty eight classes per semester (three months). Both schools are under the inspection of the Israeli Ministry of Education. The program is designed to adapt the eleventh grade students' level in the English language. The students are 17 years old and the grades are heterogeneous. The population is 950 students. The sample is 91 subjects. Fifty subjects formed the experimental group and forty one formed the control group. The TBLT program was implemented with the experimental group.

## **Method**

The researcher adopted Willis' (1996) task structure, as follows:

- Performing a communicative task;
- Planning a report of the performance;

- Reporting the task results to the class.

Willis's structure encourages focus on fluency (communication) during the task phase, then form (restructuring for complexity and accuracy) during the planning and the reporting phases.

In order to incorporate tasks with a clear link to each chosen unit for the program, the researcher took the following steps:

1. The researcher listed vocabulary from each textbook unit;
2. The researcher assigned topics to the vocabulary lists;
3. The researcher listed tasks following Willis's (1996) task types;
4. The researcher decided in which weeks each unit would be covered.

### **The Task-based program (TBP)**

Material: Units 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7.

Unit 3: Clothes Make the Man.

Unit 4: Taking the Test.

Unit 5: Seeing Is Believing.

Unit 6: The Age of Rage.

Text book: Targets

Wilson, A. (2003). *Targets*. Raanana, Eric Cohen Books LTD.

General English Course- for Eleventh Grade (second secondary grade).

Student 's Book :( pp. 33- 78)

Work Book: (pp. 32-67).

Teacher's Guide: (pp. 44-85).

Students: 50X9 periods X 45minutes/ per task.

Program Duration: Three months.

## **General Objectives**

The program was basically designed to be an instructional syllabus for developing the oral social interaction skills of students in the experimental group. Fluency and accuracy are the priority in this program. There will be direct teaching of grammar generalizations during the last two phases of the TBLT framework (while and post – task).

By the end of the program students would be able to:

1. Interact effectively orally in English in varied social contexts with people from varied linguistic and cultural backgrounds.

This was done through fluency and accuracy.

a. In communicative ability (fluency), students will be able to:

- Understand questions.
- Interact fluently.
- Give extended answers.

a. In accuracy, students will be able to:

- Use correctly complex language structures, such as relative and conditional clauses.
- Use rich vocabulary.
- Pronounce correctly.

## **Teacher's Role**

Willis (1996) assigned the following roles for the teachers in the framework for TBLT:

### **In the pre-task, the teacher should:**

- Introduce and define the topic.
- Use activities to help students recall/learn useful words and phrases.
- Ensure that students understand task instructions.
- Play recordings of others doing the same or a similar task.

### **In the task cycle, the teacher should:**

- Act as monitor and encourages students.
- Ensures that the purpose of the report is clear.
- Act as language advisor.
- Help students rehearse oral reports.
- Acts as chairperson, selecting who will speak next.
- Give brief feedback on content and form.
- Play a recording of others doing the same or similar task.

### **In the post-task (language focus), the teacher should:**

- Review each analysis activity with the class.
- Bring other useful words, phrases and patterns to students' attention.
- Pick up on language items from the report stage.
- Conduct practice activities after analysis activities where necessary, to build confidence.

## **Students' Role**

Willis (1996) assigned the following roles for the learners in the framework for TBLT:

### **In the pre-task, the student should:**

- Note down useful words and phrases from the pre-task activities and the recording.
- Spend a few minutes preparing for the task individually.

### **In the task cycle, the students should:**

- Do the task in pairs or small groups.
- Prepare to report to the class how they did the task and what they discovered.
- Rehearse what they will say for the class.
- Present their spoken reports to the class.

### **In the post-task (language focus), the student should:**

Do consciousness-raising activities to identify and process specific language features from the task and transcript.

- Ask about other features they noticed.
- Practice words, phrases and patterns from the analysis activities.
- Enter useful language items in their language notebooks.

## **Unit 3: Clothes Make the Man**

Textbook: (pp. 33-42)

Workbook: (pp. 32-45)

Teacher's Guide: (pp. 45-57)

Lessons: 9 X 45 minutes

**Unit objectives:** By the end of the unit students will be able to:

- Know to what extent the appearance reflects the person.
- Explore the connection between fashion and cultural values of a society.
- Present their examples.

**Theme:** Clothes and appearance.

**Context:** Describing clothes and its relation with appearance.

**Function:** Expressing ideas, providing explanations and presenting arguments for and against.

**Grammatical Features:** Present simple, past simple, prefixes and suffixes

**Communicative Mode:** Interpersonal communication.

**Task One: Oral social Interaction about clothes and cultures**

Task Objective: By the end of the task students will be able to:

- Express ideas and opinions in general and about clothes in different cultures in specific, providing in-depth explanations.
- Interact for purposes such as presenting arguments for and against the idea that the clothes give the first impression about any person we see.

- Explore the connection between fashion and the cultural values of a society.
- Discuss how their clothes affect their appearance.
- Discuss their experience concerning clothes and appearance with other students.

### **Framework and procedures**

#### **Pre-task phase** (duration 3X45 minutes)

1. The teacher will introduce and define the topic of clothes make the man.
2. The teacher will use activities to help students learn new words and phrase about clothes and appearance, such as fashionable, style, identify, deceived, respectable, obvious, recognized, citizen, religious, uniform, and cultures. This will be done by using different instructional techniques:
  - a. Guiding students to use all types of clues found in the text in order to guess the meanings of new lexemes.
  - b. Teaching pronunciation of new lexical items.
  - c. Using visual aids, realia and stickers to explain vocabulary items about appearance, dress and cultures such as presenting pictures for different groups with a specific uniform, and ask the students if the clothes are appropriate for that group.

d. Ensuring that the students write the new words and phrases in their notebooks in order to study them at home.

e. Recycling the new vocabulary about clothes and appearance.

- The teacher will divide the students into five groups and choose a reporter and timekeeper for each group. The timekeeper will ensure that the group is working within the time limit, whereas the reporter will represent the group in talking about the task in the task cycle phase.

- The teacher will ensure that the students understand task instructions.

- The teacher may play a recording of others doing the same task about clothes, cultures and societies.

**While-task phase (Task cycle)** (duration 3X 45 minutes)

Task: In groups, the students will discuss their background knowledge through photographs (p. 33) which reflect social status, national identity, or cultural values, and then the students will point out the ideas they want to include in their reports.

Planning: the students will prepare a report about the pictures to the class, how they did the task and what they discovered.

The teacher will help the students to rehearse oral reports.

Report: the students present their spoken reports about the photographs to the class.

The teacher will act as a chairperson, selecting which group's reporter will speak next. He may give a brief feedback on content and form.

**Post-task phase (language focus)** (duration 3X 45 minutes)

Analysis

- The teacher may ask the students to find words and phrases related to clothes, appearance and cultures.
- The teacher will write ungrammatical sentences that were said by some reporters, and ask the students to correct them.
- The teacher may ask the students to identify some syntactic structures such as noun phrases, verb phrases, and modifiers.
- The teacher reviews the analysis, possibly writing language, such as categorizing words according to relevant concepts, on the board. Students may take notes.

Practice

- The teacher may use memory challenge game based on partially erased examples already found on the board, and then ask the students to remember these examples. For example, deleting the titles of the lists found on the board, and then ask the student to remember these titles.
- Together with the students, the teacher will assign the best group's report, and reward the best group by presenting their report in the school web site, so others can read this report online.

#### **Unit 4: Taking the Test**

Textbook: (pp. 43-54)

Workbook: (pp. 45-55)

Teacher's Guide: (pp. 58-71)

Lessons: 9 x 45 minutes

**Unit objectives:** By the end of the unit students will be able to:

- Talk about different test situations.
- Speak about some unusual tests.
- Learn to recognize literary techniques such as setting, mode and theme in literary texts.
- Use this knowledge to talk or write about a test story they know.

**Theme:** Feelings towards examinations.

**Context:** Students' engagement in self reflection with regard to their feelings towards examinations.

**Function:** Expressing ideas and feelings, and providing personal examples about being examined.

**Grammatical Features:** Past progressive, adverbs and collocations.

**Communicative Mode:** Interpersonal communication.

#### **Task Two: Oral social Interaction about being tested**

**Task Objective:** By the end of the task students will be able to:

- Ask and answer questions on social issues in general and on the situation where the students were tested in specific.

- Express ideas and opinions about how a person feels while being examined, and providing in- depth explanations of how the students feel when they are tested.
- Interact for purposes such as giving excuses of not being ready to be tested or why a person failed/ succeeded in the test.
- Using literary techniques such as setting, mode and theme to give a report about a test story they experienced.

### **Framework and procedures**

#### **Pre-task phase** (duration 3 X 45 minutes)

- The teacher will introduce and define the topic of tests and how a person feels while being tested. This is done through using the students' schemata.
- The teacher will teach new vocabulary items that are related to feelings while being examined such as confident, tense, anxious, worried, confused, calm, excited, frightened and nervous.
- Guiding students to use all types of clues found in the context in order to guess the meanings of new lexemes such as guessing and prediction.
- Teaching pronunciations of new lexical items. They may use the dictionaries to know the pronunciation of new language items.

- Using visual aids, realia and stickers to explain vocabulary items, such as bringing pictures of students who are doing a test and ask the students about that picture, matching between vocabulary items and visual aids which carry the meaning of that item.
- Ensuring that the students write the new words and phrases in their notebooks in order to study them at home.
- Recycling the new vocabulary: for example using a cloze-test, filling in the missing word from a word bank written on the board.
- The teacher will explain some literary techniques such as setting and mood. For example, the teacher will read a text and ask the students about the setting: place and time.
- The teacher will divide the students into four groups and choose a reporter and timekeeper for each group. The reporter will represent the group and talk about their feelings while being tested to the whole class, the time-keeper will remind the group members about the time limit.
- The teacher will ensure that the students understand what will be done to write the final report. The students will report a story, using the literary technique such as mood and setting, about one experience in which they were examined.
- The teacher may play a recording of others doing the same task about a situation where they were examined.

**1. While-task phase (Task cycle)** (duration: 3 X 45 minutes)

Task: In groups, the students will discuss how they feel while being examined; they may use the new lexical items mentioned in the pre-task phase to express their opinions and feelings, and then the students will point out the ideas they want to include in their reports such as being confused and stressed in the examination time.

Planning

- The students will prepare a report which consists of a story about being involved in a test situation, how they feel and pointing out their reflections and evaluations. For example, reporting about a driving test and how feel and how they will behave if they are in the same test another time.
- The teacher will help the students to rehearse oral reports. For example, the reporter will present the story orally to his group members.

Report

- The reporters in each group will present their stories to the whole class.
- The teacher will act as a chairperson, selecting which group's reporter will speak next. He may give some assessments on content and form.

**Post-task phase (language focus)** (duration 3X 45 minutes)

Analysis

- The teacher may ask the students to find words and phrases related to the feeling while being tested such as stressed, confused and relaxed.

- The teacher will write ungrammatical sentences that were said by some reporters, and ask the students to correct them.
- The teacher may ask the students to identify some syntactic structures such as noun phrases, verb phrases, and adverbs.
- The teacher reviews the analysis, possibly writing language, such as categorizing words according to relevant concepts, on the board. Students may take notes.

#### Practice

- The teacher may use memory challenge game based on partially erased examples already found on the board, and then ask the students to remember these examples. For example, deleting the titles of the lists found on the board, and then ask the student to remember these titles.
- The teacher may write some transcripts from the students' reports that include adverbs, and then explain and discuss the adverbs with the students.
- Together with the students, the teacher will assign the best group's report of a story where they were being examined, and reward the best group by presenting their report in the school web site, so others can read this report online.

#### **Unit 5: "Seeing Is Believing"**

Textbook: (pp. 55-66)

Workbook: (pp. 56-66)

Teacher's Guide: (pp. 72-84)

Lessons: 9 x 45 minutes

**Unit objectives:** By the end of the unit students will be able to:

- To identify to what extent they believe everything they see.
- Read and discuss different opinions about magic shows.
- Write a review about a performance of magic that they have seen.

**Theme:** Magic shows.

**Context:** Discussing magic shows through photos or through the students' experience with magic shows in real life.

**Function:** Expressing ideas and feelings, providing personal examples about a magic performance they watched and presenting an argument for or against a particular point of view concerning believing what is seen.

**Grammatical Features:** temporal, the first conditional and synonyms.

**Communicative Mode:** Interpersonal communication.

**Task Three: Oral social Interaction about a magic performance**

**Task Objective:** By the end of the task students will be able to:

- Interact for purposes such as asking for permission and persuading.  
For example, how magicians ask for the audience' permission to perform their magic, and how they are trying to persuade the audience.
- Engage in extended conversations about the topic of 'Seeing Is Believing' in general and about magic shows in specific.
- Use language to suit context, audience and purposes.

- Present different aspects of magic and different ways audiences react to performances.
- Prepare a report about a magic performance they have watched

### **Framework and procedures**

#### **Pre-task phase** (duration: 3X45 minutes)

- The teacher will introduce and define the topic of 'Seeing Is Believing' through activating the students' schemata, and ask them to give examples where what they see cannot necessarily be believed such as magic performances.
- The teacher will teach new vocabulary items that are related to magic performances such as conjurer, relies on, illusions, vanish, cooperate, effect, defy, and persuade.
- These vocabulary items can be taught by using cards. On the front of the card, the teacher may write the word; and on the back of the card, the teacher may copy the definition of the word or/and its synonymy.
- Teaching pronunciations of new lexical items. They may use the dictionaries to know the pronunciation of new language items.
- Ensuring that the students write the new words and phrases in their notebooks in order to study them at home.

- Recycling the new vocabulary through using cloze-tests. The students are required to fill in the missing words from a word bank containing the above mentioned vocabulary items.

The teacher will divide the students into four groups and choose a reporter and timekeeper for each group. The timekeeper is responsible for the time limits and should inform the group's members about the time that they have till the end of the session; while the reporter will present the group's report orally.

- The teacher will ensure that the students understand what will be done to write the final report. Each group will cooperate to prepare a review about a magic performance they have seen.

- The teacher may play a recording of others doing the same task about magic performances.

**While-task phase (Task cycle)** (duration 3X45 minutes)

- Task: In groups, the students will discuss the question to what extent do they believe what they see? Discuss opinions about magic shows; they may use the new lexical items mentioned in the pre-task phase to express their opinions and thoughts.

- Planning: the students will prepare a report which consists of a review about a magic performance they have seen; how they feel and pointing out their reflections.

- The teacher will help the students to rehearse oral reports.

The reporters will present their reports orally in front of him, before they present them to the whole class

3. Report: the reporters in each group will present their reports orally to the whole class.

- The teacher will act as a chairperson, selecting which group's reporter will speak next. He may give his feedback on content and form.

**Post-task phase (language focus)** (duration: 3X45minutes)

### Analysis

- The teacher may ask the students to repeat the task.
- The teacher will review each report with the class. He may pick up on language items from the report stage, for example he may use transcripts from the students' report that focuses on temporal clauses.

### Practice

- The teacher may write some ungrammatical sentences, focusing on temporal clause, from the reports transcripts on the board, the students are invited to correct them, the corrected version is written up.
- Together with the students, the teacher will assign the best report and reward the winning group by presenting their report in the school web site.

## **Unit 6: The age of rage**

Textbook: (pp. 85-96)

Workbook: (pp. 67-80)

Teacher's Guide: (pp. 85-96)

Lessons: 9 x 45 minutes

**Unit objectives:** By the end of the unit students will be able to:

- Talk about the devastating results of anger on the road and in the air.
- Learn about the possible causes and effects of the anger and nervous behavior on the road.
- Conduct a survey about anger in the road. They may use a questionnaire or an interview to ask some drivers about their driving habits.

**Theme:** Rage on the road.

**Context:** Discussing dangerous driving habits which may cause road rage; students present their experiences regarding aggressive behavior in travel, specifically on the road.

**Function:** Expressing opinions through a questionnaire, providing personal examples about the rage in the road, and dealing with cause and effect.

**Grammatical Features:** idioms, second and third conditionals.

**Communicative Mode:** Interpersonal communication.

**Task four: Oral social Interaction about rage on the road**

**Task Objective:** By the end of the task students will be able to:

- Ask and answer questions on a wide range of general topics, and on rage on the road on specific.
- Engage in extended conversations about causes and effects of nervousness on the roads.
- Use language to suit context, audience and purpose. For example, the students will use the vocabulary items to talk about rage on the road.
- Interact for the purpose of asking a favor politely. For example, the students will be taught how to deal politely with other nervous drivers or travelers on the road.
- Conduct a survey about the rage on the road.

### **Framework and procedures**

#### **Pre-task phase** (duration 3X45 minutes)

- The teacher will introduce and define the topic of 'the age of rage' and what it means, and ask students to give examples from their real world life where they witnessed a rage on the road.
- The teacher will teach new vocabulary items that are related to anger in the road such as driving license, signaling, turning left or right, overtaking, impatience, drinking alcohol, rude gestures, speed limit and others.
- Teaching pronunciation of new lexical items. They may use the dictionaries to know the pronunciation of new language items.

- Using visual aids, realia and stickers to explain vocabulary items. For example, the teacher may use cards to give the definition or the synonyms for new items.
- Ensuring that the students write the new words and phrases in their notebooks in order to study them at home.
- The teacher will divide the students into four groups and choose a reporter and timekeeper for each group. The timekeeper is responsible about the time limits, while the reporter will present the group survey and its conclusions orally to the whole class.
- The teacher will ensure that the students understand what will be done to write the final report. Each group will cooperate to prepare a review about the rage on the road they have seen.
- The teacher may play a recording of others doing the same task about rage on the road.

**While-task phase (Task cycle) (duration: 3X45minutes)**

- Task: In groups, the students will discuss the reasons for rage on the road and their results; they may use the new lexical items mentioned in the pre-task phase to express their opinions and thoughts.
- Planning: the students will prepare a report which consists of a survey about possible reasons for road rage. To do this they should be taught about questionnaires, findings and conclusions.

- The teacher will help the students to rehearse oral reports.
- Report: the reporters in each group will present the results of their surveys to the class.
- The teacher will act as a chairperson, selecting which group's reporter will speak next. The teacher may offer feedback on content and form.

**Post-task phase (language focus)** (duration: 3X 45 minutes).

### Analysis

- The teacher may ask the students to repeat the task.
- The teacher will review each report with the class and review language items from the report stage, for example the teacher may use transcripts from the students' report that focuses on conditional clauses.

### Practice

- The teacher may write some ungrammatical sentences, focusing on conditional clauses, from the reports transcripts on the board, the students are invited to correct them, the corrected version is written up.
- Together with the students, the teacher will assign the best report and reward the winning group by presenting their report in the school web site.

## Appendix 2

### The attitudinal questionnaire

Please answer the following items by ticking the alternative which appears most applicable to you. The researcher would urge you to be as accurate as possible since the success of this study depends upon it. The names will be anonymous and the results will be used only for research purposes.

Name ----- Gender M / F Grade -----  
 School -----

1 = strongly disagree    2 = disagree    3 = neither disagree nor agree

4 = agree    5= strongly agree

No.	Developmental Orientation	1	2	3	4	5
1	Studying English is an <u>enjoyable</u> experience.					
2	I plan to learn as much English as possible.					
3	I <u>hate</u> English.					
4	I would rather <u>spend my time</u> on subjects other than English.					
5	Learning English is a <u>waste of time</u> .					
6	I think that learning <u>English is dull</u>					
7	When I leave school, I shall give up the study of English entirely because I am <u>not interested</u> in it					
	<b>Integrative Orientation</b>					
8	Studying English can be important for me because I would like to <u>meet foreigners</u> with whom I can speak English.					
9	Studying English can be important for me because it will enable me to better understand and appreciate <u>English art and literature</u> .					
10	Studying English can be important for me because I will be able to participate more freely in the <u>activities of English groups</u> .					
11	It is important for me to know English in order to know the <u>life of English –speaking nations</u> .					
12	The British are <u>open-minded</u> .					
13	The Americans are <u>sociable</u> .					
14	The more I learn about the British, the more I <u>like</u> them.					
15	Studying English is important to me because it will enable me to get to know various cultures and peoples.					

16	Studying English is important to me so that I <u>can keep in touch with foreign friends and acquaintances.</u>					
17	I would like to know about <u>American people.</u>					
18	The British are <u>friendly.</u>					
19	The American are <u>cheerful.</u>					
20	I would like to know more about <u>British people</u>					
	<b>Instrumental Orientation</b>					
21	Studying English can be important for me because it will make me a more <u>knowledgeable person.</u>					
22	Studying English can be important for me because I may <u>need it later</u> (e.g. job, studies).					
23	Studying English can be important for me because other people <u>will respect me more</u> if I have knowledge of a foreign language.					
24	Studying English can be important for me because I will be able to search information and materials in English on the <u>internet.</u>					
25	Studying English can be important for me because I will learn more about <u>what is happening in the world.</u>					
26	Studying English can be important for me because language learning often gives me a <u>feeling of success.</u>					
27	Studying English can be important for me because language learning often makes me <u>happy.</u>					
28	Studying English can be important to me because it provides an interesting <u>intellectual activity.</u>					
29	Studying English can be important to me because it offers a new challenge in my life, which has otherwise become a <u>bit monotonous.</u>					
30	Studying English can be important to me because an educated person is supposed to be able <u>to speak English.</u>					
31	Studying English can be important to me so that I can understand English-speaking <u>films, videos, TV or radio</u>					
32	Studying English can be important to me because without it <u>one can not be successful in any field.</u>					
33	It is important for me to know English in order to better <u>understand the English- speaking nations' behavior and problems.</u>					
34	Studying English can be important to me because it will enable me to get <u>to know new</u>					

	<u>people from different parts of the world.</u>					
35	Studying English can be important to me so that I can <u>read English books.</u>					
36	Studying English can be important to me because it will enable me to learn more about <u>the English world.</u>					
	<b>Travel Orientation</b>					
37	Studying English can be important to me because I would like to spend some time abroad.					
38	Studying English can be important to me because I would like to <u>travel</u> to countries where English is used.					
39	Studying English can be important to me because it will help me when <u>traveling.</u>					
40	Studying English is important to me so that I can <u>broaden my outlook.</u>					
41	Studying English is important to me because without English I won't be able to <u>travel</u> a lot.					
42	Studying English is important to me because I would like to <u>make friends</u> with foreigners.					

### **Appendix 3**

#### **The Validation Committee for the attitudinal questionnaire, speaking test, speaking evaluation rubric and the program**

**1. Dr. Mahmoud Khalil**

The head of Sakhnin Academic College for Teacher Education .

**2. Dr. Walid Dallashi**

Head of completing studies and teachers' development and educational management lecturer

**3. Mr. Miriam Mubarki**

Lecturer in the English department and EFL supervisor at Sakhnin College for Teacher

**4. Dr. Jamal Assadi**

Head of English department at Sakhnin College and EFL supervisor

**5. Dr. Abed-Kareem Igbaria**

EFL lecturer and supervisor, specialist in EFL curriculum and instruction.

**6. Dr Haitham Taha**

The head of special education department at the college and educational psychologist.

**7. Mr. Radi Mousa**

Educational psychologist, Ein-Harod Regional council.

**8. Dr. Manal Yazbak**

Dean of Sakhnin College for Teacher Education and a supervisor in the English department.

**9. Mr. Jonathan Margalit**

TESOL specialist and lecturer of EFL proficiency in the college.

**10. Mrs. Meri Shhok**

English teacher at Bueina Nujidat High School

**11. Mr. Adib Khalil**

English teacher at Bueina-Nujidat High School

**12. Mr. Ayman Abo El-Hayja**

English teacher At Dr Abo Romi High School in Tamra Village

## Appendix 4

### Rubric for Assessing Oral Social Interaction

Student's Name: -----

Group: Exp/ Cont.

Gender: M/ F

Accuracy		Fluency	
Little or no language production	1	Little or no communication	1
Poor vocabulary, mistakes in basic grammar, may have very strong foreign accent	2	Very hesitant and brief utterances, sometimes difficult to understand	2
Adequate but limited vocabulary, makes obvious grammatical mistakes, slight foreign accent	3	Conveys ideas, but hesitantly and briefly	3
Good range of vocabulary, occasional grammar slips, slight foreign accent	4	Effective communication in short turns	4
Extensive vocabulary used appropriately, virtually no grammatical mistakes, native like or slight foreign accent	5	Easy and effective communication, uses long turns	5

TOTAL SCORE OUT OF 10: -----

## Appendix 5

### The Speaking Skill Test

#### **Biographical questions:**

1. Hello, Could you tell me your name please?
2. How do you do?
3. Where do you live?
4. How large is your family?
5. Are you a good student?

#### **Guided questions**

1. What is special about your village?
2. What is the relationship like between the people in your village?
3. Would you like to study in another school if you had the chance? Why?
4. What is your favorite subject? Why?
5. Do you like to study only English?
6. What will you study in the university?

#### **Opinion questions (open)**

1. Why do you think most Arab students do not like English?
2. In your opinion, what should schools do to help you learn English well?
3. As an Arab student, do you think you will have the same opportunities as a Jewish one? Why? Why not?
4. Do you think that drugs are a problem in our schools and community?

Good Luck

## Appendix 6

### الملخص:

مراد، طارق متعب. اثر التعليم القائم على المهمة في تنمية مهارة الكلام لدى طلبة المرحلة الثانوية الفلسطينية في إسرائيل الذين يتعلمون اللغة الانجليزية لغة أجنبية واتجاهاتهم نحو اللغة الانجليزية. أطروحة دكتوراه. جامعة اليرموك 2009. (المشرف: ا.د. عقلة الصمادي). هدفت هذه الدراسة إلى البحث في اثر استخدام برنامج تعليمي مبني على المهمات لتدريس المهارة الكلامية لدى طلبة الصف الحادي عشر الفلسطينيين في إسرائيل واتجاهاتهم نحو اللغة الانجليزية في العام الدراسي 2009/2008. وقد حاولت هذه الدراسة الإجابة عن الأسئلة التالية:

1. هل هناك اثر ذو دلالة إحصائية في تطوير المهارة الكلامية لدى الطلبة يعزى إلى استخدام البرنامج المبني على المهمات في تدريس المهارة الكلامية للغة الانجليزية وجنس الطلبة؟  
2. هل هناك اثر ذو دلالة إحصائية على موقف الطلبة تجاه اللغة الانجليزية يعزى إلى استخدام البرنامج التعليمي المبني على المهمات وجنس الطلبة؟

تكونت عينة الدراسة من واحد وتسعين طالبا من الصف الحادي عشر في مدرستي البعيزة وطمرة الثانويتين. وخصص الباحث خمسين طالب وطالبة للمجموعة التجريبية، وواحد وأربعين طالب وطالبة للمجموعة الضابطة.

قام الباحث بتصميم برنامج تعليمي مبني على المهمات لكي يستخدمه لتدريس المجموعة التجريبية خلال الأشهر كانون الثاني-شباط من عام 2009

تضمنت أدوات الدراسة اختبارا شفويا ليكون اختبارا قبليا وبعديا لمعرفة اثر البرنامج على تحصيل الطلاب والطالبات في تحسين مهاراتهم الكلامية و مقياس اتجاهات الطلبة نحو اللغة الانجليزية ليكون مقياسا قبليا وبعديا لمعرفة اثر البرنامج على اتجاهات الطلبة نحو اللغة الانجليزية.

تم التأكد من صدق وثبات أدوات التجربة بعرضها على هيئة من المحكمين من محاضرين في كلية أكاديمية لأعداد المعلمين ومن معلمي اللغة الانجليزية في المستوى الثانوي . حيث تم تعديل تلك الأدوات بناء على تلك الملاحظات التي أوردتها المحكمون. ولوصف وتحليل البيانات التي توفرت، استخدم الباحث تحليل التباين الأحادي المشترك وتحليل التباين الأحادي المصاحب لمعرفة فيما إذا كانت الفروق بين المجموعتين في الاختبار البعدي دالة إحصائيا وقد أشارت نتيجة الدراسة إلى:

1. وجود فروق ذات دلالة إحصائية بين مهارة المجموعة التجريبية الكلامية والمجموعة الضابطة لصالح المجموعة التجريبية التي تم تدريسها باستخدام البرنامج التعليمي القائم على المهمات.
2. وجود فروق ذات دلالة إحصائية بين اتجاهات طلبة المجموعتين لصالح المجموعة التجريبية.
3. وجود فروق ذات دلالة إحصائية بين تحصيل طالبات وطلاب المجموعة التجريبية لحساب الطالبات.

وفي ضوء هذه النتائج قدم الباحث عددا من التوصيات لتشجيع معلمي اللغة الانجليزية على تبني إجراءات ومبادئ الأسلوب القائم على المهمة أثناء تدريس اللغة الانجليزية، كما أوصى الباحث مفتشي اللغة الانجليزية ببناء برامج تعليمية وتدريبية من اجل تدريب معلمي اللغة الانجليزية على مبادئ وإجراءات الأسلوب القائم على المهمات.