EFFECTS OF TASK REPETITION ON THE FLUENCY, ACCURACY AND COMPLEXITY OF TURKISH EFL LEARNERS' ORAL DISCOURSE

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EFFECTS OF TASK REPETITION ON THE FLUENCY, ACCURACY AND COMPLEXITY OF TURKISH EFL LEARNERS' ORAL DISCOURSE

(Ödev Tekrarlarının Türk Öğrencilerinin Konuşmasındaki Akıcılık, Doğruluk ve Güçluk Düzeyleri Üzerindeki Etkisi)

MASTER THESIS

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Supervisor: Asst. Prof. Dr. Doğan ÜNAL

ERZURUM
June, 2012

Dedicated to

MY BELOVED MOM & DAD

KABUL VE ONAY TUTANAĞI

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Doğan Ünal danışmanlığında, Monireh AZIMZADEH tarafından hazırlanan "EFFECTS OF TASK REPETITION ON THE FLUENCY, ACCURACY AND COMPLEXITY OF TURKISH EFL LEARNERS' ORAL DISCOURSE" başlıklı çalışma 27/07/2012 tarihinde yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda başarılı bulunarak jürimiz tarafından Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı'nda Yüksek Lisans Tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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ÖZET

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ÖDEV TEKRARLARININ TÜRK ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN KONUŞMASINDAKİ AKICILIK, DOĞRULUK VE GÜÇLUK DÜZEYLERI ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİSİ

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Bu çalışma dilin kullanımında ikinci dil bilgisinin dil öğrenenler tarafından kullanılabilme yetisini araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Konu tekrarı aracılığıyla anlama odaklanma ihtiyacının düşünülerek dil öğrenenlerin girdi yoluyla değil kendi iç yönlendirmeleriyle yapıyı kullanabilmeleri sonucu ana dil benzeri bir üretimin söz konusu olup olmadığını araştırdık. Bu çalışma Atatürk Üniversitesi Tıp Fakültesi ve İngilizce Öğretmenliği bölümünde okuyan yüz öğrenci arasından seçilmiş altmış yabancı dil öğrencisi (baylar ve bayanlar) ile birlikte yürütülmüştür. Öğrenciler 20-25 yaş aralığındalar ve İngilizce seviyeleri orta düzeydedir. Katılımcıların homojenliğini sağlayabilmek amacıyla araştırmadan önce 100 kişiye bir seviye belirleme sınavı uygulandı (PET) ve bu sınavdan 65 üzerinden 50-60 arası alan 60 kişi seçildi. Konu tekrarı ve türlerinin öğrencilerin akıcılık, doğruluk ve güçlük düzeyleri üzerine olan etkilerini ölçmek için katılımcılar, öyküleme grubu, bireysel konu grubu ve karar verme grubu olmak üzere üç gruba ayrıldı ve performansları aralıklarla ikişer kez kaydedildi ve puanlandırıldı. Katılımcılar araştırmanın amacı konusunda bilgi sahibi değillerdi. Performansları ayrı sınıflarda kaydedildi ve daha sonra bu kayıtlar belirli ölçütlere göre yazıya aktarıldı ve puanlandırıldı.

Anahtar Kelimeler: ödev, ödev tekrarlaması, akıcılık, doğruluk, güçluk düzeyleri, sözel söylem.

ABSTRACT

MASTER THESIS

EFFECT OF TASK REPETITION ON THE ACCURACY, FLUENCY AND COMPLEXITY OF TURKISH EFL LEARNERS ORAL DISCOURSE

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This study aims to investigate the learners' ability in using their L2 knowledge in production. We investigated if there is a native like production when the need to focus on meaning has been decreased through task repetition, thus learners are free to attend to form, not from input but from their own internal system. This study was conducted with 60 EFL students (males and females) selected among 100 students, who were ELT students and medicine students at Ataturk University . They were 20-25 years old and at intermediate level. For homogeneity of the subjects, prior to research a proficiency test (PET) was given to 100 students and among them 60 participants who had received 50-60 out of 65 were selected. To examine the effects of task repetition and task types on fluency, accuracy, and complexity of learners, participants were divided into three groups; the narrative task performers, personal task performers and decision-making task performers in the male and female groups.; and their performances on the first attempt and second attempt of the same task were recorded and scored. These learners were not aware of the research purpose. Their performances were recorded in a separate room and later on the recordings were transcribed and scored according to some established measures.

Key words: task, task repetition, fluency, accuracy, complexity, oral discourse

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CONTENTS

CHAPTER THREE

CHAPTER FOUR

CHAPTER FIVE

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LISTS OF ABBREVIATIONS

CLT	Communication language teaching
EFL	English as a foreign language
ELT	English language teaching
ESL	English as a second language
P.P.P	Presentation practice performance
SLA	Second language acquisition
TEFL	Teaching English as a foreign language
TBA	Task-based approach
TBLT	Task –based language teaching
CAF	Complexity, Accuracy, Fluency

CHAPTER ONE

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

Second language acquisition researchers, curriculum developers, teacher trainers and language teachers have been interested in utilizing task-based language teaching (TBLT) all over the world in the past 20 years. To a great extent, it was developed in reaction to empirical account of teacher-centred, form-oriented second language classroom practice (Long& Norris, 2000).

With arising the belief that language is best learned when it has been used for communicative purposes, communicative task has gotten a great importance in organizing syllable design .Task-based Instruction (TBI) ,which is mainly based on the constructivist theory of learning and communicative language teaching methodology, has been developed in reaction to some limitations of the traditional Presentation, Practice, Performance (PPP) approach. (Ellis, 2003;, Long & Crookes, 1991).

However, Ellis (1999) stated that the theoretical base of task-based approach is 'Input and Integrationist Theory'. Nevertheless, some of its proponents (e.g., Willis 1996) presented it as a rational development of Communicative Language Teaching, since it has gotten a number of principals that formed part of communicative language teaching movement from 1980s. Richards, Schmidt, Kendricks, and Kim (2002, p. 540) stated that task-based language teaching is a teaching approach which is based on the use of communicative and interactive tasks as the central units for the planning of instruction. Interactive tasks help to create meaningful communication, interaction, negotiation, and authentic language use. Larsen-Freeman (2000), however, saw a superior image in her definition of task-based language teaching:

> A task-based approach aims to provide learners with a natural context for language use. As learners work to complete a task, they have

> abundant opportunity to interact. Such interaction is thought to facilitate language acquisition as learners have to work to understand each other and to express their own meaning. By so doing, they have to check to see if they have comprehended correctly.

By interacting with others, learners get to listen to language which may be beyond their present ability, but which may be integrated into their knowledge of the target language to use later (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 144).

Task-based Language Teaching presents the notion of "task" as a core unit of planning and teaching. Before assessing the benefits of implementing a task-based approach firstly, it is essential to know what a 'task' precisely consists of. Tasks have been defined in various ways. Nunan (2004) makes a basic distinction between real-world or target tasks, and pedagogical tasks. Target tasks, as the name shows, refer to uses of language in the world outside the classroom, but pedagogical tasks are tasks that take place in the classroom. According to Bygate, Skehan and Swain (2000), definitions of tasks are 'context-free', that is task has different meanings in different contexts of use. . However, Samuda & Bygate (2008: 62) point out,

> while a widely agreed definition of the term is both desirable and necessary ... arriving at such a definition is not straightforward – a considerable part of the second language task literature has been concerned with the search for a precise, yet comprehensive definition of a "task".

Willis (1996) defines task as an activity where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose in order to achieve an outcome. In this definition, the concept of meaning is included in 'outcome'. Similarly, 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 important bases for using task in language classes. As Lynch and Maclean (2000) indicated the first reason for using Task-Based Learning is ecological one: the belief that planning classroom tasks performed by the learners in a way that are more like real world tasks is the best way to encourage effective learning (Lynch and Maclean; 2000). It has been considered that learners perform the task to practice for interaction outside of the classroom. Similarly, Fettes (2003) summarizes the ecological vision of linguistic activity as being in "active communication with its neighbours in the biological, social and human sciences, sharing and developing a holistic understanding of human thought, action, and ecological integration" (p.44). Subsequently, SLA research is considered as the other source of evidence. " 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 & Maclean, 2000, p. 222).

Task-based language teaching is discussed from psycholinguistic perspective, which will be discussed in detail later. It assumes that task has characteristics which involved learners in certain types of language use and mental processing being beneficial for acquisition. As Skehan, Foster and Mehnert (1998) put it 'task properties have a significant impact on the nature of performance' (p. 245).

The basic theoretical situation adopted by task-based researchers originated from what Lantolf (1996) has called the 'computational metaphor'. He 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. 724–5).

The work on task-based learning/teaching of Long's Interaction Hypothesis (1989), Skehan 'cognitive approach'(1996), which are based on the differences between two types of processing that learners can take part (lexical processing and rule- based processing) and Yule (1997) model of communicative effectiveness, are affected from

this metaphor. The mental computations that learners make are affected by task which has been considered as an external means. The effectiveness of communication and the way of acquiring language by learners are determined by these computations. A more recent trend within communicative approaches has been to consider how attention can be conducted through the instructional choices that are made (Schmidt, 1990).

The assumption is that learners have accessible limited attentional capabilities, and there is a competition between different components of language production and comprehension for such limited capacities and that if we choose to pay attention to one area of language production, we may lose concentrating to other area. Selection between attention to form and attention to meaning has been considered as an important choice. The last 20 years have seen a protracted debate in language teaching concerning focusing on accuracy and form as opposed to focusing on fluency and meaning. "Underlying most current research in SLA is the assumption that some level of attention to form is needed for language acquisition to take place" (Radwan, 2005, p.70). A number of proposals have been made as to how some attention may be focused on form.

It can be done through task design (Fotos & Ellis, 1991), pre-task and post-task activities (Doughty, 1991) and consciousness-raising activities (Willis, 1996).

Task repetition may have some possible results. For example, "we might expect performance to be more fluent in terms of pausing and speed of words per minute. This is because all things being equal we would expect that doing the task a second time would involve less planning work. Also, it is likely to have a different form: because the task has already been formulated previously, we can expect fewer false starts and self-corrections". (Bygate, 1996, p. 138).

So, task repetition seems to have useful effects on learner's performance. As Bygate (1999) suggests, learners primarily focus on message content and as soon as message content and the basic language required to encode it has been established, they switch their attention to the selection and monitoring of proper language.

1.2. Significance of the Study

Today English language has become a world language or global lingua franca and a number of researchers and syllabus designers have concerned to discover a more effective and useful way of teaching it. The main goal of language learning is, being able to produce fluent and accurate production in a target language. That is, learners mainly desire to speak without undue hesitation and fragmentation and without making too many linguistic errors. But improving fluency and accuracy in EFL learners is more difficult than in ESL learners and involves applying various tasks in the classroom, since in the EFL context the classroom is almost the only opportunity for the learner to produce language.

This study explored the evidence of improvement in oral production by using task-based language teaching and learning. The findings of this study have proven the effectiveness of the task-based approach and usefulness of utilizing task repetition in an English learning environment. Consequently, the results of this study could be applicable in the teaching of oral skills. Furthermore, findings of the study may be valuable to the curriculum designers in using task-based techniques and procedures in teaching and learning oral skills.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

This study was designed to investigate the learners' ability in using their L2 knowledge in production. We investigated if there was evidence of native like production when the necessity to focus on meaning has been decreased through task repetition, thus learners were free to attend to form from their own internal system. Therefore, we explored if learners made less grammatical errors or they were more accurate when we repeated the task for the second time. Similarly, we examined the learners' fluency in the case of reformulation, repetition and false start to discover if they were more fluent as we repeated the task with the interval of one week. Furthermore, we discovered if participants were more complex and took the risk of utilizing more words in their second performance. Therefore, their complexity improved in performing the task for the second time.

Also, we investigated the effect of repetition of task types on the development of accuracy, fluency and complexity of participants. We used three task types (personal task, narrative task and decision-making task) in this research and we studied the repetition of these three task types on the development of participants' oral production. We explored if the accuracy, fluency and complexity of participants increased when we repeated these three task types after a week.

Numbers of studies have been carried out in the literature to examine the validity of the above hypothesis. (Ahmadian & Tavakoli, 2011; Bygate, 1996, 2001; Gass et al. 1999; Lynch & McLean, 2000). For example, Gass et al.'s (1999) results showed that task repetition would lead to greater overall proficiency. In addition, it leads to greater fluent language production (Riggenbach, 1991). Learners' familiarity with the content and context of a specific task through performing it earlier, allows them to be more fluent in their subsequent performances. Lynch and McLean (2000) found that task repetition would help to the improvement of both linguistic accuracy and fluency. Finally, Bygate (2001) reported that task repetition improved not only his participants' fluency but also their use of complex structures.

1.4. Research Questions

The following research questions were addressed in this study:

Question 1: Does task repetition lead to more fluent language use?

Question 2: Does task repetition lead to more accurate language use?

Question 3: Does task repetition lead to more complex language use?

Question 4: Does task type have any impact on the fluency gained through task repetition?

Question 5: Does task type have any impact on the accuracy gained through task repetition?

Question 6: Does task type have any impact on the complexity gained through task repetition?

1.5. Definition of Terms

The important terms used throughout this study are as follows:

Accuracy

Accuracy "is the ability to avoid error in performance, possibly reflecting higher levels of control in the language." Or it can be defined as "how well the target language is produced according to its rule system "(Skehan, 1996).

Complexity

Complexity is the capacity to use more advanced language, with the possibility that such language may not be controlled so effectively. This may also involve a greater willingness to take risks, and use fewer controlled language subsystems. This area is also taken to correlate with a greater likelihood of restructuring, that is, change and development in the inter-language system. (Skehan& Faster)

Discourse

It can be defined as language which has been produced as the result of an act of communication. Discourse normally refers to larger units of language such as paragraphs, conversations, and interviews.

Fluency

Fluency "concerns the learner's capacity to produce language in real time without undue pausing or hesitation. It is likely to depend on more lexicalized modes of communication, as the pressures of real time speech production are met only by avoiding excessive rule-based computation" (Skehan, 1996, p. 22).

Task

There are various definitions of task. Here, we defined the task according to Nunan (1996) and Bygate, Skehan and Swain (2001).

According Nunan, a communicate task is '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. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right'.

However, Bygate, Skehan and Swain (2001) defined task as 'an activity which requires learners to use language, with emphasis put on meaning, to attain an objective'.

Task-based language teaching and learning

Task-based instruction is an approach in which communicative and meaningful tasks play central role in language learning and in which the process of using language appropriately carries more importance than the mere production of grammatically correct language forms (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 224).

Task repetition

Task repetition is essentially a kind of planning (Ellis, 2005, 2008) that refers to 'repetition of the same or slightly different task – whether the whole tasks, or parts of a task' (Bygate & Samuda, 2005, p. 43).

T-unit

The T-unit, introduced first by Hunt (1965, p. 141) was called a "minimal terminal unit". He defined it as a main clause plus any subordinate clauses attached to or embedded in it.

1.6. Limitations of the Study

Because this study took place in a particular environment, some limitations need to be considered.

First, the scope of this investigation was limited to oral production, and not written production.

Second, it is also worth noting that all the participants in this study were Turkish adult learners in an EFL context. Consequently, the findings should not be generalized to other populations in other cultural or other nationalities or linguistic areas of EFL learner.

Third, only intermediate learners participated in this study.

Finally, the participants of the study were over the age of 20, so the results could not be generalized to learners below the age of 20.

CHAPTER TWO

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Task Based Language Teaching and Learning

There are several innovative language instruction approaches such as Whole Language Approach (Blanton, 1992), Content-Based Second Language Instruction (Brinton, Snow and Wesche, 1989), Text-Based Syllabus Design (Feez, 1998), and Task-Based Language Instruction (for examples Prabhu, 1987;Crookes and Gass, 1993; Willis, 1996). Among the approaches mentioned above, task-based language instruction has received the most attention in the literature (for example Prabhu, 1987; Newton and Kennedy, 1996; Foster and Skehan, 1996; Foster and Skehan, 1999; Robinson, 2001; Bygate, 2001; Samuda, 2001).

The advent of the TBA is interrelated to the 'Bangalore Project' (Prabhu 1987) which began in 1979 and completed in 1984. The word 'task' which is used here, refers to the different kind of activities performed in the classroom. These activities are categorized in a way that importance was given to meaning and significance to the process of performing things and a prominent role to content in teaching practice of that time. The goals of the project were to explore new ways of teaching based on

> a strongly felt pedagogic intuition, arising from experience generally but made concrete in the course of professional debate in India. This was that the development of competence in second language requires no systematization of language inputs or maximization of planned practice, but rather the creation of conditions in which learners engage in an effort to cope with communication. (Prabhu, 1987)

The project was planned to make a progress in the situational oral approach and they were given special significance to competence and communication. Prabhu indicated that competence is to be considered as 'grammatical competence' ('the ability

to conform automatically to grammatical norms') and communication as 'a matter of understanding or conveying meaning'. Communicative competence was to improve 'in the course of meaning-focused activity'. To create the conditions for the learners to be involved in meaningful situations was the main concern of the teachers.

TBLT can also be considered as a progressive of communicative language teaching (CLT) and a reaction to the use of form-focused models such as PPP. Opponents of PPP state that it doesn't provide an essential needs of CLT, which consider language 'primarily as a tool for communicating rather than as an object for study or manipulation' (Ellis, 2003). For example, Willis & Willis claim that in 'a PPP methodology learners are so dominated by the presentation and practice that at the production stage they are preoccupied with grammatical form rather than with meaning' (Willis, 2009).

Samuda & Bygate (2008) identified that although the communicative functions constructed the syllabus content of many CLT materials , the use of models such as PPP , had 'continued to reflect a view of learning as a gradual accretion of individual, pre-selected items, mediated through orchestrated pedagogic sequences.'

Breen(1984) stated that the arrangement of language teaching can be classified into two areas: *equipping* the learners with a communication repertoire or a communication capability and *developing* capabilities which is necessary for a communicator. Task-based language instruction belongs to the second classification. A difference can be distinguished between these two areas in a way that, in the *equipping* orientation area, forms, functions or situation are the bases of organizing syllabus. But in *developing* orientation area, the design of syllabus on the bases of tasks and the improvement of learner's abilities in using, reinterpreting and adjusting the knowledge of rules during communication has gotten great importance.

Also, Prabhu considered (1987) two procedures in education: *equipping* and *enabling*, task-based language instruction belongs to the *enabling* procedure. The *equipping* procedure denotes to education, which providing the essential knowledge, skills or behaviour that are essential for learners to apply in the society, has been considered as the main goal of education. Structural and functional approaches to language instruction belong to this classification. On the other hand, *enabling*

procedures refers to education that providing opportunity to distinguish the learners' capabilities or talent is the basic purpose of education. This procedure proposes that learners' future needs are different and changeable. Hence, teaching processes should not be specified on the basis of the learners expected future necessities, but on the understanding of learning processes and of the learners' state at every level of learning. However Prabhu states that it may be helpful to relate some parts of the instruction to the learners target necessities.

It is supposed that through the use of language in communication, it can be learned and taught effectively. (Crookes & Gass, 1993). By using task-based instruction, tasks are organized to provide opportunities for students to practice the target language in comprehending and conveying messages in their communications with their teacher and classmates. It also supplies an effective way of understanding the learning materials. In performing a task, learners are involved in a process of achieving a goal which is programmed previously. Such a process aids learners to comprehend their speaker's messages and create the target language for expressing themselves.

Several definitions of TBL exist. Nunan (1989) defines TBL as, "Task- based teaching and learning is teaching and learning a language by using the language to accomplish open ended tasks. Learners are given a problem or objective to accomplish but are left with some freedom in approaching this problem or objective." (In Lochana and Deb, 2006, p. 4). According to Richards and Rodgers (2001) TBI is "an approach based on the use of tasks which is basic in planning and instruction in the language teaching" (p. 223).

Similarly, Fruta (2002) stated that TBL organizes the learning of the second language by presenting meaningful task in the classroom. Another definition of TBLT is presented by Moss in a way that," Task-based teaching provides learners with opportunities for learner-to-learner interactions that encourage authentic use of language and meaningful communication" (Moss, 2003 p. 3).

According to Nunan, the following principles and practices can be reinforced by using task-based language teaching:

• A needs-based approach to content selection

• An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language.

• The introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation.

• The provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on language, but also on the learning process itself.

• An enhancement of the learner's own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning.

• The linking of classroom language learning with language use outside the classroom.

In its development process, task-based language instruction has undertaken some changes, particularly in its views of syllabus design and grammar instruction. In terms of syllabus design, there are two versions of task-based language instruction, *strong* form and *weak* form (Skehan, 1996; Markee, 1997). In the strong form:

> ... Tasks should be the unit of language teaching, and [that] everything else should be subsidiary. In this view, the need to transact tasks is seen as adequate to drive forward language development, as though second language acquisition is the result of the same process of interaction as first language acquisition (Skehan, 1996, p. 39).

In the weak form, it is considered that:

> ... tasks are a vital part of language instruction, but that they are embedded in a more pedagogic context. They are necessary, but may be preceded by focused instruction, and after use, may be followed by focused instruction which is contingent on task performance (Skehan, 1996, p. 39).

The strong version may be considered as the central view of task based language instruction syllabus design and the weak version demonstrates the improved form. Strong version assumed that learners can acquire the target language by completing task as they do in the first language acquisition. In the strong version,

similar to language teaching methods or approaches with a synthetic syllabus, task introduce language as a whole, not particular parts at a time (Long and Crookes, 1993). On the other hand, a weak form of task-based instruction claimed that tasks are a vital part of language instruction; but that they are surrounded by a more complex pedagogic context. The weak version suggests that it is necessary to focus on form either before or after task completion or both. This form of task-based language instruction may also be used to teach pre-selections of linguistic item (Markee, 1997).

Weak version of task-based instruction is close to communicative language teaching. What distinguishes the weak version of task-based language instruction from communicative language teaching is that task-based language instruction gives more opportunities for student's activity and there are less opportunities for explicit instruction (Willis, 1996). It could also be compatible with a traditional presentation, practice, production sequence, only in a way that in task-based language instruction, production is based on tasks, rather than on more mannered and guided production activities (Littlewood 1981).

The key assumptions of task-based instruction are summarized by Freeez (1998) as:

- The focus 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 engaging in the activities and tasks.

- Activities and tasks can be either: those that learners might need to achieve in real life; those that have a pedagogical purpose specific to the classroom.

- Activities and tasks of a task-based syllabus are 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 task, the language required to undertake the task, and the degree of support available.

In task-based language teaching, syllabus content and instructional processes are chosen according to the communicative tasks which learners will involve outside the classroom.

2.1.1. The Curricular Basis of Task-based Teaching

After the arrangement of morpho-syntactic, phonological and lexical elements, tasks and exercises were given second significance in designing activities, to be taught in the classroom, before the development of communicative approaches to language teaching. Traditionally, curriculum designers and material writers thought only about the grammatical, phonological, and lexical items to be taught in the classroom. Classroom activities were designed by specifying these items. In other words, it was the phonological, morpho-syntactic, and lexical terms which were seen as the main goal of the curriculum. Thus, the selection of classroom activities was focus on these items. (McDonoug, 1981, p.21).

But in a task-based curriculum, selection of classroom activities is rather different. There are two factors which the curriculum developer and material writers focus on. The first one has rehearsal bases. The main priority was given to the learners' needs with target language. And the second factor has psycholinguistic foundation, i.e., the mechanisms of acquisition of second language and way of activating it. Here, the linguistic items to be presented in the class are selected as a second activity arrangement.

Task selection should arise with reference both to target task basis and psycholinguistic principles. The way that this might be achieved is illustrated in the procedure set out in table 2.1. adapted from a recently published task-based course book (Nunan & Lockwood, 1991). The pedagogic task is designated with reference to the real-world or target task of "giving information in a job interview." Learners are not only supplied with a model of target language behaviour, but also with particular practice in using language items.

Table 2.1.

Steps Involved in the Development of a Pedagogic Task

Procedure	Example	Rational
1. Identify target task	Giving personal information in a job interview	To give learners the opportunity to develop lg. skills relevant to their real world needs
2. Provide model	Students listen to and extract key information from authentic/simulated interview	To provide learners the opportunity to listen to and analyse ways in which native speakers or users of the target language carry out the target task
3. Identify enabling skill	Manipulation drill to practice wh-questions with do-insertion	To provide learners with explicit instruction and guided practice in those grammatical elements needed to perform the target task
4. Devise pedagogic task	Interview simulation using role cards	To provide learners the opportunity to mobilize their emerging language skills through rehearsal

Thus, improvements in mainstream education and major theoretical changes in our understanding of the nature of language and language learning have been affected by task-based language teaching. Also, it has been developed by a research program which has provided a realistic basis upon which curriculum designers, material writers, and classroom practitioners can draw. The accessibility of empirical data on tasks has enriched the prominence of task-based language teaching at a time when the various "methods" dealing with language teaching have been criticized for lacking an empirical basis. (Long, 1990; Richards, 1990).

2.1.2. The Empirical Basis of Task-Based Language Teaching

One of the noticeable points of task-based language teaching is that the theoretical foundation is reinforced by a strong empirical basis. This aspect discriminates task-based language teaching from most methods and approaches of

pedagogy, which is quite data-free. Nunan stated that tasks can be conceptualized according to the key elements of *goals*, *input data*, *activities/procedures*, *roles,* and *settings.* This conceptual structure provides an appropriate means of constructing the research on tasks.

Task goals assist the program planners and material writers to make explicit associations between the task and the broader curriculum it is considered to attend. As Widdowson (1987) has demonstrated, there is a possibility that task-based language teaching programs will lack coherence without identifiable set of goal. Goals are usually referenced against the set of things which learners want to do with the language outside the classroom. Typical goal statements include:

1. To develop the skills necessary to take part in academic study
2. To obtain sufficient oral and written skills to obtain a promotion from unskilled worker to site supervisor
3. To communicate socially in the target language
4. To develop the survival skills necessary to obtain goods and services
5. To be able to read the literature of the target culture

The majority of task-based research has focused on the activities or procedures which learners do according to the input data. But, there are some task types which act as facilitators of second language acquisition which are the favourable topics for investigation by most researchers.

In the first series of studies, which have been constructed in learner-learner interaction, Long (1981) found that two-way tasks (in which all students in a group discussion had distinctive information to contribute) created more interaction among learners than one-way tasks (that is, in which one member of the group possessed all the relevant information). In the same way, Doughty and Pica (1986) discovered that information-exchange tasks make more interaction than tasks in which the exchange of information was voluntary.

These investigations of reformed interaction were theoretically encouraged by Krashen's (1981, 1982) hypothesis that comprehensible input was an essential and

favourable situation for second language acquisition -in other words, acquisition would happen when learners understood messages in the target language.

Recently, attention has focused on the types of language and discourse patterns which were affected by different task types. Berwick (1988, in press) investigated different types of language stimulated by transactional and interpersonal tasks. (A transaction task is one in which communication occurs principally to bring about the exchange of goods and services, whereas an interpersonal task is one in which communication occurs largely for social purposes). He found that the different functional purposes stimulated different morpho-syntactic realizations.

In a recent study, Nunan investigated the different interactional patterns which were impacted by open and closed tasks. (An open task is one in which there is no single correct answer, while a closed task is one in which there is a single correct answer or a restricted number of correct answers). It was found that the different task types stimulated different interactional patterns.

2.2. The Methodology of Task-Based Teaching

The design of a task-based lesson contains concerning the stages or components of a lesson that a task constructs its main component. There are various designs which have been proposed by researchers. (e.g. Estaire and Zanon 1994; Lee 2000; Prabhu 1987; Skehan 1996; Willis 1996). But all of them have in common three principal stages. They all include: *Pre-Task phases, During Task phases and Post task* phases, which are shown in the following table.

Table 2.2.

A Framework For Designing Task-Based Lessons (Eliss, R.)

Phase	Examples of options
A. Pre-task	* Framing the activity (e.g. establishing the outcome of the task) * Planning time * Doing a similar task
B. During task	* Time pressure * Number of participants
C. Post-task	* Learner report * Consciousness-raising * Repeat task

Both teachers and learners benefit by having a clear framework for a task-based lesson. Richard (1996) indicates that a lot of experienced teachers teach without having a clear framework in their teaching, whereas Numrich (1996) claims that novice teachers wish to be creative and different in their teaching. A framework mentioned in the figure 2.2. provides the need of both teachers. It not only presents an obvious framework, but also permits for creativity and variety of the teachers.

2.2.1. The Pre-Task Phase

The major goal of the pre-task is to prepare the ground for the student to do the task; in a way that encourages learner's acquisition. Lee (2000) mentions that it is necessary to have a frame work for performing the task and recommends that to have a frame work , it is essential to determine what the students should do and what outcome is going to be accessed. Dornyei (2001) claims that task should be presented in ways that promote learners' motivation. Dornyei also suggests that task preparation should involve strategies for whetting students' appetites to perform the task (e.g. by asking them to guess what the task will involve) and for helping them to perform the task.

Skehan (1996) refers to two broad alternatives available to the teacher during the pre-task phase:

> an emphasis on the general cognitive demands of the task, and/or an emphasis on linguistic factors. Attentional capacity is limited, and it is needed to respond to both linguistic and cognitive demands … then engaging in activities which reduce cognitive load will release attentional capacity for the learner to concentrate more on linguistic factors. (p. 25).

Pre-task has four phases which are going to be discussed in detail.

2.2.1.1. Performing similar task

A main characteristic of the Communicational Teaching Project was the use of 'pre-task' phase (Prabhu, 1987). It was done as a whole-class activity which teacher and the learners take part in performing the same kind of the task which has similar content

to main task. Thus, it can be considered as a preparation for performing the main task individually.

Prabhu explains that the pre-task was organized through interaction of the question-and-answer type. It was expected that teacher directs the class step-by-step toward the expected outcome. If the learners had a problem in this phase, teacher would divide a step into smaller step, and would extend the steps in order to be sure that learners understood what was necessary. Prabhu emphasises that the pre-task was not a 'demonstration' but 'a task in its own right'. The teacher utilizes the pre-task to support learners' performance of the main task expecting that this facilitates performing the main task by learners.

2.2.1.2. Providing a model

In this phase teacher asks students to notice a model of performing the task. Teachers do not ask them to take part in the trail of task performance. (Aston,1982). Both Skehan (1996) and Willis (1996) recommended that merely 'observing' performance of task which is done by others can help to decrease the cognitive load on the learner. On the other hand, activities can be complemented to the model to increase learners' consciousness about particular structures of the task performance, for example, strategies that can be used to solve communication problems. Learners recognize and analyse these features in the model texts by such activities. Otherwise, they involve in pre-training in the use of specific strategies.

2.2.1.3. Non-task preparation activities

Various non-task preparation activities can be selected by teachers. These activities can be based on reducing the cognitive or the linguistic needs of the learners. Defining the topic area of a task can be achieved by activating learners' content schemata or giving them background information. Willis (1996) offers a list of activities for attaining this (e.g. brainstorming and mind-maps). When learners recognize what they are going to talk or write about, they have more processing space available for planning the language which is necessary to express their ideas. Activities which are suggested for linguistic demands of a task focus on vocabulary instead of grammar,

maybe since vocabulary is considered to be more helpful for the successful performance of a task than grammar.

Newton (2001) suggests three ways in which teachers can direct unfamiliar vocabulary in the pre-task phase; predicting (i.e. asking learners to brainstorm a list of words related to the task title or topic), cooperative dictionary search (i.e. allocating different learners words to look up in their dictionary), and words and definitions (i.e. learners match a list of words to their definitions). Newton claims that the struggle with new words will be prevented by such activities. It also gives an opportunity to learner to focus to other main goals such as fluency or content-learning, while performing the task.

2.2.1.4. Strategic planning

At last, learners can be provided time to organize how they are going to do the task. This contains 'strategic planning' and is not similar to 'online planning' that can happen during the task performance. It has a difference with other pre-task options in a way that it does not involve students in a trial performance of the task or in observing a model. A number of methodological options can be chosen by the teachers for strategic planning. The first one includes whether the students are given the work plan of task, then it is the student who decides what to plan, which usually results in giving priority to content over form, or whether they are given guidance in what to plan. Skehan (1996) recommends that learners need to be made clearly aware of where they are focusing their attention - whether on fluency, complexity or accuracy. These planning options are illustrated in Table2.3. Here the context is a task concerning a balloon debate (i.e. deciding who should be ejected from a balloon to keep it afloat). The guidance can also be 'detailed' or 'undetailed' (Foster and Skehan, 1996). Foster and Skehan (1996) found that when students were given detailed guidance they seemed to arrange content which gained a higher complexity level when they performed the task.

Table 2.3.

Options For Strategic Planning (Based on Foster and Skehan 1999).

Strategic planning options	Description
1. No planning	The students were introduced to the idea of a balloon debate, assigned roles and then asked to debate who should be sacrificed.
2. Guided planning - language focus	The students were introduced to the idea of a balloon debate and then shown how to use modal verbs and conditionals in the reasons a doctor might give for not being thrown out of the balloon (e.g. 'I take care of many sick people - If you throw me out, many people might die.'
3. Guided planning - content focus	The students were introduced the idea of a balloon debate. The teacher presents ideas that each character might use to defend his or her right to stay in the balloon and students were encouraged to add ideas of their own.

Another option includes the amount of time given to students to perform the pre-task planning. According to the studies of most researchers, amount of given time can be between 1 and 10 minutes. Studies show that fluency can be gained in short periods planning, but longer time was necessary for complexity (Skehan 1998 suggests 10 minutes is optimal). Finally, planning can be carried out individually, in groups or with the teacher.

2.2.2. The During-Task Phase

Two major types can be identified for teachers in the during-task phase: task *performance options* and *process options,* which are going to be discussed in detail.

2.2.2.1. Task performance options

There are three task performance options to be considered. First option involves whether to consider time pressure in performing the task, i.e., to ask students to perform the task under a limited time given for them. These are the teachers who decide to let the students perform the task in their own time or students should perform the task under a time limitation, which is arranged by them. Lee (2000) strongly recommends that teachers set strict time limits. This is a significant option because it can impact the

nature of the language that students produce. Yuan and Ellis (2002) found that if students were given unlimited time to perform a narrative task , they would produce more complex and more accurate language in comparison to a control group that subjects were asked to perform the same task under time pressure.

The second task performance option concerns deciding whether to let the students have the input data while they perform a task. In some tasks having the input data is part of the planning of the task design (e.g. in Spot the Difference, Describe and Draw, or many information gap tasks). However, in other tasks it is optional. For example, in a story retelling/recall task the students can be allowed to have the pictures/ text or be asked to put them on one side as they narrate the story. Joe (1998) reports a study that she compared learners' acquisition of a set of target words (which they did not know prior to performing the task) in a narrative recall task. She set two conditions - with and without access to the text. She found that the learners who could see the text used the target words more frequently.

The third task performance option contains setting some surprise component into the task. Skehan and Foster (1997) proved this option. The student was given a decision-making task to perform. It was about making decision on the punishment of four criminals who had committed different crimes. At the beginning of the task they were given information about each criminal and the crime he/she had committed. In the middle of the task the students were given extra information about each criminal. For example, the initial information provided about one of the criminals was as follows:

> The accused is a doctor. He gave an overdose (a very high quantity of a painkilling drug) to an 85-year-old woman because she was dying painfully of cancer. The doctor says that the woman had asked for an overdose. The woman's family accuse the doctor of murder.

After talking for five minutes, the students were given the following additional information: Later, it was discovered that seven other old people in the same hospital had died in a similar way, through overdoses. The doctor refuses to say if he was involved.

2.2.2.2. Process options

Process options is different from task performance options in way that they contain the way in which the discourse arising from the task is being performed rather than pedagogical decisions about the way the task is to be performed.

Ellis identifies the kinds of processes that the participants in a task performance need to struggle for, which are:

1. Discourse that is essentially 'conversational' in nature, such discourse can include 'instructional conversations'.
2. Discourse that encourages the explicit formulation of messages.
3. Opportunities for students to take linguistic risks.
4. Occasions where the task participants focus implicitly and/or explicitly on specific linguistic forms.
5. Shared goals for the task.
6. Effective scaffolding of the participants' efforts to communicate in the L2.

Two sets of classroom processes are contrasted in Table 2.4. The first set is similar to the classroom activities that are characteristic of a traditional form-focused pedagogy where language is considered as an object and the students are required to act as 'learners'. The second set reveals the behaviours that characterize a task-based pedagogy, where language is preserved as a tool for communicating and the teacher and students function primarily as 'language users' (Ellis, 2001). Thus, which set of behaviours arise is significantly dependent on the participants' orientation to the classroom and to their motivation for performing an activity.

Table 2.4.

Stereotypical Classroom Processes In Traditional Form-Focussed Pedagogy and Task-Based Pedagogy

A Traditional form-focussed pedagogy	B Task-based pedagogy
Rigid discourse structure consisting of IRF (initiate-respond-feedback) exchanges	Loose discourse structure consisting of adjacency pairs
Teacher controls topic development	Students able to control topic development
Turn-taking is regulated by the teacher.	Turn-taking is regulated by the same rules that govern everyday conversation (i.e. speakers can self select).
Display questions (i.e. questions that the questioner already knows the answer)	Use of referential questions (i.e. questions that the questioner does not know the answer to)
Students are placed in a responding role and consequently perform a limited range of language functions.	Students function in both initiating and responding roles and thus perform a wide range of language functions (e.g. asking and giving information, agreeing and disagreeing, instructing).
Little need or opportunity to negotiate meaning.	Opportunities to negotiate meaning when communication problems arise
Scaffolding directed primarily at enabling students to produce correct sentences.	Scaffolding directed primarily at enabling students to say what they want to say.
Form-focussed feedback (i.e. the teacher responds implicitly or explicitly to the correctness of students' utterances)	Content-focussed feedback (i.e. the teacher responds to the message content of the students' utterances).
Echoing (i.e. the teacher repeats what a student has said for the benefit of the whole class)	Repetition (i.e. a student elects to repeat something another student or the teacher has said as private speech or to establish intersubjectivity).

2.2.3. The Post-Task Phase

The post-task phase offers a number of options which have three main pedagogical goals that are being discussed in detail.

2.2.3.1. Repeat performance

Several studies (e.g. Bygate 1996 and 2001; Lynch and Maclean 2000) suggest that the production of the learners develops in a number of ways as they repeat a task (e.g. complexity increases, propositions are expressed more clearly and they become more fluent). A repeat performance can be present under the same conditions as the first performance (i.e. in small groups or individually) or we may change conditions of the performance of second task. One exciting option examined by Skehan and Foster (1997) in which they asked students to carry out the second performance publicly.

Obviously, the communicative stress increases by performing a task in front of the class (Candlin, 1987) and therefore can be expected that it directs to a reduction in fluency and complexity of the learners. However, it is valuable if students need experience in using English in front of an audience, as, for example, giving oral presentations in the L2 with foreign academics trainers . Public performance encourages the use of a more formal style and thus may make learners to use the grammaticalised resources related with this style.

2.2.3.2. Reflecting on the task

Willis (1996) advises that in this phase, ask students to report on how they did the task and on what they decided or discovered. She considers this 'the natural conclusion of the task cycle' (p. 58). The teachers' role is to be as a leader and encourage the students to perform the task.

The reports can be oral or written. Willis recommends that the reports should mainly focus on summarising the goal of the task. However, it would be possible to ask students to assess their own performance of the task. Also, students could be invited to consider how they might improve their performance of the task. Encouraging students to think about their performance in these ways may cause to the development of the

metacognitive strategies of planning, monitoring and evaluating, which are considered as a significant factor for language learning (O'Malley and Chamot 1990).

2.2.3.3. Focusing on forms

As soon as the task is completed, students can be asked to focus on form, without concerning that they will disrupt the taskness of the task. That's why some methodologists advised that teachers should make learners attention on form at the post-task phase of the lesson. The post-task stage is required to counter the danger that students will develop fluency at the expense of accuracy.

In selecting forms to be attended by teachers, they should select forms that the students used incorrectly while performing the task or they can select 'useful' or 'natural' forms (Loshcky and Bley Vroman, 1993) that they failed to use at all. In other words, teachers should seek to address errors in the students' L2 knowledge.

But in concerning with how the target forms should be dealt with, we should consider four options as follows:

2.2.3.3.1. Review of learner errors

When the task is performed by students in group, teachers can move around the class from one group to another group and listen to them and take note on their errors. Then, in post-task phase, the teacher can present these errors to the whole class. Lynch (2001) suggested an exciting way of conducting a post-task analysis, which he calls 'proof-listening'. This involves three cycles based on repeated playing of a recording of the task. First, review and edit of the performance of a task was done by a student who performs it. Second, the recording is replayed and other students are invited to comment, correct or ask questions. Finally, the teacher comments on any points that have been missed.

2.2.3.3.2. Consciousness-raising tasks

CR-tasks can be used as the main task in a lesson, since they organize tasks in their own right. But, they can be used as follow-up tasks to lead students to notice to a particular form that they used incorrectly or failed to use at all in the main task. Willis and Willis (1996) and Ellis (1997) offered descriptions of the various options that are available for the design and application of CR tasks. CR tasks can take their data from recordings of the students' performance of the task as they are used as follow-up tasks.

2.2.3.3.3. Production practice activities

In addition to CR tasks, we can provide more traditional practice of selected forms. Traditional exercise types include repetition, substitution, gapped sentences, jumbled sentences, transformation drills, and dialogues. Willis (1996; pp. 110) offers a number of more new ideas. Researchers have been in doubt on the significance of such production practice activities, since they have no direct impact on learners' inter-language systems. However, they may help learners to automatize forms that they have started to practice willingly but have not extended full control over.

2.2.3.3.4. Noticing activities

There are numbers of suggestions for developing noticing activities as a follow-up to a task performance. Fotos (1994) offers dictation exercises that had been improved with the target structures that students had undertook in CR tasks to examine whether the subjects in her study attended to the structures successively. She found that they did so quite consistently. Lynch (2001) advises that one of the best methods for prompting noticing is to get students to make transcripts of an extract (90-120 seconds) from their performance of the task. After transcribing, they are asked to make any editing changes they want. The teacher then takes away the word-processed transcripts and reformulates them. The next day the students are asked to compare their own edited transcript with the teacher's reformulated version. Lynch found that in a study that examined this procedure, students collaborated successfully in transcribing, made a number of changes (most of which resulted in accurate corrections of linguistic forms), and involved in

both self- and other-correction. Lynch also analysed the types of changes the students made, noting that the majority involved grammatical corrections, 'editing' slips (i.e. removal of redundancies, literal repetitions and dysfluencies) and 'reformulation' (i.e. changes directed at more precise expressions). Finally, Lynch comments after the students had made their changes; teachers have a lot to do with the student's transcription.

2.3. The Concept of "Task"

Before assessing the benefits of adopting a task-based approach, it is first necessary to know what a 'task' exactly is. However, as Samuda & Bygate (2008) point out, while a widely agreed definition of the term is both desirable and necessary

> ... arriving at such a definition is not straightforward – a considerable part of the second language task literature has been concerned with the search for a precise, yet comprehensive definition of a "task".

In a similar way, Willis & Willis (2007, 2009) do not provide a 'watertight definition' (2007) of a task, but a set of principles for determining how 'task-like' a given activity is:

> A task has a number of defining characteristics, among them: does it engage the learners' interest; is there a primary focus on meaning; is success measured in terms of non-linguistic outcome rather than accurate use of language forms; and does it relate to real world activities? The more confidently we can answer yes to each of these questions the more task-like the activity.

However, no one has found the Willis & Willis criteria particularly useful. For example, Harmer (2009) considers these principles 'less than helpful' and finds in this approach to defining tasks 'a lack of willingness to pin down exactly what is on offer' that is 'less than totally persuasive' (2009). Many teachers can probably relate to Harmer's point.

The following provides teachers with a more precise definition of a language learning task. Samuda & Bygate (2008, p.69) carefully consider the task definition literature before defining a second language pedagogic task as:

> ... a holistic activity which engages language use in order to achieve some non-linguistic outcome while meeting a linguistic challenge, with the overall aim of promoting language learning, through process or product or both.

As Bygate, Skehan and Swain (2000) demonstrated, definitions of tasks are 'context-free' activities (Willis, 1996), that tasks have different meaning in different context of use.

Ellis claimed that, a task is a 'work plan'; that is, it takes the form of materials needed for researching or teaching language. A work plan usually consists of: (1) some input (i.e. information that learners are required to process and use); and (2) some instructions relating to what outcome the learners are supposed to achieve. But, Breen claims that we should notice the differences between task -as-work plan and task-as-process, which is the activity that emerges when particular learners in a specific setting perform the task. Accordingly, definition of task related to task-as-work-plan. Thus, he (Ellis, 2003) defined task as:

> "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 prepositional content has been conveyed".

According to the definition stated above, learners should primary focus on meaning and utilize their linguistic resources, but it depends on the design of task which may make them to select particular form. So, a task like other language activities involves productive or receptive and oral or written skills, and also various cognitive processes.

Similarly, Skehan (1998) suggests four defining criteria:

1. Meaning is primary;

2. There is a goal which needs to be worked towards;
3. The activity is outcome-evaluated;
4. There is a real-world relationship (p. 268).

Considering definition mentioned above a question arises here: what distinguishes a 'task' from an 'exercise'? Bygate (2003, p. 176) defines 'exercises' as "activities which practice parts of a skill, a new sub-skill, a new piece of knowledge". In contrast, he defines 'tasks' as "activities which practice the whole integrated skill in some way". Similarly, Candlin (in Bygate et al., 2001, p. 235) defines 'exercises' as "serving as sequenceable preliminaries to, or supporters, of tasks", whereas 'tasks' are more inclusive activities, engaging students in a variety of interlocking processes, and encouraging them to "practice the integrated use of language, acquire language development strategies and use language meaningfully and creatively."

But, based on Activity Theory, Coughlin and Duff (1994, p. 175) distinguished between L2 task and L2 activity. In their view, task refers to the "behavioural blueprint provided to students in order to elicit data" for research or assessment. Coughlin and Duff defined activity as "the behaviour that is actually produced when an individual (or group) performs a task" (1994, p. 175). This distinction can be significant if we consider that a task may cause different activities among individuals and in the same individual on different occasions.

Likewise, Ellis stated that 'tasks' are activities that call for primarily meaning-focused language use. In contrast, 'exercises' are activities that call for primarily form-focused language use.

Thus, in a 'task' such as Same-or-Different, the learners are generally trying to communicate content (meaning is primary). They try to discover the similarities and differences between their pictures and their partner's pictures. And the result is assessed in terms of whether they are successful in this goal or not. Also, there is a relationship with the real world, in a way that the kind of discourse this task make is similar to what occurs naturally in the real word. In contrast, in an 'exercise' such as a fill-in-the-blank grammar exercise, the learners are mainly trying to produce correct linguistic forms. There is no clear communicative goal to be realized. The result is assessed in terms of whether the learners' answers are grammatically correct or not, and there is not direct

connection between the type of language activity and naturally occurring of discourse in the real world.

Widdowson (1998) is against such a definition of 'task'. He argued that the 'criteria do not in themselves distinguish the linguistic exercise and the communicative task' (p. 328). Widdowson stated that it is the kind of meaning which a task involved; make it to be different from exercise, not 'form 'as opposed to 'meaning'. While a task is concerned with 'pragmatic meaning',i.e. the use of language in context, an exercise is concerned with 'semantic meaning', i.e the systematic meanings that specific forms can convey regardless of context. However, Widdowson does not so much disagree with Skehan's definition, but refines it. Table 2.5. is an attempt to incorporate Widdowson's insight into Skehan's definition.

Table 2.5.

Distinguishing 'Exercise' and 'Task' (Based on Skehan, 1998)

	Exercise	Task
Orientation	Linguistic skills viewed as prerequisite for learning communicative abilities	Linguistic skills are developed through engaging in communicative activity.
Focus	Linguistic form and semantic meaning ('focus on form').	Propositional content and pragmatic communicative meaning ('focus on meaning').
Goal	Manifestation of code knowledge.	Achievement of communicative goal.
Outcome-evaluation	Performance evaluated in terms of conformity to the code.	Performance evaluated in terms of whether the communicative goal has been achieved.

Table 2.5 *(continued)*

Real-world Relationship	Internalization of linguistic skills serves as an investment for future use.	There is a direct and obvious relationship between the activity that arises from the task and natural task and natural communicative activity.

The actual reactions of teachers and learners while performing task or exercise are not important ,it is the necessity to distinguish 'exercise' and 'task' at the level of work plan which have gotten a great importance. Unless an obvious definition of work plans are recognized, the coordination of work plan and actual behaviour remains the issue of further studies.

2.3.1. Task from Psycholinguistic Perspective

Task is discussed from psycholinguistic perspective too. In Ellis's view," From a psycholinguistic 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 assumed that task has characteristics which involves learners in certain types of language use and mental processing that are beneficial for acquisition. As Skehan, Foster and Mehnert (1998) put it 'task properties have a significant impact on the nature of performance' (p. 245). Thus, the statement is that there is a close relationship between the task-as-work plan and the task-as-process, since the activity that results from the task-as-work plan is expectable from the design of the tsk types.

The basic theoretical point which was adopted by task-based researchers who work in this tradition comes from what Lantolf (1996) has called the '*computational metaphor'*. Lantolf considered Chomsky as the person who highlights the significance of this metaphor in linguistics and applied linguistics since the 1960s. He 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. 724–5). Therefore this metaphor underlies the work on task-based learning/teaching of Long (1989), Skehan (1996), and Yule (1997), which all of them interpret tasks as devices for controlling how learners process language. In other words, tasks are seen as the external means by which we can affect the mental computations that learners make. These computations regulate how effectively they communicate and how they acquire language.

2.3.1.1. Information-Processing Model

Levelt (1989) proposed that speech involves four major processes: *conceptualization, formulation, articulation* and *self-monitoring. Conceptualization* is involved with the planning the message content. It draws on background knowledge, knowledge about the topic, about the speech situation and on knowledge of patterns of discourse. The conceptualizer includes a 'monitor', which checks everything that occurs in the interaction to make sure that the communication is going to take place. This aids speakers to self-correct of expression, grammar and pronunciation. The process which conceptualizer uses in this stage is a controlled process.

After conceptualization, the formulator finds the words and phrases to express the meanings, ordering them and putting them in proper grammatical markers (such as inflection, auxiliaries, and article). It also arranges the sound patterns of the words to be used. This stage is an automatic process for L1 speakers.

The third process is *articulation.* It involves a shift from the mental domain of cognition to the physical world of sounds (or letters). In this stage the motor control of the articulatory organs; in English: the lips, tongue, teeth, alveolar palate, velum, glottis, mouth cavity and breathe are involved.

Finally, *Self-monitoring* is concerned with language users being able to recognise and self-correct mistake. Corder (1967) was the first one who shows that the ability of native speakers (or writers) to self-correct their mistakes express that they have complete linguistic competence of their native language, but non-native speakers

of a language make errors because they are unable to correct the mistake since they lack full competence in the language.

Later De Bot (1992) made a few adaptations to Levelt's (1989) model in order to account for L2 speech production. The first assumption of De Bot's (1992) model is that the speaker has to decide what language to speak. This decision takes place in the conceptualizer. Regarding formulator, De Bot (1992) proposes that it is language-specific; thus, different procedures are applied to the grammatical encoding of L1 and L2 speech. Finally, De Bot (1992) suggests that there should be only one articulator for both languages. By assuming only one articulator, L1 interferences in L2 can be explained.

2.3.1.2. Interaction hypothesis

According to Long (1983), the Interaction Hypothesis claimed that acquisition is facilitated when learners achieve comprehensible input as a result of opportunity to exchange meaning when communication breakdown take place. Long identifies two types of negotiation of meaning: (1) negotiation which intended to avoid conversational problems. It reveals native speakers and proficient speakers' intentions to facilitate and simplify the input directed to non-native speakers, and (2) negotiation aimed at repairing discourse when a communication breakdown occurs. The adjustments of the first type are described by Long as strategies. Examples are 'Relinquish Topic Control', 'Select Salient Topics' and 'Treat Topics Briefly'.

The second type of negotiation is spontaneous and is referred to as tactics. Some of these are 'Request Clarification', 'Confirm own Comprehension' and 'Tolerate Ambiguity'. Later Long (1996) presented other ways in which negotiation of meaning can influence L2 acquisition by the responses that learner receives from their production as they try to communicate. In the last version, offered by Schmidt (Schmidt , 1990), negotiation of meaning draws learners' attention to linguistic form in the context in which a primary focus should be on meaning and in so doing encourages the 'noticing' that has been claimed necessary for acquisition to take place (Schmidt,1990).

As can be seen, in the entire version negotiation of meaning is an important factor for acquisition to take place. But the question arises for the researcher here is how

opportunities for meaning negotiation can be provided. It depends on many factors such as the setting, the learner and the tasks that learners are asked to perform. The works of researcher such as Pica, Kanagy and Falodun recognized the task proportions that influence negotiation of meaning and in so doing develop a psycholinguistic basis for the classification of tasks (Pica, Kanagy and Falodun, 1993).

Eliss specified which task features have probably a ‘more positive’ and a ‘less positive’ influence on the quantity of meaning negotiation to take place which is shown in table 2.6. It suggests that the kinds of interactional modifications hypothesized to contribute to L2 acquisition are likely to be more frequent in tasks that: (1) have a required information exchange; (2) involve a two-way (as opposed to one-way) exchange of information; (3) have a closed outcome; (4) are not familiar to the interactants; (5) involve a human/ethical type problem; (6) involve a narrative discourse mode; and (7) are context-free (in the sense that the task does not provide contextual support for communication) and involve considerable detail. This summary is based on a detailed survey of the research.

Table 2.6.

Task dimensions hypothesized to promote meaning negotiation

Task dimensions	More positive	Less positive
Information exchange	Required (information-gap)	Optional (opinion-gap)
Information gap	Two-way	One-way
Outcome	Closed	Open
Task familiarity	Non-familiar	Familiar
Topic	Human/ethical	Objective/spatial
Discourse domain	Narrative	Description/expository
Cognitive complexity	Context-free; detailed information	Context-dependent; less-detailed information

2.3.1.3. Input Hypothesis

According to Krashen (1984, p.61) comprehensible input is the only true cause of second language acquisition. The Input Hypothesis claims that an important condition for language acquisition to occur is that the acquirer understand (via hearing or reading) input language that contains structure 'a bit beyond his or her current level of competence'. If an acquirer is at stage or level i, the input he or she understands should contain i+1(Krashen, 1981, p.100). In the other words, the language that learners are exposed to should be far enough beyond their current competence that they can understand most of it but still be challenged to make progress.

There were two reasons why it was found essential to take this hypothesis as one of the bases. First of all, after a few lessons the pattern of teaching can become expectable and therefore boring. So, it is necessary to set tasks at (i+1) level to motivate learners. Secondly, the linguistic experience of the students in the project group was found suitable to make the tasks challenging. The meaning focused tasks formed the centre of the learning activity. Except for very little subsidiary explanation of

exceptional uses, students were left to understand and form their own grammatical principles and rules. Also, according to N. S. Prabhu, students may learn more effectively when they are focused on the task, rather than on the language they are learning (Prabhu, 1987).

2.3.1.4. The Output Hypothesis

Among the authors who disputed Krashen's (1985) ideas are Swain (1985) and Swain & Lapkin (1995). Swain (1985) proposed that the 'Output Hypothesis' was not a substitute to the 'Input/Interaction Hypotheses' but is an addition process added to them. Swain (1985) demonstrated that immersion programs in Canada, in which learners received enormous amounts of comprehensible input, did not lead to native-like capability in the target language which is predicted by the input hypothesis. She proposed that in addition to comprehensible input, learners need opportunities that require: their own speech to be comprehensible because it is only through such opportunities that learners are pushed to organize their emerging grammatical competence. (Such organization is precisely what the tasks suggested by Long, 1985; Doughty & Pica, 1986)

Swain (1985) proposed that understanding the content of classes was not sufficient for the learners to achieve comparable native-like levels of L2 accuracy, and that what was missing were opportunities for the learner to produce comprehensible output. Swain argued that the role of comprehensible output was not limited to generating comprehensible input, as maintained by Krashen . In this regard, a decade later, Swain (1995, 1998) pointed out three main interrelated roles for production:

(1) The first one is *noticing*. The claim is that "while attempting to produce the target language (vocally or sub vocally), learners may notice that they do not know how to say (or write) precisely the meaning they want to convey" (Swain, 1998: 67)

(2) The second is *hypothesis formulation and testing* (cf. Tarone & Liu, 1995, p. 20-121, Swain, 1998, p.67), which is explained by these authors in the following terms: "the learner needs to produce output which the current inter-language system cannot

handle … [and so] … pushes the limits of that inter-language system to make it handle that output".

(3) The third role for production is the use of *meta-talk,* a process by which learners use language to reflect on language use.

It is important to recognize that the 'Output Hypothesis' predicts that production will support acquisition only when the learner is 'pushed' toward it. Opportunities to speak may not in themselves be sufficient. One way of investigating 'pushed output' is to study those learner productions that occur in response to a native speaker's signal of comprehension difficulty.

2.3.1.5. Cognitive approach

To support his studies of tasks, Skehan (1998) has established what he calls a '*cognitive approach'*. This approach is centred on a distinction which learners are supposed to represent in their L2 knowledge. Learners create both an exemplar-based system and a rule-based system. The rule-based system consists of abstract representations of the basic patterns of the language. The exemplar-based system is lexical in nature and contains both discrete lexical items and ready-made formulaic chunks of language. The linguistic knowledge which is included in this system can be easily and quickly retrieved, so it is suitable for circumstances which fluent language performance is required. But the rule- based system which consists of abstract demonstrations of the basic patterns of the language need more processing and thus is best suitable for more controlled, less fluent language performance. They are necessary when learners have to create utterances to express meaning explicitly.

Skehan's research has focused on learner production in contrast with the task-based research which has focused on negotiation of meaning. Skehan discriminates three aspects of production: (1) *fluency* (i.e. the capacity of the learner to mobilize his/her system to communicate in real time); (2) *accuracy* (i.e. the ability of the learner to perform in accordance with target language norms); and (3) *complexity* (i.e. the utilization of inter-language structures that are 'cutting edge', elaborate and structured). Skehan proposes that language users are different in the extent to which they emphasize fluency, accuracy or complexity, with some tasks affecting them to focus on fluency,

others on accuracy and yet others on complexity. These different aspects of production cause different systems of language. Fluency requires learners to draw on their memory-based system, retrieving and organizing ready-made chunks of language, and, when there is a problem, they use communication strategies to resolve it. In contrast, accuracy and complexity are achieved by learners drawing on their rule-based system and thus require syntactic processing.

2.3.1.6. Communicative Effectiveness

Yule's research has been focused on examining task-processes that contribute to Communicative effectiveness, in contrast with research on Interaction/Output Hypothesis and Skehan's 'cognitive approach' which are focused on identifying task feature necessary for L2 acquisition. Yule (1997) distinguishes two broad dimensions of communicative effectiveness: (1) *the identification-of-referent dimension* and (2) *the role-taking dimension*. It is necessary for learners to encode referents they have to communicate about. They need to have perceptual ability to focus on various aspect of the referent, the comparison ability and linguistic ability to identify one referent from another.

The bases of Yule's communicative effectiveness are on an investigation of communicative outcomes. It doesn't simply recognize that whether the task has been done successfully by the participants. Yule and Powers (1994) suggest a framework for analysing communicative outcome according to how particular referential problems are solved. It gives information about how participants start dealing with different referential problems that rises in performing a task. So, based on Yule's theory, communicative effectiveness can be discovered not only by the nature of the task but also by learner factors such as personality and cognitive style.

2.3.1.7. Limited Attentional Capacity Model

Skehan's Limited Attentional Capacity Model (Skehan, 1998; Skehan & Foster, 2001, 2005) assumes that human beings have a limited information processing capacity and that different components of language production and comprehension compete for such limited capacities. If we give attention to one area, we will lose giving attention to

another area. A central choice in this regard is between attention to form and attention to meaning. Skehan (1998) suggests that speakers' fluency, accuracy and complexity of speech demand capacities, and that there is a trade-off between these developmental implications (Skehan, 1998). If learners focus on accuracy, it encourages them to a less fluent use of the language. On the other hand, pushing them to develop fluency might encourage greater use of formulaic chunks of language, inducing attention to accuracy and reducing speakers' capability for processing complex language. If they experience new expressions or new combinations of words and phrases, it might threaten their accuracy or fluency.

2.4. General Framework for Task Classification

Regarding the classification of task types presented by different researchers, it is clear that in general, there is no accepted classification of tasks. There is not a common viewpoint among researchers on organizing a principle for designing classification of task types. Thus, Ellis (2003) recommends what he calls "key dimensions of tasks" as a general frame for the organization of tasks. There are elements from the rhetorical, cognitive and psycholinguistic task typologies in Ellis's General Framework. His framework consists of four design features, i.e. *input*, *conditions, processes* and *outcomes*, and for each of these features a number of key dimensions are identified according to which tasks can be categorized. It is possible to attain a highly detailed organization of tasks with the combination of the four design features with the different key task dimensions.

On the other hand, Oxford (2006) lists the essential task types as:

1. Problem solving (Nunan, 1989; Pica et al., 1993; Willis, 1996)
2. Decision making (Foster & Skehan, 1996; Nunan, 1989; Pica et al., 1993)
3. Opinion-gap or opinion-exchange (Nunan, 1989; Pica et al., 1993);
4. Information-gap (Doughty & Pica,1986; Nunan, 1989; Oxford, 1990; Pica et al., 1993);
5. Comprehension-based (Ikeda & Takeuchi, 2000; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992; Tierney et al., 1995)

6. Sharing personal experience, attitudes, and feelings (Foster & Skehan, 1996; Oxford, 1990; Willis, 1996, 1996)

7. Basic cognitive processes, such as comparing and matching (Nunan, 1989; Willis, 1998)

8. Listing, and ordering /sorting (Willis, 1998)

9. Language analysis (Willis, 1996a, 1996b, 1998)

10. Narrative (Foster & Skehan, 1996)

11. Reasoning-gap (Nunan, 1989)

12. Question –and- answer (Nunan 1989)

13. Structured and semi-structured dialogues (Nunan, 1989)

14. Role-plays and simulations (Crookall & Oxford, 1990; Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

The content of these task types may contain picture stories, songs, games, puzzles, interviews, discussion and debates, and everyday functions such as telephone conversations and service encounters (Nunan, 1989; Oxford, 1990; Richard& Rodgers, 2001). These task types require learners to develop communication and conversation strategies, learning strategies, and text handing strategies (Cohen, 1998; Honeyfield, 1993; Nunan, 1989; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990).

Many task types include multiple skills and sub-skills, such as reading a passage for comprehension and then doing something with the information that has been read, such as answering questions, discussing the information, making a decision, solving a problem, and expressing how one feels about a given situation.

In addition, Nunan (in Furuta, 2002, p. 12) distinguished real-world target tasks and pedagogical tasks. In Nunan's opinion, a real-world or target task is a communicative act that we achieve through the language in the world outside the classroom, but a pedagogical task is defined as a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, or producing in the language while their attention is primarily focused on meaning rather than forms. (Nunan, 2004, p.4).

Willis (Willis and Willis, 2007) focuses more on practical design of tasks. She divides tasks into seven parts as follows:

1. *Listing:* The simplest type of task is listing. Students can; hear/read other pairs' lists and consolidate their own to see how many items they get together; vote on the most comprehensive list. Listing can be divided into two kinds: brainstorming and fact-finding.

Brainstorming has been found to be an extremely effective way of getting even shy learners involved in topics and promotes richer task. Fact-finding involves asking learners to search for specific facts in books or on a website or to ask other people outside class.

2. *Ordering and sorting*: In this task students try to persuade each other by giving reason and explaining about the subject matter in the class. This broad category includes a variety of cognitive processes, including sequencing, ranking, and classifying, which involve students with a good cognitive effort than simply listing.

Sequencing may be chronological sequencing, for example, arranging a series of messy pictures to make a story, or a untidy list of events to recreate the order in which they happen and they like.

3. *Matching:* The entire variety of tasks can be generated under the title of "Matching" which is appropriate for all levels. Many of these tasks are teacher-oriented and are thus perfect for beginners who need lots of exposure to language before having to speak themselves.

4. *Comparing*: Students compare the result of their works with the partner to find out similarities and differences between his/her work and with his/her partner.

5. *Problem solving :* Students can compare (and list) way of solving a problem; justify/evaluate solutions; vote on the best solution; advice a solution. Problem solving tasks invite learners to offer advice and recommendations on problems ranging from general, like global warming, to the very specific, like what to do if your neighbours' cat is causing trouble in your garden.

6. *Sharing personal experiences*: Students can make a note on the topics of interest and compare them later; write questions to ask partner; set quiz questions as a

memory challenge; write down main points or themes mentioned for a review or classification later; select one experience to summarize and other activities like this.

7. *Creative tasks :* Students can say what was most enjoyable on the other groups' work; make a note on the interest matter and read them.

Similarly, some of the categorical distinctions which is based on research in TBLT are mentioned as follows:

1. *One-way vs. two-way*: Long (1981, cited in Nunan, 1991) found that two-way tasks (in which all students in a group discussion had unique information to contribute) stimulated significantly more modified interactions than one-way tasks (that is, in which one member of the group possessed all the relevant information). Gass and Varonis (1985, cited in Gass, 1997) found no significant differences in the output produced by the two task types.

2. *Convergent vs. divergent*: Duff (1986 cited in Gass, 1997) found that convergent problem-solving tasks prompted significant interactional and discoursal differences with more and shorter turns than divergent debating tasks (cited in Nunan, 1989). They produce different types of language whether the students achieve a common goal or several different goals.

3. *Shared vs. single source of information*. Pica, Holliday, Lewis, Berducci, and Newman (1991, cited in Gass, 1997) found that negotiation is greater when a single individual holds all the information needed for a resolution of a task as opposed to being shared.

4. *Teacher presence.* Pica, Young, and Doughty (1987, cited in Gass, 1997) found many more examples of interactional exchange when the teacher was not present than elicited when present.

5. *Effects of negotiation*. Aston (1986 cited in Gass, 1997) shows that tasks that promote negotiation often result in language that is frustrating to produce and as a result error-laden.

These hypotheses and research have made a useful beginning in creating a framework for the design and study of tasks. This list of characteristics and contrasting

sets describe some of the types of potential negotiation in tasks. They are also useful for task design thinking processes.

2.5. Analysing Task Properties

Researchers made various proposals on the task properties and the ways that some tasks are more beneficial for interaction than others. Long offers that close task are more useful than open tasks and that two-way information gap tasks are more useful than one-way tasks. Researchers try to develop a framework for task analysis associated to information processing views .

Skehan and Foster (1997) and Skehan and Foster (1996) showed that different task types may be different according to their impact on oral production. They revealed that some tasks directed to more accurate and fluent but less complex language, others produce more complex and accurate language, while yet others created more complex but less accurate language.

Skehan (1992, 1996), developing work by Candlin (1987) and Nunan (1989), recommends that a distinction can be made between tasks on the basis of the language demands they make; their cognitive demands; and the communicative pressure that they involve. Foster and Skehan used this foundation and (1996) focused on a personal task, a narrative and a decision-making task. They stated that the personal task created less complexity than the narrative and decision-making tasks. Also, lowest level of accuracy can be gained through narrative task with the other two task types causing language at similar levels. Similarly, greatest amount of fluency can be gained through the personal task, with the other two tasks type being similar in this respect. Such research is finding that all tasks are not the same and there are prospects for understanding their dependable characteristics.

Robinson (2001) discriminates among *task complexity*, which contains cognitive demands of the task, *task difficulty* which is based on learner's factors such as aptitude, motivation, etc., and *task conditions* which involve the demands of the task. He claimed that these three different structures of tasks have a different impact on learners' performance. According to Robinson (2001), narratives are there-and-then types of task which are more complex than a picture description task, which is a here-and-now type

of task. In a narrative task, learners have to organize information and retain it while processing the story they are going to narrate. In a picture description task, learners have visual support and they can select what they want to describe first. So, they can avoid what they do not know, in so doing they don't penalize memory as much as in a narrative task.

2.6. Varying Focus through Task Repetition

Bygate (1996) explored causes related to the situations which a task is done, such as *task familiarity and task repetition*. He mentioned that these factors are useful in learning L2. Later, Yule added *interlocutor experience* as a situation which is beneficial for doing task (Yule et al., 1992). Maybe the most useful way in this respect is that of pre-task planning. Ellis (1987), for example, reports that the arrangement of planned discourse with rule-based language in a task simplifies accuracy, whereas unplanned discourse led to more lexical performance. Crookes (1989) reports that planning time led to more complexity language production, but not on accuracy. Foster and Skehan (1996) argued the different impact of planning on task performance. They reported that the opportunity to plan (giving 10 minutes in pre-task planning) directed to much greater fluency, greater complexity and more accuracy.

Skehan (1992, 1996) recommends a more general framework for the presentation of task which in the studies of researchers such as Foster and Skehan (1996) can be found. The framework (as mentioned in detail previously) classifies between pre-task, during-task and post-task pedagogic varieties. He proposes that each of these can affect the degree to which learners' attention can be centred on form during task performance.

As mentioned before, discovering situations, which a task is done such as task repetition, can be useful for L2 learning. Task repetition is mainly a kind of planning (Ellis, 2005, 2008) that refers to 'repetition of the same or slightly altered task – whether the whole tasks, or parts of a task' (Bygate & Samuda, 2005, p. 43). Task repetition is said to lead to more fluency and complexity. (Bygate, 2001). Probably because when learners already know:

> What they are going to talk or write about they have more processing space available for formulating the language needed to express their ideas with the result that the quantity of the output will be enhanced and also the fluency and complexity (Ellis, 2003, pp. 246–47).

According to Levelt's (1989) speech production model, speakers go through four stages of conceptualization, formulation, articulation and self-monitoring which in reality overlap each other. In the first stage, conceptualization, speakers choice related information to be articulated, then they organize the selected information for expression, and keeping way of what just has been said (Levelt, 1989). The product of this stage is what Levelt (1989) calls 'preverbal message', which is the general meaning to be communicated.

In fact, during the primary task performance learners are involved with the planning of content, i.e. processing the preverbal message (Bygate, 1996). They scan their memory for the language that is most suitable to the task; and this is how familiarity with the message content is recognized. However, on the second opportunity in task performance, because of familiarity with the message content, they have enough time to shift their attention from content to the selection and monitoring of proper language, which lead to more fluency, complexity and/or accuracy (Bygate, 1999).

Bygate states that the theoretical principles behind the hypothesis that task repetition may support language performance originated from the fact that 'part of the work of conceptualization, formulation and articulation which is done in the first occasion is kept in the learners' memory store and can be reused on the second occasion (2001, p. 29). All in all, to Bygate and Samuda (2005, p. 45), task repetition is essentially theorized as having two phases:

> a first enactment of a task, in which learners are likely to organize the cognitive content, scope out the likely useful lexico-grammar, and process it in real time, generating an experientially derived multi-level schema to support subsequent linguistic work; followed by a second enactment, during which the speaker can build on the previous one.

Similarly, task repetition is useful for developing the process of *`integration'*. Experience proposes that repeated encounters with similar demands improve our capability to deal with communicative (e.g. service encounters, small talk, telephone conversations, professional encounters). Usually, we first focus on the message content, scanning our memory to choice proper language to cope with the task. This creates familiarity with useful message content and language knowledge, and provides a basis for conducting the task. On the following performance, this familiarity gives us the time and awareness to change our attention from message content to the selection and monitoring of proper language. This shift of attention helps learners to integrate the competing demands of fluency, accuracy and complexity.

Therefore, there are clear psycholinguistic bases to hypothesize that task repetition promote fluency as well as complexity. Generally, experiential proof supports the effectiveness of task repetition on developing language performance. One of the earliest renowned attempts to study task repetition is Bygate's (1996) study, which investigated the effects of exact repetition of a task on language production. In this study a participant was asked to watch a video cartoon and then to narrate it. Bygate reported that this form of repetition has a striking improvement in both fluency and accuracy (Bygate, 1996). Later, Bygate (2001) compared the performances of 48 learners on a narrative and an interview on two occasions with a 10-week interval. He found that task repetition had a significant effect on fluency and complexity of learners' performances. The findings of this study that were strongly consistent with Bygate's (1996) results were also supported in study carried out by Bygate and Samuda (2005), which was based on the dataset in Bygate (2001).

Gass et al.'s (1999) study examined the impact of task repetition on linguistic output of L2 learners of Spanish. They tried to find out whether repeating (both same and slightly different) tasks causes more advanced language use. Gass et al. (1999) found that task repetition had an effect on the overall proficiency, partial accuracy in the use of *estar*, and lexical complexity.

Similarly, Lynch and Maclean had conducted another interesting study on task repetition (2000, 2001) in the context of English for specific purposes. They explored

that task repetition had a positive impact on both accuracy and fluency in language production of learners.

Based on the theoretical foundation and experimental proof discussed above, it can be hypothesized that task repetition supports complexity and fluency of EFL learners' oral production. It may also be hypothesised that since progress in the complexity of learners' oral performance may be achieved by task repetition and careful online planning; using them simultaneously may help learners to produce more complex language than they may otherwise do. Also, some form of task repetition can enable learners to change their attention from the problem of conceptualisation towards that of formulation. Task recycling seems to provide the basis for learners to integrate their fluency, accuracy and complexity of formulation around what becomes a familiar conceptual base.

2.7. Components of a Task

Nunan indicates that in a communicative language teaching situation "task will contain some form of *input data* which may be verbal (a dialogue or reading passage) or non-verbal(a picture sequence) and an *activity* which is in some way derived from the input and which set out what the learner are to do in relation to the input"(p.10). The input transfers data that learners will use in the task. These data may be *linguistic* (e.g., a story), *non-linguistic* (e.g., a set of family photos), or *hybrid* (e.g., the plan of a city). In addition, task will be based on either explicit or implicit goals and it will specify roles for teachers and learners, and will occur in a setting.

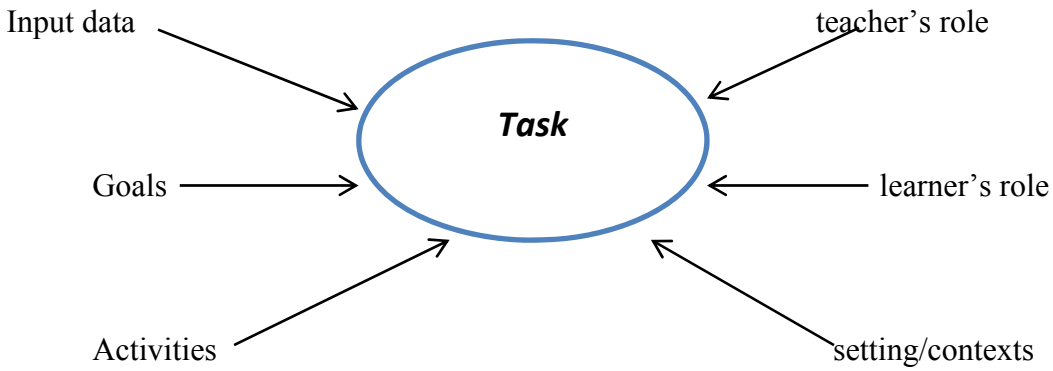

Figure 2.1. The figures of a task (adopted from Nunan, 1994*)*

Goals refer to the general purposes for the learning task. Input is the data that forms the point of moving for the task. Activities recognize what learners will actually perform with the input. Settings mean the classroom organizations which affect interaction involved in the task, such as pair work or group work. A number of various roles for learners are assumed such as group participant, monitor, risk-taker and innovator. Additional role for teacher are assumed such as selector and sequencer of tasks, preparing language for tasks, consciousness-raising. Nunan (1989) believes that when applying communicative task, design of all these components is required (p.11).

2.8. Three Areas of Performance

Concerning performance, it is beneficial to distinguish between three areas of performance: complexity, accuracy and fluency. Regarding Task-based research each of these three areas is different from each other (Skehan& Faster, 1997, 2001) and even to compete with one another for attentional priority. It has been hypothesised that they signify various phases of learning process.

These three areas of production have performance and developmental characteristics. Thus, exploring the relationship between these characteristics is essential. If tasks can cause higher complexity, accuracy or fluency in production, then these production differences will have an effect on the development of production. On some circumstances, task characteristics and task condition can organize new language, in other occasion they can cause less error performance, even in other occasion they make learner to gain a higher level of fluency.

A review of the literature proposes that the origins of these three areas founded in the research on L2 pedagogy. A distinction was made between fluency versus accuracy of L2 usage in 1980. It attempted to examine the improvement of L2 oral proficiency in classroom contexts. The first one who used this dictonomy was Brumfit (1984). He distinguished between fluency-oriented activities, which encourage spontaneous oral L2 production, and accuracy-oriented activities, which focus on linguistic form and on the controlled production of grammatically correct linguistic structures in L2.

In 1990 the third area of production, complexity, was added. It followed Skehan's research (1989) who suggested an L2 model, which CAF was included as the three principal proficiency scopes for the first time. Complexity has been usually characterized as 'the extent to which the language produced in performing a task is elaborate and varied' (Ellis 2003, p. 340), accuracy as the ability to produce error-free speech, and fluency as the ability to process the L2 with 'native-like rapidity' (Lennon 1990, p. 390) or 'the extent to which the language produced in performing a task manifests pausing, hesitation, or reformulation' (Ellis 2003, p. 342).

2.8.1. CAF in SLA Research

These three concepts have mainly been considered as *dependent variables* in SLA research since 1990. As an example, we can mention the studies of the effects on L2 acquisition of age, instruction, individuality features, task type, as well as studies on the impact of learning context (e.g. Freed 1995; Bygate 1999; Skehan and Foster 1999; Derwing and Rossiter 2003; Yuan and Ellis 2003; Collentine 2004; Freed et al. 2004; Mun ˜ oz 2006; Kuiken and Vedder 2007; Spada and Tomita 2007). Thus, CAF appears as separated components of L2 performance and L2 proficiency which can be measured distinctly. They may also be displayed under different conditions of L2 use and may improve differently by various types of learners under different learning conditions.

As the cognitive psychology and psycholinguistics (Levelt 1989; Anderson 1993) improved in1990, CAF have assumed as a main focus or even as the independent variables of studies on SLA. (e.g. Skehan 1998; Guillot 1999; Lennon 2000; O'Brien et al. 2007; Riggenbach 2000; Robinson 2001; Housen et al. 2005; Towell and Dewaele

2005; Tavakoli and Skehan 2005; Larsen-Freeman 2006; Segalowitz 2007; Skehan and Foster 2007; Tonkyn 2007; Towell 2007; Van Daele et al.2007; Hilton 2008).

Some evidences propose that complexity and accuracy are mainly associated to the existing condition of the learner's inter-language knowledge, in a way that complexity is regarded as 'the scope of expanding or restructured second language knowledge' and accuracy as 'the conformity of second language knowledge to target language norms' (Wolfe-Quintero et al. 1998: 4). Therefore, complexity and accuracy are seen as concerning mainly to L2 knowledge demonstration and to the level of analysis of affected linguistic information. In contrast, fluency is primarily related to learners' control over their linguistic L2 knowledge, as reflected in the speed and ease with which they access relevant L2 information to communicate meanings in real time, with 'control improving as the learner automatizes the process of gaining access' (Wolfe-Quintero et al.1998: 4).

2.8.2. Defining CAF

Although many researchers are interested in CAF, and there have been a lot of researches done in these areas, the main questions such as how CAF should be defined as concepts remain without answer. Even though we use a usual definition of CAF as researchers and teachers did, it cannot be taken for granted and different definitions and interpretations still exist.

Among the three areas of language production, accuracy (or correctness) is probably the oldest one. It can also be considered as the most comprehensible and most reliable concept of these three areas of production which refers to the degree of deviancy from a specific type (Hammerly1991; Wolfe-Quintero et al. 1998). Any changes from norm are usually considered as *errors*. Although this classification may appear simple, there are many problems in measuring accuracy and recognizing errors, including whether these criteria should be changed to rigid standard norms or to non-standard and even non-native usages which is acceptable in some social contexts or in some communities (Polio 1997; James 1998; Ellis 2008).

Applied linguistics community has not a relative denotative analogy in the case of fluency and complexity as they have in accuracy. Traditionally, and in usage, *fluency*

usually refers to a person's general language proficiency, particularly regarded as the perceptions of ease, eloquence, and 'smoothness' of speech or writing (Lennon 1990; Chambers 1997; Guillot 1999; Freed 2000; Koponen and Riggenbach 2000; Hilton 2008). Similarly, language researchers have generally studied oral production data to discover exactly which quantifiable linguistic phenomena aid to the perceptions of fluency in L2 speech (e.g. Lennon 1990; Towell et al. 1996; Cucchiarini et al. 2002; Kormos and De ´nes, 2004). This research recommends that speech fluency is a multi-componential concept in which different sub-dimensions, such as speed fluency (rate and density of delivery), breakdown fluency (number, length, and distribution of pauses in speech), and repair fluency (number of false starts and repetitions) (Tavakoli and Skehan, 2005) can be identified.

In the case of *complexity*, it is rather difficult since complexity is the most complex and confusing concept among the CAF triad. In SLA literature, it is used to refer to both characteristics of language task (task complexity) and to characteristics of L2 performance and proficiency (L2 complexity) (e.g. Robinson, 2001; Skehan, 2001). There are two different ways of interpreting L2 complexity: cognitive complexity and linguistic complexity (Williams and Evans 1998; Housen et al. 2005; DeKeyser, 2008). Both two types of complexity in general refer to characteristics of language features (items, patterns, structures, rules) or (sub) systems (phonological, morphological, syntactic, and lexical).

On the other hand, while cognitive complexity is defined from the viewpoint of the L2 learner-user, linguistic complexity is defined from the perspective of the L2 system or the L2 structures. Cognitive complexity (or difficulty) refers to the relative difficulty with which language structures are involved in L2 performance and acquisition. The cognitive complexity of an L2 feature is a variable quality. It can be determined both by subjective, learner-dependent factors (e.g. aptitude, memory span, motivation, L1 background) or more objective factors, such as its significant input or its inherent linguistic complexity. Therefore, cognitive complexity is a wider concept than linguistic complexity.

Linguistic complexity can be thought in at least two different ways: as a dynamic quality of the learner's inter-language system and as a more constant quality of

the individual linguistic element that contain the inter-language system. Therefore, linguistic complexity has been usually expressed as the size, elaborateness, richness, and variety of the learner's linguistic L2 system. When considered at the level of the individual features themselves, one could speak of structural complexity, which itself can be broken down into the formal and the functional complexity of an L2 feature (Williams and Evans 1988; DeKeyser 1998; Housen et al. 2005).

2.8.3. Research on CAF

A short summary of the topics and questions of some of authors on CAF are presented as follows:

2.8.3.1. Rod Ellis research on CAF

The first research on CAF was conducted by Rod Ellis, which deals with the impact of *planning* on CAF in L2 performance and acquisition. He first introduces a comprehensive investigation on planning. Three types of planning seem to be significant in CAF: *rehearsal*, *strategic planning*, and *within-task planning*. Ellis concludes that all three types of planning have a positive effect on fluency, but the results for complexity and accuracy are more mixed.

Inspiring Levelt's (1989) model of speech production and the distinction between implicit and explicit L2 knowledge, Eliss then offers a theoretical interpretation for the role of planning in L2 performance. Since rehearsal provides an opportunity for learners to notice to all three components in Levelt's model—conceptualization, formulation, and articulation—thus it is useful for all three dimensions of L2 production. Ellis stated that strategic planning supports conceptualization, and thus improved complexity as well as fluency.

2.8.3.2. Skehan research on CAF

The second research on CAF measurement was carried out by Peter Skehan. Skehan claims that it is necessary for CAF measures to be accompanied by measures of lexical use, since lexical access and retrieval figure are prominent in all models of

speech production. He also expresses that there is not any native speaker data in CAF research. Such data are of critical importance, since they establish a basic factor with which L2 learners can be compared.

Skehan presents a number of experimental studies in which both native and non-native participants are involved in an identical task and similar task conditions and for which measures of complexity, accuracy (for non-native speakers only), fluency and lexis were achieved. Results recommend that the difference between native and non-native performance on tasks has a close relation to characteristics of fluency and lexis rather than to the grammatical complexity of the language production. In the case of fluency, the main difference between two groups lies in the pattern of pause locations in which native speakers use end-of-clause points for more effective, listener-friendly pausing, pausing there slightly more often ,although for shorter periods, whereas non-natives pause more mid-clause. Lexical performance is prominently different between the two groups, both in terms of lexical density and of lexical variety (i.e. the use of less frequent words).

Skehan also considers the issue of interdependency between CAF measures; particularly, between accuracy and complexity, since positive associations between these two features have been less common in the literature. In order to interpret these correlations, Skehan discovers competing statements from his own Trade-off Hypothesis and Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Skehan argues that such cooperative improvement performance in accuracy and complexity is not as a result of task difficulty (as Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis would predict) but, rather, that it reveals the united procedure of distinct task and task condition factors. Like Ellis, Skehan further tries to link the research findings to Levelt's (1989) model of speaking.

2.8.3.3. Robinson, Cadierno, and Shirai research on CAF

Peter Robinson, Teresa Cadierno, and Yasuhiro have done a research on the impact of task properties on learners' L2 performance. The authors show the results of two studies that measure the impacts of improving the complexity of task difficulties in two conceptual areas (time and motion). They used specific rather than general measures of the accuracy and complexity of L2 speech production. Studies are carried

out within the hypothetical framework of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. This hypothesis claims that pedagogic tasks should be sequenced for learners to increase cognitive complexity.

Investigation was interested in specific measure to improve tense-aspect morphology which refers to time and the use of lexicalization patterns which refer to motion. Results present that there is more complex and progressive use of tense-aspect morphology on demanding tasks compared with less demanding tasks. Also, there was more accurate, target-like use of lexicalization patterns for referring to motion on complex tasks.

2.8.3.4. Norris and Ortega research on CAF

John Norris and Lourdes Ortega were the next who studied the essential concern of operationalization and measurement of CAF. They studied existing performs in the evaluating of CAF in L2 production. They desired to explain the necessity for more *organic* and *sustainable* measurement performs. They claim that in the case of syntactic complexity, it makes worse the operationalization of multi-dimensional CAF constructs if CAF is not considered as a dynamic and inter-related set which continuously altering subsystems.

They detect a disjuncture among the hypothetical statements that researchers make, the definition of the constructs that they try to measure, and the particle size and focus of the operationalization through which measurement occurs. Also, they question current reasoning, under which a linear or co-linear trail of greater accuracy, fluency, and complexity is estimated. Instead, they want to consider measurement demands that are based on a dynamic, variable, and non-linear view of L2 development. Therefore, they recommended a closer relationship between theory and measurement and claim for a more central role for multi-dimensionality, dynamicity, variability, and non-linearity in future CAF research.

2.8.3.5. Larsen-Freeman research on CAF

Diane Larsen-Freeman stated that, historically, CAF appears to be a research on L2 developmental area. The big challenge has always been how to operationalize CAF. Larsen-Freeman stated the measures may be too dull or unsuitable since we may not be examining the right things in the right places. Then, she support Robinson, Cadierno, and Shirai's suggestion, to use not only general measures, but also to use more specific measures and to look at more detailed aspects of performance. She emphasised that the operationalization and measurement issue is complicated by the inter-dependency of the CAF components.

Larsen-Freeman does not study the CAF components in detail to examine its effect on learners' performance in a linear temporary way. In her opinion such an approach has little impact on developing our understanding since we don't give attention to their related interaction.

Instead, she tried to take the improvement of various subsystems over times which are interrelated to each other. According to Wolfe-Quintero et al. (1998) who have confirmed that many aspects of language development are non-linear, Larsen-Freeman demands for a wider theoretical framework and for more longitudinal and non-linear research, in which difference and variation have a crucial role. She studies dynamic or complex systems theory, in which more socially oriented measures of development are used, as the best candidate for such a structure.

CHAPTER THREE

3. METHOD OF THE STUDY

3.1. Introduction

This study was designed to investigate the learners' ability in using their L2 knowledge in production. We investigated if there is a native like production when the necessity to focus on meaning has been decreased through task repetition. Thus, learners became more fluent and accurate when we repeated the task for the second time in an interval of one week.

Also, we investigated the effects of repetition of task types on the development of accuracy, fluency and complexity of participants. We used three task types (personal task, narrative task and decision-making task) in this research and we studied the repetition of these three task types on the development of participants' oral production. We explored if the accuracy, fluency and complexity of participants increased when we repeated this three task types after a week.

3.2. Participants

This study was conducted with 60 EFL students (males and females) selected among 100 students, who were studying English language teaching and medicine at Ataturk University . They were 20-25 years old and at intermediate level. For homogeneity of the subjects, prior to research a proficiency test (PET) was given to 100 students and among them 60 participants who had received 50-60 out of 65 were selected.

Then, they were divided into three groups and their performances on the first attempt and second attempt of the same task were recorded and scored. These learners were not aware of the research purpose. Their performances were recorded in a

separate room and later on the recordings were transcribed and scored according to some established criteria.

3.3. Instrumentation

This study was conducted with 60 EFL students and medical students chosen from 100 students based on their proficiency scores. The proficiency test was PET (Preliminary English Test, 2004), a second level Cambridge ESOL exam for an intermediate level learners. Based on the results obtained, the three groups of the study were considered to be equivalent in terms of their proficiency.

The oral production of each group in any performance was recorded by a recorder and a computer.

3.4. Procedure

The subjects involved in this study were randomly divided into three groups i.e. two groups from education faculty, one group from medical faculty. Each participant came out of the class individually and went to a separate room with the researcher. The necessary instructions to do the tasks were given to the participants. They were told that they would be recorded while performing the tasks in English. Moreover, it was emphasized that the recordings would be anonymous, and that this was not a test. They were allowed to quit if they weren't willing to participate. All this information was given in Turkish.

Then each participant was required to narrate each of the tasks in turn. There was no time limitation; they were given enough time to look at the pictures or think about the given tasks before they started narration. Meanwhile, the researcher recorded the narration using a recorder and a computer. Both gadgets were used at the same time to avoid the probable loss of data.

When all of the participants finished their first performance, the second phase of the study began. After one week students were required to do the same task again. The same process was repeated for the second time. Students hadn’t been

informed in advance about the repetition of the task in order to reduce the practice effect.

Their second performances were also recorded on recorder and computer. After collecting the data, the most difficult phase of our study began. We had to transcribe the speeches in order to measure them. The transcripts were coded using sound scriber software program. In order to answer research questions the data were then submitted to statistical analysis including paired t-test.

3.5. Task

This research included a variety of tasks to explore whether different task types would have an impact on L2 learners performance. Three task types were used in this study following Skehan and Foster (1999): *Personal tasks* (based on information that was well known to participants and that was so supposed to decrease the cognitive load of the task involved), *narratives task* (which were supported by visual material, but which required some degree of organization of material to tell a story effectively), and *decision-making tasks* (which required the ability to relate a set of reasons to a set of decisions that had to be made).

These three types of tasks were chosen for a number of reasons. First similar tasks have been used in other studies (e.g. Foster & Skehan, 1996; Skehan & Foster, 1997; Skehan & Foster, 1999; Foster, 2000 cited in Foster, 2001) and therefore it would be easier to compare the results of these studies with the results that were gained in other similar studies. Second, all of these tasks are monologic rather than dialogic, so they provide a basis for measuring performance of learner that are not affected by interactional variables. Finally, we wished to insure that the task was reasonably demanding on the participants and previous researches indicate that this can be achieved by these types of task.

Additionally, there are some reasons for choosing narrative task. Bygate (1999) claims that the narrative task invites “linguistically denser talk” (p.206), we expect that it make development in L2 production. The usefulness of using the narrative task in l2 research is advised by Kawauchy (2005). Her point is that such monological tasks as narration are cognitively demanding because the learners cannot ask help from their

conversational partners. Referring to Ortaga (1999), Kawauchi emphasizes the fact that the narrative task effectively limits the range of individual variation in language use. (p.148)

As a *personal task* the following topic was used:

Sending somebody back to turn off the oven (Foster & Skehan, 1996).

It is the afternoon, you are at the university, and you have an important examination in fifteen minutes. You suddenly think that you haven't turned off the oven after cooking your lunch.

There is no time for you to go home. Explain to a friend who wants to help

• How to get to your house

• How to get into the house and get to the kitchen

• How to turn the oven off

For the second type of task, i.e. *decision-making* the following topic was chosen: You are going to be taken to a deserted island to live there for a month. You can only take three pieces of equipment with you. Tell us what you would like to take with you and give reasons for your choice and justify the decision. Decision-making tasks tend to involve the mobilization of sets of values to enable decisions to be made about conversational problems.

Finally, for the *Narrative task*, a lot of sources were examined in detail including course books and supplementary materials for teaching English and pictorial stories to find picture appropriate for the study. We tried to find those picture narratives which were clear enough and had an appropriate length, and also suitable to the level of participants i.e. weren't too difficult for the learners at intermediate proficiency level, and were culturally familiar for the participants.

Then, a picture from "*Beginning composition through picture" by* Heaton was chosen .The name of the picture was (a busy railway station). The picture is about a busy railway station. There are two trains on the platform. Some people are opening the doors of the trains and getting off. A man is hurrying past the ticket collector. He wants to catch the train to Greenfields and he is running toward it. There is a small boy on the

platform. He is sitting on a large suitcase and he is crying. There are two men and a woman near the restaurant. The two men are drinking tea and talking to a woman.

3.6. Variables

Two independent variables and three dependent variables were discussed in this research.

3.6.1. Independent Variables

We have two independent variables in this study:

3.6.1.1. Repetition

This variable investigated the effects of repetition of the similar task. This was operationalized by having the participants repeat the task which they had performed a week before.

3.6.1.2. Task type

This investigated the effect of task types (narrative task, personal task, and decision-making task) on language performance. The purpose was to explore whether the three task types led to differences in language production.

3.6.2. Dependent Variables

Dependent variables were used which focused on three potential qualities of the participant's speech:

3.6.2.1. Fluency

The general purpose of many second language (L2) learners is to be fluent in the target language—that is, to be able to express their thoughts easily, with more attention to meaning than focusing on form. So, fluency is often understood to refer to the flow and smoothness of delivery (Chambers, 1997; Koponen & Riggenbach, 2000).

Beyond this core idea, some distinctions were mentioned on fluency. Lennon (1990), for example, distinguished between *broad* and *narrow* fluency. In the broad sense, fluency is overall proficiency and includes accuracy and complexity of the output. However, in the narrow sense, fluency is limited to temporal measures, such as length and number of pauses and the number of hesitations (e.g., Iuh like sports) and repetitions (e.g., I like I like sports). According to Skehan and Foster (1999): Fluency is" the capacity to use language in real time, to emphasize meanings, possibly drawing on more lexicalized systems".

Similarly, Skehan(1996) defines fluency as: "the learner's capacity to produce language in real time without undue pausing or hesitation. It is likely to rely upon more lexicalized modes of communication, as the pressures of real time speech production are met only by avoiding excessive rule-based computation" (Skehan, 1996, p. 96-97).

3.6.2.2. Accuracy

According to Skehan and Foster (1999), Accuracy is "the ability to avoid errors in performance, reflecting higher levels of control in the language and an orientation to avoid challenging structures that might provoke errors."

3.6.2.3. Complexity

Complexity "is the utilization of inter-language structures that are 'cutting edge', elaborate, and structured" (Ellis, 2003, p.113).), and is often concerned with syntactic and lexical aspects of narrative performance. But, Skehan and Foster (1996, p.96-96) defined complexity as," the capacity to use more advanced language—with the possibility that such language may not be controlled effectively—and a greater willingness to take risks". This area is also taken to correlate with a greater likelihood of restructuring, that is, change and development in the inter-language.

3.7. Measure

Following processes developed by Bygate (2001) were used in this study. The audiotaped data were transcribed and coded to measure the fluency, accuracy, and complexity of participants' performance. The measures were operationalized as follows:

The data were coded for t-units, which are defined as "a finite clause together with any subordinate clauses dependent on it" (Bygate, 2001, p. 35). T-unit was chosen instead of C-unit as the task performance was one-way monologic narrative.

As mentioned before, complexity is 'the extent to which learners produce elaborated language' (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005: 139). Measures for complexity in previous studies include: the number of subordinate clauses per clause (Wigglesworth, 1997); the number of words per T-unit (Bygate, 2001; Daller, van Hout, & TreffersDaller, 2003); the number of clauses per C-unit (Skehan and Foster, 1999; Foster and Skehan, 1996; Robinson, 2001) and the number of subordinate clauses per T-unit (Mehnert, 1998). The number of words per unit and the number of subordination appear to be the two complexity measures that are most commonly used, and thus examined in this study as well. So, complexity was measured in terms of number of words per t-unit. Thus, the higher the number, the more complex the language will be.

Accuracy refers to how well the target language is produced according to its rule system (Skehan, 1996:23). The measures include: the percentage of error free clauses (Skehan and Foster, 1999; Foster and Skehan 1996; Yuan and Ellis, 2003); the percentage of error-free C-units (Robinson, 2001; 2007b); the number of errors per T-unit (Bygate, 2001); Errors per 100 words (Mehnert, 1998); and the percentage of correct use of target features (Wigglesworth, 1997; Crookes, 1989; Skehan and Foster, 1997). Although for general measures, the percentage of error free clauses appears to be frequently selected, Bygate (2001) recommends that calculating the number of errors per unit might be more sensitive, since it does not obscure the actual occurrences of errors, as is the case with counting error-free units. Thus, in this research the incidence of errors per t-unit was selected to calculate the

accuracy of participants. So, the higher the number of incidence of error, the less accurate the language will be.

Accordingly, the measure of fluency include, number of replacements, repetitions and hesitations (Foster & Skehan, 1996); then number of pauses and total silence (Foster & Skehan, 1996; Mehnert, 1998); and unpruned and pruned speech rates (Mehnert, 1998; Ortega, 1999; Yuan & Ellis, 2003) and number of disfluency per t-unit (Bygate). In this research fluency was measured according to temporal measure of three disfluencies, i.e., *false start* define as "number of utterances abandoned before completion", *repetition* define as "number of immediate and verbatim repetition of a word or phrase" and *reformulation* define as" number of repeated with some modification either to syntax, morphology, or word order". For example following utterance contains two disfluencies: And he's got, he's got a little bowler hat and it – you can see a thin neck and a thick body. The two disfluencies are, first, a repetition of the words "he's got", and second, a false start when the speaker abandons the main production at the word "it" and begins a new one with the words "you can see". When a speaker produces an utterance containing a disfluency such as "and it - you can see a thin neck and a thick body", it appears as though all or part of the main production "and it" is proposed to be cancelled and substituted with the new material.

CHAPTER FOUR

4. DATA ANALYSIS

4.1. Introduction

This study was accomplished to discover the impact of task repetition on fluency, accuracy and complexity EFL learners' oral production. We explored if learner made less grammatical errors or were they more accurate when we repeated the task for the second time. Similarly, we examined the learners' fluency in the case of reformulation, repetition and false start, to discover if they were more fluent as we repeated the task with the interval of one week. Furthermore, we discovered if participants utilized more word in the second performance. Therefore, their complexity improved in the performing the task for the second time.

Also, we examined the effect of repetition of three task types (decision-making task, narrative task and personal task) in improving three areas of production (accuracy, fluency and complexity). We explored if the participants' fluency, accuracy and complexity improved when we repeated the three task types for the second time. In order to answer research questions the data were submitted to statistical analysis including paired t-test.

Table 4.1.

Descriptive Statistics for Paired t-Test

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pre FluencyReformulation	60	,77	1,125
Post FluencyReformulation	60	,68	1,000
Pre FluencyFalseStart	60	,18	,504
Post FluencyFalseStart	60	,17	,418
Pre FluencyRepetition	60	1,70	2,782
Post FluencyRepetition	60	1,02	1,761
Valid N (listwise)	60		

The first research question in this study was concerned on the effect of task repetition on the fluency (repetition, replacement and false starts) of L2 production. A paired t-test was applied to answer this question. As the descriptive data in Table 4.1. shows, during the first performance, the mean score fluency (reformulation) of participants was .77, but in the second performance it has decreased to .68 as well as the mean score of fluency (false starts) has decreased from .17 in the first performance to .18 in the second performance. Although we notice the reduction in the fluency (false start) of the participants, the reduction is not too important.

Moreover, as the table 4.4. indicates the existing significant value for fluency (reformulation) (p=.60) is higher than the significant level (.05). In other words there is no significant difference between the first and second performance of participants. Therefore, there is no significant effect of task repetition on fluency (reformulation) of the participants. Similarly, as shown in table 4.4, since the significant level (.05) is lower than existing value for fluency (false start) (.82), there is no significant difference between the first and second performance of participants, therefore there is no significant effect of task repetition on fluency (false start).

Furthermore, as the descriptive data in Table 4.1. indicates, mean score fluency (repetition) of participants reduced from 1.70 in the first performance to 1.02 in the second performance. As it has been mentioned before, in the case of fluency measurement which is actually a disfluency measurement in this study, the results will be better if we gain smaller scores .Hence, we notice an improvement in the fluency (repetition) of participants in the second performance . Likewise, the difference between the participants' fluency in the case of repetition was significant (t (59) =2/49, p=.015). It means that performing the same task for the second time with the time interval of one week had a significant effect on the improvement of participants' fluency.

As a result, we conclude that performing task for the second time had a significant impact on the improvement of participants' fluency (repetition), but not fluency (reformulation), fluency (false start).

Table 4.2.

Descriptive Statistic for Paired t –test

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pre Accuracy	60	1,68	1,73
Post Accuracy	60	,97	1,04
Valid N (listwise)	60		

In this study, the main effect of task repetition on speech production is seen in accuracy measure which is the basic of research question 2. As has been indicated before, accuracy has been measured through the number of errors per t-unit, so if we gain smaller score, the accuracy will be better. Looking at the mean scores of accuracy measures during the two performances in descriptive data in table 4.2., we notice that there has been a significant decrease in the amount of accuracy score in the second performance. In the first performance, it has been 1.68, but in the second performance it has decreased to .97, which shows that in the second performance participants made less error than the first performance and there is an improvement and reduction in the number of errors in the participants' second performance.

Similarly, the result obtained from t-test presented in table 4.4 shows that the main effect of task repetition was significantly meaningful for accuracy measure(t(59)=3.39, p.001), since the value score of accuracy was lower than significant level (.05).

Table 4.3.

Descriptive Statistic for Paired t -test

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pre Complexity	60	41,53	20,55
Post Complexity	60	40,32	21,97
Valid N (listwise)	60		

As the descriptive data in Table 4.3 shows, there has been a reduction in the complexity level of participants in the second performance. The complexity mean score of the participants in the first performance was 41.53, but it reduced to 40.32 in the second performance. Besides, the results obtained from the paired t-test presented in Table 4.4 does not show any significant effect for accuracy measures in the case of task repetition (t (59) = .77, p=.44), since the existing significant value for complexity (p=.44) is higher than the significant level (.05). Thus, we concluded that task repetition has not a positive effect on the improvement of complexity knowledge of participants in this study.

Table 4.4.

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Pre FluencyReformulation Post FluencyReformulation	.08	1,25	,16	-,24	,40	,51	59	,60
Pair 2	Pre FluencyFalseStart Post FluencyFalseStart	,01	,59	,07	-,13	,17	,21	59	,82
Pair 3	Pre FluencyRepetition Post FluencyRepetition	,68	2,11	,27	,13	1,23	2,49	59	***,01***
Pair 4	Pre Accuracy Post Accuracy	,71	1,63	,21	,29	1,14	3,39	59	***,001***
Pair 5	Pre Complexity Post Complexity	1,21	12,18	1,57	-1,93	4,36	,77	59	,44

Finally, we concluded that repetition of task for the second time with an interval of one week improves learners' accuracy and fluency (repetition). So, we will have a fluent and accurate language production if we recycle the task for the second time.

The fourth research question in this study was concerned on the effect of repetition of three task types on the fluency (repetition, reformulation and false starts) of L2 production. A paired t-test was applied to answer this question.

Table 4.5.

Paired Samples Statistics (Narrative Task)

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Prefluencyreform	1.20	20	1.43	.32
	Postfluencyreform	.85	20	1.04	.23

Table 4.6.

Paired Samples Statistics (Decision-Making)

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Prefluencyreform	.45	20	.68	.15
	Postfluencyreform	.35	20	.58	.13

As the descriptive data in Table 4.6 show, during the first performance of decision-making task, the mean score fluency (reformulation) of participants was .45, but in the second performance it decreased to .35. As well as the mean scores fluency (reformulation) of participants in performing narrative task (shown in table 4.5) decreased from 1.20 in the first performance to .85 in the second performance. So, the participants made fluent production in performing decision-making and narrative task in their second performance.

Table 4.7.

Paired Samples Statistics (Personal Task)

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Pre fluency reform	.65	20	1.04	.23
	Post fluencyreform	.85	20	1.22	.27

But as the table 4.8 indicates, the existing significant value for fluency (reformulation) in decision-making task (p=.54) is higher than the significant level (.05). In other words, there is no significant difference between the first and second performance of participants in performing decision-making task. Therefore, there is no significant effect of repetition of decision -making task on fluency (reformulation) of the participants. Similarly, as shown in table 4.9, since the significant level (.05) is lower than existing value for fluency (reformulation) of personal task (.55), there is no significant difference between the first and second performance of participants, therefore, there is no significant effect of repetition of personal task on fluency (reformulation) of the subjects.

Conversely, the mean score fluency (reformulation) of participants in personal task increased from .65 in the first performance to .85 in the second performance. As noted before, in the case of fluency measure which is a disfluency measure, the smaller the score the better the result is. Furthermore, as shown in table 4.10, the significant value for fluency (reformulation) on narrative task was (.28), which shows no significant impact of repetition of narrative task on improving fluency (reformulation), since it is higher than (.05).

In general there wasn't a significance difference on the fluency (reformulation) of subjects performing three task types in the case of repeated performance.

Table 4.8.

Paired Samples Test (Decision-Making)

		Paired Differences					T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	prefluencyreform – postfluencyreform	.100	.71	.16	-.23	.43	.62	19	.54

Table 4.9.

Paired Samples Test (Personal Task)

		Paired Differences					t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	prefluencyreform – postfluencyreform	-.20	1.47	.32	-.88	.48	-.60	19	.55

Table 4.10

Paired Samples Test (Narrative Task)

		Paired Differences					t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	prefluencyreform – postfluencyreform	.350	1.42	.31	-.31	1.01	1.09	19	.28

Table 4.11.

Paired Samples Statistics (Narrative Task)

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Prefluencyfalse	.15	20	.36	.08
	Postfluencyfalse	.15	20	.36	.08

Table 4.12.

Paired Samples Statistics (Decision-Making)

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	prefluencyfalse	.05	20	.22	.05
	postfluencyfalse	.05	20	.22	.05

Table 4.13.

Paired Samples Statistics (Personal Task)

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Prefluencyfalse	.35	20	.74	.16
	Postfluencyfalse	.30	20	.57	.12

As shown in table 4.11 and 4.12, the mean scores for fluency (false start) of participants in decision-making task and narrative task were the same in both performances. The mean score fluency (false start) of participants on decision-making task was .05 in both performance and did not change during the second performances as well as the mean scores fluency (false start) of participants in narrative task was .15 in both performances and did not change during the second performance too. Moreover, as the tables 4.14, and 4.16 indicates, the existing values for fluency (false start) in decision-making task and narrative task are the same i.e. (1.00), which are higher than the significant value (.05). That is to say, there is no significant impact of repetition of these two task types on fluency (false start) of participants. Thus, repeating narrative and decision-making task didn't have a vital impact on participants' fluency in the case of false start.

On the contrary, the mean score for fluency (false start) of participants (as shown in table 4.13) in personal task decreased in the second performance. In the first performance the mean score of fluency (false start) of participants was .35, but in the second performance it has decreased to .30. So, participants made fluent production in their second performance in performing personal task. But, as shown in table 4.15, since the significant level (.05) is lower than existing value for fluency (false start) in personal

task, (.80), there is no significant difference between the first and second performance of participants, therefore there is no significant effect of repetition of personal task on fluency (false start) of participants.

Table 4.14.

Paired Samples Test (Decision-Making)

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 prefluencyfalse – postfluencyfalse	.000	.32	.07	-.15	.15	.000	19	1.00

Table 4.15.

Paired Samples Test (Personal Task)

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 prefluencyfalse – postfluencyfalse	.050	.88	.19	-.36	.46	.25	19	.80

Table 4.16.

Paired Samples Test (Narrative Task)

	Paired Differences					T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 prefluencyfalse – postfluencyfalse	.000	.45	.10	-.21	.21	.000	19	1.00

In general, there wasn't a significant difference on the fluency (false start) of subjects performing three task types in the case of repeated performance.

Table 4.17.

Paired Samples Statistics (Decision-Making)

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Prefluencyrepeat	1.15	20	1.53	.34
	Postfluencyrepeat	.45	20	.75	.17

Table 4.18.

Paired Samples Statistics (Personal Task)

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	prefluencyrepeat	1.65	20	2.66	.59
	postfluencyrepeat	1.35	20	1.66	.37

Tables 4.17, 4.18 and 4.19, show the mean score fluency (repetition) of three task types of participants in their first and second performance. As table 4.17 indicates the mean score of fluency (repetition) of participants in decision-making task in the first performance was 1.15, but it reduced to .45 in the second performance. As noted before, the result will be better if we gain lower measures. Also, the mean score of fluency (repetition) of participants in the personal task reduced from 1.65 in the first performance to 1.35 in the second performance.

Table 4.19.

Paired Samples Statistics (Narrative Task)

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Prefluencyrepeat	2.30	20	3.72	.83
	Postfluencyrepeat	1.25	20	2.40	.53

A paired t- test was run to find out that whether the difference between the task types is meaningful. As the result in tables 4.20 and 4.21 show, the difference between

the participants' fluency (repetition) on both tasks, decision-making task and personal task, weren't significant. The significant value of fluency (repetition) in the decision-making task was .09 as well as the significant value of fluency (repetition) in the personal task was .57, which are higher than the significant level (.05). Thus, the results suggest that, although reworking the task had a striking impact on the learners' speech fluency, task type didn't exert significant effect.

In addition, there is a significant decrease in the mean score of fluency (repetition) of participants in narrative task. As table 4.19 displays, the mean score of fluency (repetition) of participants in the first performance was 2.30, but it has declined to 1.25 in the second performance. Also, as the table 4.21 shows, the differences between the participants' fluency (repetition) in the narrative task was significant (.05). It can be concluded that performing the narrative task for the second time had a significant effect on the participants' fluency (repetition).

Table 4.20

Paired Samples Test (Decision-Making Task)

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	prefluencyrepeat - postfluencyrepeat	.70	1.75	.39	-.11	1.51	1.78	19	.09

Table 4.21.

Paired Samples Test (Personal Task)

		Paired Differences					T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	prefluencyrepeat - postfluencyrepeat	.300	2.34	.52	-.79	1.39	.57	19	.57

Table 4.22.

Paired Samples Test (Narrative Task)

		Paired Differences					T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	prefluencyrepeat - postfluencyrepeat	1.05	2.25	.50	-.007	2.10	2.07	19	.05

Finally, reworking the decision-making task and personal task did not have a major impact on fluency (repetition) of subjects, but reworking narrative task has a vital effect on the fluency (repetition) of participants.

Table 4.23.

Paired Samples Statistics (Decision-Making)

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Preaccuracy	1.30	20	1.59	.35

Table 4.23.

Paired Samples Statistics (Decision-Making)

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Preaccuracy	1.30	20	1.59	.35
	Postacuuracy	.85	20	.87	.19

Table 4.24.

Paired Samples Statistics (Personal task)

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	preaccuracy	2.00	20	2.00	.44
	postacuuracy	1.00	20	1.02	.22

Table 4.25.

Paired Samples Statistics (Narrative Task)

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Preaccuracy	1.75	20	1.58	.35
	Postacuuracy	1.05	20	1.23	.27

In order to find out that if task types have any impact on the accuracy gain through task repetition, which was the concern of research question 5, a similar paired t-test was run.

Drawing on the mean scores of accuracy reported in table 4.23, a reduction can be seen in the second performance of participants in decision-making task, from 1.30 in the first performance to .85 in the second performance. Also, an improvement can be seen in the mean score of the accuracy of participants in narrative task. As shown in the table 4.25, the participants mean score in narrative task was 1.75 in the first performance, but during second performance it has decreased and become 1.05.

But, the result obtained from the paired t-test presented in table 4.26 and 4.28 doesn't show any significant effect for accuracy measures in both decision-making and narrative task. The significant value of accuracy in the decision-making task was .186 as

well as the significant value of fluency in the narrative task was .100, which both of them are higher than the significant level (.05). Thus, reworking two task types, decision-making task and personal task, didn't have a major impact on participants' accuracy.

In this study, the main effect of task repetition on accuracy is seen in the repetition of personal task. According to table 4.24, the mean score of accuracy of participants in the personal task reduced significantly. In the first performance it has been 2.00, but it has reduced to 1.00 in the second performance. Also, as the table 4.27 shows, the differences between the participants' accuracy in the personal task were significant (.01), since it is lower than significant value (0.05), so it means that performing the personal task for the second time had a significant effect on the improvement of the participants' accuracy.

Table 4.26.

Paired Samples Test (Decision-Making)

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 preaccuracy – postacuuracy	.45	1.46	.32	-.23	1.13	1.37	19	.18

Table 4.27.

Paired Samples Test (Personal Task)

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 preaccuracy - postacuuracy	1.00	1.65	.37	.22	1.77	2.70	19	.01

Table 4.28.

Paired Samples Test (Narrative Task)

		Paired Differences					T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	preaccuracy – postacuuracy	.70	1.80	.40	-.14	1.54	1.73	19	.100

Finally repeating the decision-making task and narrative task have not major impact on accuracy of participants, but reworking personal task has a vital effect on the accuracy of participants.

Table 4.29.

Paired Samples Statistics (Decision-Making)

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Precomplexity	33.10	20	9.20	2.05
	Postcomplexity	26.25	20	8.08	1.80

Table 4.30.

Paired Samples Statistics (Personal Task)

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Precomplexity	43.65	20	21.45	4.79
	Postcomplexity	44.65	20	22.24	4.97

Table 4.31.

Paired Samples Statistics (Narrative Task)

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Precomplexity	47.85	20	25.40	5.68
	Postcomplexity	50.05	20	24.72	5.52

The last research question in this study investigated the effect of repetition of task types on the complexity of participants. As the descriptive data in table 4.29 indicates, there has been a reduction in the complexity level of participants in the second performance in the decision-making task. The complexity means score of participants in the decision-making task in the first performance was 33.10, but in the second performance it has reduced to 26.25. As the result of paired t-test in table 4.32 indicates the difference between the participants complexity in two performance of decision-making task was significant (.003), since it is lower than critical value (.05). It means that repeating decision-making task decreased complexity level of participants and lowest level of complexity can be gained through the repetition of decision-making task.

But, as shown in the table 4.30 and table 4.31, mean score of participants in the personal task increased from 43.65 in the first performance to 44.25 in the second performance as well as there has been an improvement in the complexity level of participants in the narrative task. The complexity means score of participants in narrative task increased from 47.85 in the first production and reached to 50.05 during the second production. However, the result obtained from the paired t-test presented in table 4.33 and 4.34 in personal task (.72) and narrative task (.46) doesn't show any significant effect on improving complexity, since the existing significant value of two task types are higher than the significant level (.05). So, it can be concluded that although reworking the task did have a striking impact on the learners' complexity , task type didn't exert significant effects.

Table 4.32.

Paired Samples Test (Decision-Making)

		Paired Differences							
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	precomplexity - postcomplexity	6.85	8.92	1.99	2.67	11.02	3.43	19	.003

Table 4.33.

Paired Samples Test (Personal Task)

		Paired Differences							
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	precomplexity – postcomplexity	-1.000	12.56	2.80	-6.87	4.87	-.35	19	.72

Table 4.34.

Paired Samples Test (Narrative Task)

		Paired Differences							
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	precomplexity – postcomplexity	-2.20	13.14	2.93	-8.35	3.95	-.74	19	.46

As mentioned before, the research has been done in two faculties, medical faculty and education faculty. Figure 4.1. shows the improvement of complexity, accuracy and fluency in the first and second performances between participants of two faculties.

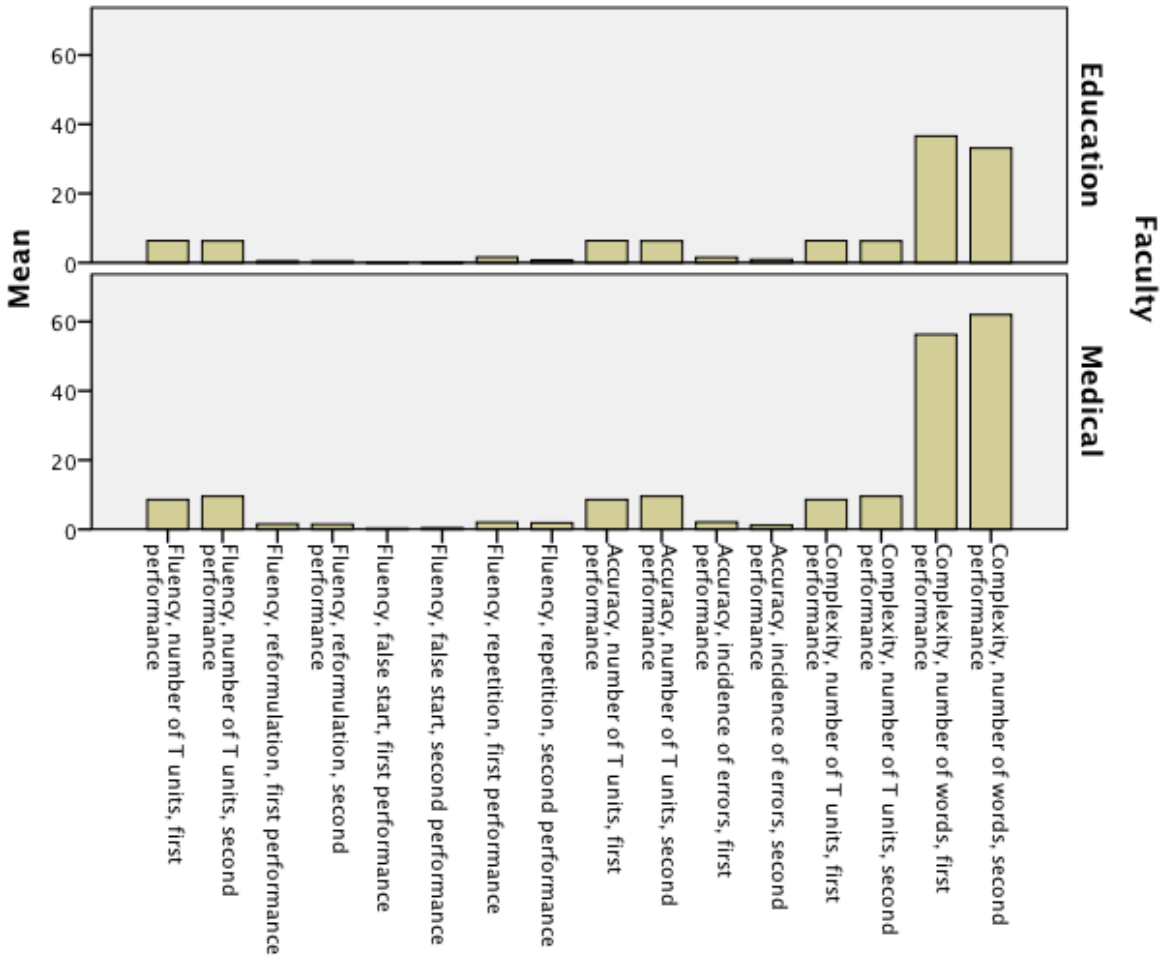

Figure 4.1. Fluency, Accuracy and Complexity Between Two Faculties

As shown in the figure 4.1 two faculties showed different improvement in the case of complexity, fluency and accuracy in the first and second performance. In the case of complexity the mean score of participants in medical faculty is higher than the participants in education faculty. Also, we notice an improvement in the second

performance of medical faculty subjects. So, we concluded that repetition of task has a positive effect on the complexity level of medical faculty participants. On contrary, education faculty participants used fewer words in their second performance. So, repetition of task had not a positive effect on the complexity knowledge of education faculty participants.

In the case of accuracy, the mean score of education faculty participants is less than medical faculty participants, so education faculty participants made fewer errors than medical faculty participants. But, there is a decrease in the mean score of both education faculty participants and medical faculty participants in their second performance. So, repetition of task for the second time improved accuracy knowledge of both faculties' participants.

And finally in the case of fluency, looking at the mean score of fluency, (repetition), we noticed that the mean score fluency (repetition) for medical faculty participants was higher than education faculty participants; also there is a decrease in the mean score of fluency (repetition) of the participants of education faculty in their second performance. Moreover, in the case of fluency false start, the mean score of medical faculty participants is higher than education faculty participants, so it seems that education faculty participants were more fluent than medical faculty participants and also task repetition has a positive impact on the improvement of fluency of both faculties.

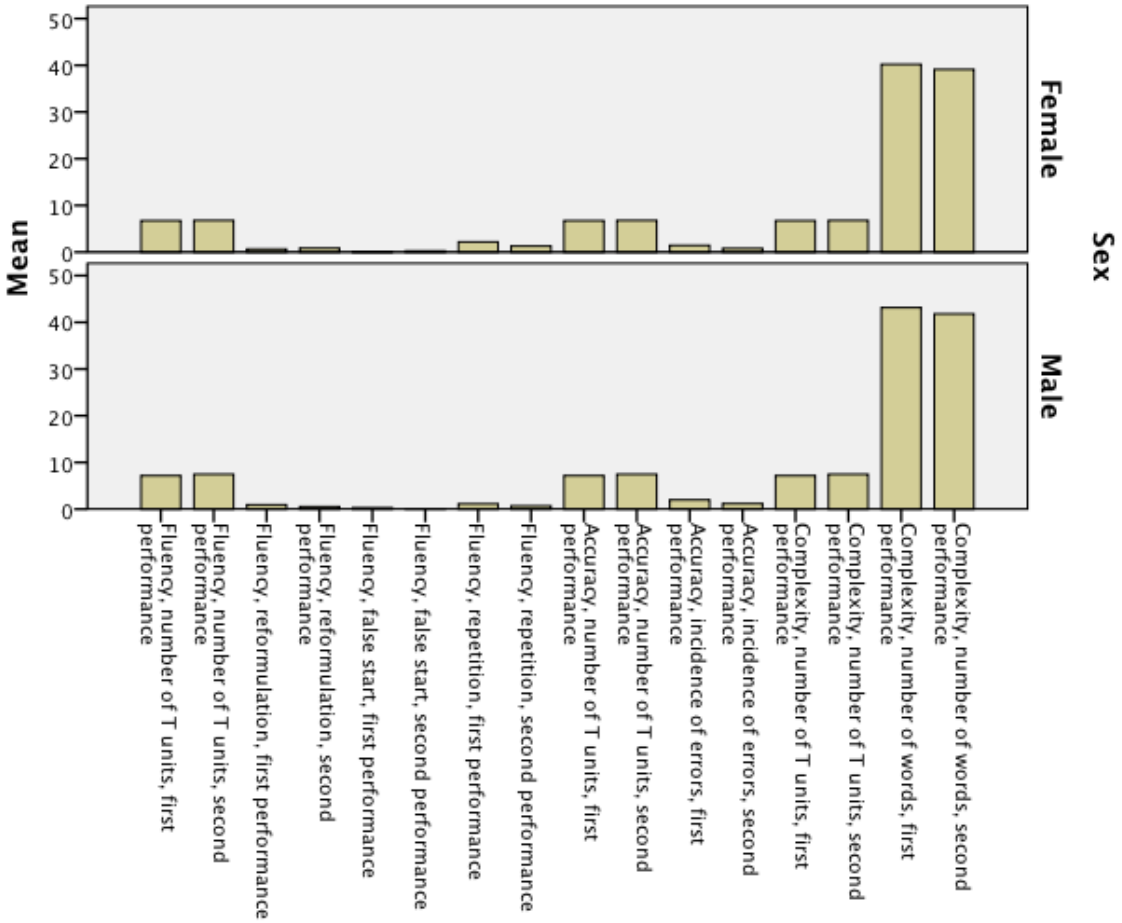

Figure 4.2. Fluency, Accuracy and Complexity and Sex

Figure 4.2 indicates the difference between the performance of male and female participants. As shown in figure 4.2, male and female subjects showed different improvement in their performance as we repeated the task for the second time. In the case of complexity the mean score of both subjects have been decreased in the second performance, so repeating the task for the second time had not improved the complexity knowledge of both male and female participants. Also, we noticed that the mean score complexity of male participants was higher than female participants, so it seems that male participants used more words than female participants.

In the case of accuracy the mean score of female subjects and male subjects decreased in the second performance, so repeating the task for the second time improved accuracy knowledge of both male and female subjects. Also, the mean score

of female participants was less than male participants, so it seems that incidence of error in female subjects was less than male subjects and female participants were more accurate than male participants.

In the case of fluency (repetition, false start and reformulation) the mean score of female and male participants decreased in their second performance, so repeating task had improved fluency knowledge of both male and female participants. But the mean score of male subjects on both cases were lower than female subjects, so it seems that male participants were more fluent than female participants.

CHAPTER FIVE

5. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

This study investigated the effect of task repetition on fluency, accuracy and complexity of EFL learners' oral production. The first section of study examined the impact of task repetition on fluency (repetition, reformulation and false start), accuracy and complexity on EFL learners' oral production. The second section of the study explored the effect of the repetition of three task types (decision-making task, narrative task and personal task) on fluency (repetition, reformulation and false start), accuracy and complexity of participants.

The present study supports the findings of previous researchers concerning task repetition. The findings of this study provide learners and L2 educators with a clear explanation of how task repetition affected the L2 learner's (a) cognitive processes, (b) the fluency (repetition, reformulation and false start) of their speech, (c) the accuracy of their speech, (d) the complexity of their speech through the increase of their vocabulary repertoire, (e) and finally their focus on form when their attention on meaning is reduced. Moreover, it has offered an explanation for the task type effect.

Results for the first section of this study showed that recycling task with the interval of one week improved participants' accuracy and fluency. These results are in line with the finding of studies of Bygate (1996), Gass et al.'s (1999), Lynch and Maclean (2000, 2001).

As discussed before, one of the earliest prominent attempts to study task repetition is Bygate's (1996) study, which investigated the effects of exact repetition of a task on language production. In this study a participant was asked to watch a video cartoon and then to narrate it. Bygate reported that this form of repetition has a striking improvement in both fluency and accuracy (Bygate, 1996).

Likewise, Gass et al.'s (1999) study examined the impact of task repetition on linguistic output of L2 learners of Spanish. They tried to find out whether repeating tasks cause more advanced language use. Gass et al. (1999) found that task repetition had an effect on the overall proficiency, partial accuracy of the learners.

Similarly, Lynch and Maclean had conducted another interesting study on task repetition (2000, 2001) in the context of English for specific purposes. They explored that task repetition had a positive impact on the improvement of both accuracy and fluency in language production of learners.

In the same way, the findings of this research supported Bygate's (1996, 2001) statement that task repetition may help improve the process of integration of speech abilities. As discussed before, integrating processing capacities must be important for language development, and that this can be promoted through the use of task repetition. Therefore, repeated experience of the same tasks can help learners improve their oral production and teachers may be able to use task familiarity to help learners' language acquisition to improve.

Also, the results of this study are supported by information processing theory. As mentioned before, during the primary task performance learners are involved with the planning of content, i.e. processing the preverbal message (Bygate, 1996). They scan their memory for the language that is most suitable to the task; and this is how familiarity with the message content is recognized. However, on the second opportunity in task performance, because of familiarity with the message content, they have enough time to shift their attention from content to the selection and monitoring of proper language, which lead to more fluency, complexity and/or accuracy (Bygate, 1999).

Bygate states that the theoretical principles behind the hypothesis that task repetition may support language performance originated from the fact that 'part of the work of conceptualization, formulation and articulation which is done in the first occasion is kept in the learners' memory store and can be reused on the second occasion (2001, p. 29).

The results of the study are also supported by Swain's (1985) output hypothesis that in order to speak we have to speak. By repeating the task for the second time, learners may be pushed to discover their mistakes and try to correct them in the second

attempt, because “under certain circumstances, output promotes noticing” (Swain, 1998, p. 67).

The results are also consistent with Skehan’s (1998) dual-mode system, which claims that L2 speaker’s processing capacity is limited since some areas of language have not to be emphasized in order to attend to some other areas. As a result, actual performance of task may be dependent on the decisions that of the language learner arrange, as well as the characteristics of tasks and conditions under which tasks are performed. Task repetition is assumed to free the learner from real time pressure in terms of processing load.

Likewise, the results of this research proposes that repeated encounter with a task may make it possible for several processes to take place: information can be developed, reorganized, and consolidated; attention can be paid to different aspects of the language. Repeated encounters do not involve the learners in doing the ‘same’ thing, but rather in working differently on the same material. Repetition provides a context for students and teachers to organize their future language work. Thus, different task types involve different cognitive operations and have different load on the memory.

The evidence also supports the view that task type affects subsequent performance of that task. The impact of task type and repetition on the accuracy, fluency and complexity measures suggest that different task types involve different cognitive operations and have altered load on the memory.

Similarly, the findings of the study indicate a significant impact of repetition of three task types on fluency and accuracy of participants. The results reveal that greatest level of improvement on fluency obtained through repeating the narrative task and also development in accuracy of participants gained through the repeating of personal task. “Hence the notion of ‘discourse competence’ – the capacity to process certain types of discourse more easily than others- does appear to have some empirically identifiable psychological reality” (Bygate, 2001, p. 43).

The current study has suggestions for both pedagogy and research. In the case of pedagogical, the results of this study propose that repetition can make an ideal balance between attention to form and attention to meaning. The findings of this study

can be useful for language teachers and curricular designers. Since the findings of study show an increase on the accuracy and fluency of participants, teachers can notice the positive effect of task repetition and they can include rehearsal and task recycle in their daily teaching programs. Within the repeating of task for the second time learners can work with their language problem on a practically constant way.

In the case of research methodology, as the result of study shows, classification of analysis can be extended beyond the measure of fluency, accuracy and complexity. Discoursal features, lexical selection, collocations of the speech can also be investigated.

Changing the interval between task repetitions or giving different task types might have an impact the performance of the participants. A further research can be done by selecting different task types or by changing the interval of performing repetition of task.

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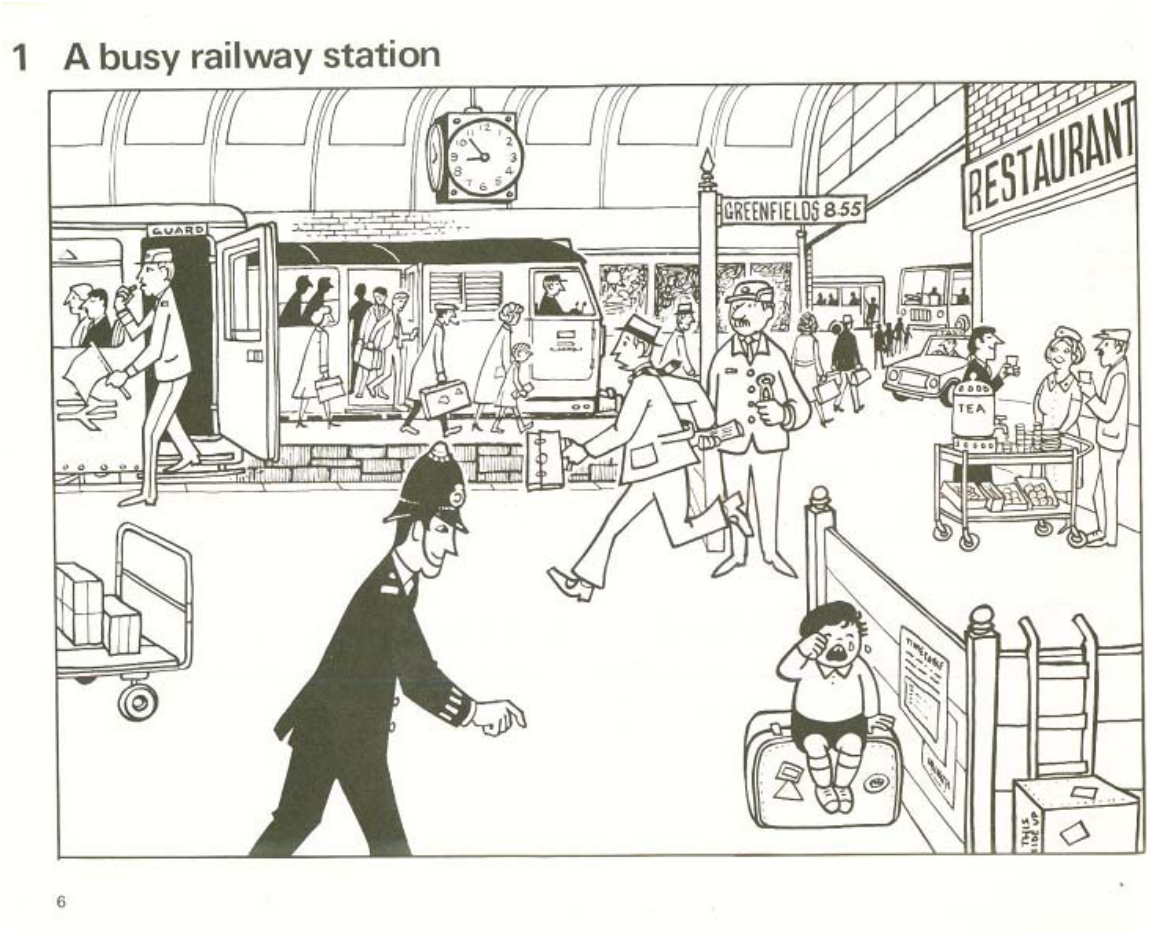
APPENDIX

Narrative task

Chosen from "Beginning composition through picture" by Heaton



Examples of subjects' two performances

First narration

In this picture I see a kid crying in front of the picture. He is sitting on the suitcase; he looks like he lost his parents like his afraid of his crying and behind behind the kid there is a man running he look likes late and he is like rushing for something and then right of the picture there are 3 people drinking tea and emm I I see a policeman right in front of us and he is walking he look like walking to suitcase like he going to help the kid or something like that and then the train looks like it is about to take off the guy is like blowing eee whistle like to let make people know that the train is gona take off and they had to rush and then there is another train behind that one it's look like it is arrive it has just arrive people are getting out of the train. We see a poster it says Greenfeild, it like the name of the station or something like that and then we see a a there is there is a restaurant but we we can't actually see the restaurant we just see the name of the restaurant and towards in front of the station there is a car and there are two buses people are going those buses to go to their homes I think and then that is all.

Second narration

My name is sahar.in this picture I see people in a busy railway station. There is a kid who is crying, he is sitting in the suitcase and the policeman is walking toward him probably to help, maybe he lost his parents and like the policeman is going to help him to find his parents. And then there is a in the middle of the picture there is a man he is running he look like he is late to his bus he is trying to ,he is trying to catch his bus then toward to right of the picture the sign it says is the restaurant and in front of the restaurant there are two two guys drinking tea there is like there is a woman she is like serving tea to them and then I see two ah ah two trains and the train it is like farther us from us people are getting out of the train .i see an old lady with a kid next to her like she is holding his hand and behind them there is a man he is smoking a pipe and in the train there are 3 people I cannot see them exactly they are like a shadows and then in the train like near in the train like nearer to us closer to us there is a conductor about to

bowl to his whistle like to let people know that train is going to about to take off that is all I can say.

Personal task

First performance

I have just forgotten to turn off the oven and I am at the university, so in 15 minutes I have an examination, so I do not have any time to go back my home. Ee If you are free, can you go my home and turn off the oven. If you want there is an elec there is key inside of electric box. When you get on the bus in front of the university, which is number is G3, you can get off from the bus in front of the shopping mall and opposite of the shopping mall, there was a blue building. My flat is the 3rd floor, and then when you take the key from the electric box, when you enter the flat, the kitchen is the second door at the right side, and when you enter the kitchen, you will see the oven, there is a bottom at the bottom of the oven, when you push the bottom, you can turn off the oven. Thank you.

Second performance

Hello my friend I am in the university now and in 15 minutes, I have an exam. I have an important exam. But I suddenly remember that I didn't turn off my oven oven in the kitchen, so if you have a time can you go go to my home to take off the oven for me. At first, get on the bus in front of the university campus, university faculty, which its name is G3and you can get on get off the bus in front of the shopping mall and then my home is opposite of the shopping mall, which is a blue building and then you enter the building. My floor, my home is the second floor. When you come into my door, you will see electricity box, when you open it, you will see my house key. When you open the door in the in the right side kitchen is the second kitchen is the second, the kitchen door is the second door of the right side. Enter the kitchen, you will see the oven. There is a bottom at the bottom of the oven, when you push it the bott the oven will turn off. Thank you for all things.

Decision-making task

First performance

My topic is about eee you are when I am going to be taken to a desert deserted island to live there for a month,…..what can I onl I can take only 3, five piece of equipment with myself and I will talk about it, first of all I will take water, because without water I can't live longer. Second i will take light for cooking meal meal. Third I will take gun for kill animal for eating something and meanwhile for protect myself. Forth one I will take…….I will take a dog. Of course it should be kanga. When I want to sleep, it will protect me. And the fifth one fifth one, I will take…..it is enough

Second performance

If I will be taken a deserted island, I will bring with myself firstly, water because without water we can't live longer. Second I will take light for cook meal, prepare something. Third I will bring axe for cutting something or for hunt hunting animals, fish, any way and the forth one I will bring or I will take dog for protect myself, when I were I where I am sleeping. That is all. I will take this only.

BIO DATA

The author is an M.A student in Ataturk University. She has a B.A.in English Language Teaching from Azad University of Maragheh. Being so much interested in translation, she translated a book entitle “The Effect of Music on Pregnant and New born Infant” and has published it in 2002.She worked at Azad University of Maragheh in English LAB section for two years from 2006-2008. Her areas of interest include language teaching methodology.