

TC. KOCAELİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ
YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ ANABİLİM DALI
İNGİLİZ DİLİ EĞİTİMİ BİLİM DALI

A COMPARISON OVER COMPLEXITY, ACCURACY, AND
FLUENCY IN A TASK SUPPORTED LANGUAGE TEACHING
SETTING

(M.A. THESIS)

Nalan ERÇİN

KOCAELİ, 2019

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To the memory of my lovely grandmother, Glsm Sara,

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Firstly, I would like to express my gratitude to Dr. Mehmet Altay, my thesis advisor, for his continuous support, precious feedback, and patience throughout the study and making time when I needed within this thesis process. He was always eager to be informed about what I did and how I was proceeding and open whenever I run into trouble. I feel lucky to have such an advisor who has contributed much to both my present and future academic career.

Next, I really appreciate the support and encouragement of all my family who have always been there for me. I cannot thank them enough for their invaluable support and belief in me. I am very grateful to for providing me both emotional and material support during all my life.

I would like to express my special thanks to Bilal Kamburođlu, Eslem Turan for their assistance in scoring and analyzing the data for this thesis project. In addition, very special gratitude goes to Burak Kamburođlu for his encouragement in difficult times.

I would also like to thank my friends, Asiye Öztürk, Fatma Ünkür and Zehra Çoban and Hakan İkinci who helped me during my MA course period either in group works or just for my benefit after the courses finished.

Moreover, I would like to thank my dear students for studying in the preparatory school of Kocaeli University for their voluntary participation in this study.

I would also like to thank Assoc. Prof. Banu İnan Karagül, Assoc. Prof. Dođan Yüksel and Assoc. Prof. Sibel Kaya who contributed to my future career with their valuable field knowledge and also to many others who guided and encouraged me whenever I needed.

Last but not least, I would like to dedicate this thesis to memory of lovely my grandmother, Gülsüm Saraç, for her deep love, enoumous patience. I have always felt her propelling support.

Thanks for all.

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ÖZET

Bu yarı deneysel araştırmanın amacı, sekiz hafta süren görev destekli bir dil öğretiminde, EFL öğrencilerinin görev performanslarını, anadili İngilizce olan konuşurların üretken becerileri ile karşılaştırarak değerlendirmektir. Zaman içerisinde görev araştırmasının ekseni, görev tasarımıyla görev planlamasına doğru kaymıştır ve görev öncesi planlamaya İkinci Dil Eğitimi tarihi boyunca daha az değinilmiştir. Kocaeli Üniversitesi'ndeki hazırlık okulunda gerçekleştirilen bu çalışma, görev destekli dil sınıfı ortamında Sunum-Üretim-Uygulama modelinden sonra görev provası üzerine kurulmuştur. Sekiz hafta boyunca eposta ile yollanan yazılı ödevler ve Whatsapp uygulaması kullanılarak düzenlenen konuşma oturumları ile zengin veri incelemesi hedeflenmiştir. Sınıf-içi görev uygulamaları, ödev verilen görevlerin bir provası niteliğindedir. Öğrencilerin ve anadil konuşurların üretken becerileri, görev performansın boyutları olan çeşitlilik, doğruluk ve akılcılık boyutlarında ele alınmıştır ve bu üç boyutun üçer ölçütü seçilerek toplamda dokuz ölçüt çerçevesinde, pedagojik görev uygulamaları sonunda elde edilen İngilizce'yi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen öğrencilerin üretken performans sonuçları, bu çalışmanın amaçlarına ulaşılması için SPSS 21 yardımı ile anadil konuşucuların üretken beceri değerleri ile karşılaştırılmıştır. Bu çalışmanın sonuçları, görev destekli dil eğitiminin, görev performansının artırılmasında kısmen etkili olduğunu işaret etmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: görev destekli dil öğretimi, sunum-üretim-uygulama, görev performansı, görev planlama.

ABSTRACT

The aim of this quasi-experimental is to explore EFL students' task performances in a task-supported language teaching lasted eight weeks by comparing their productive skills with that of their native counterparts. Over time, the axis of task research shifted from task design to task planning, and pre-task planning has less touched upon throughout the history of Second Language Education; therefore, this study, which was conducted in the preparatory school at Kocaeli University, was set around on task rehearsal after the Presentation-Production-Practice model in a task-supported language classroom environment. Eight weeks of written task assignments sent via e-mail and speaking task sessions in Whatsapp application enabled rich data review. In-class tasks were a kind of rehearsal of the assignments given as homework. The learners' productive outcomes of task performance and native speakers' productive skill values were evaluated in accordance with task performance dimensions (complexity, accuracy, and fluency) and their measures. Three measures were selected for each task dimension. In order to achieve the goals of this study, the collected data was transferred to SPSS 21 to compare EFL learners' linguistic outcomes of task performance with native norms. The results of this study imply that task-supported language teaching can be partially effective in increasing task performance.

Keywords: task-supported language teaching, PPP, task performance, task planning.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ANOVA	: Analysis of Variance
CAF	: Complexity, Accuracy, Fluency
EFL	: English as a Foreign Language
GTM	: Grammar Translation Method
IH	: Interaction Hypothesis
KOU	: Kocaeli University
L1	: First Language
L2	: Second Language
NEFC	: Number of Error Free Clauses
SLA	: Second Language Acquisition
PPP	: Present-Practice-Produce
TBLT	: Task-based Language Teaching
TSLT	: Task-supported Language Teaching

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INTRODUCTION

This quasi-experimental study aimed to compare the dimensions of task performance in a task-supported language teaching setting. The study took place in the preparatory school at Kocaeli University. The dimensions of task performance are complexity, accuracy, and fluency (CAF). These dimensions have various measures; however, three measures for each dimension were chosen for this study, and these measures were the percentage of error-free clauses, target-like use of verb tenses, and target-like use of plurals for accuracy; frequency of use of conjunctions, frequency of use of prepositions, and proportion of lexical verbs to copula for complexity and mean length of pauses, the number of words per minute, and the number of repetitions for fluency.

The axis of task research has shifted from task design to task planning (Skehan, 2014). Rehearsal as a task planning has been less touched upon in the history of SLA; therefore, task rehearsal was put in use in-class tasks for eight weeks. After PPP model instruction, in-class pedagogical tasks were implemented, especially, the students were divided into the groups as collaboration in TSLT and TBLT lessons is highly recommended (Candlin, 1987). Pedagogical tasks served the practice part of PPP model of language instruction. Only instruction is not enough to make learning happen; learners are in need of some space to practice what they learn (Krashen, 1982). After in-class tasks, the participants were expected to send written assignments through e-mail and take part in WhatsApp speaking sessions. These assignments and speaking sessions formed the data of this study.

The data was collected via the participants' homework and to keep track of the improvement of the students participated in this study, the learners' linguistic outcomes were compared with native norms with the help of SPSS 21. To find the answers of the research questions, these tests were applied: The Pearson correlation test, independent sample t-Test, and One-way ANOVA. The findings of this study indicate that rehearsal as pre-task planning has a positive effect on the participants' task performance over eight weeks.

CHAPTER I

1.INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, an introduction to the research area is sustained with the need that emerged in the SLA methodology and the rationale that leads to the research questions. Accordingly, the purpose of the study with the research questions, the significance of the study, the overview of the methodology, assumptions, limitations and the definitions of the key concepts are presented in this chapter.

1.1. BACKGROUND STUDY

The historical issues and circumstances such as a large scale of immigration, internalization of education, globalization, global spread of English and the rise of internet pose an impetus for the emergence of the field of second language acquisition (SLA) and SLA methodology which have been subject to revolutionary changes that stemmed from the supporting disciplines of SLA such as linguistics, psychology and language teaching and these changes have showed themselves in the goals of language teaching policies and practices that mainly focus on effective language teaching. Hence, a brief background of language teaching methodology has witnessed various approaches and strategies throughout the SLA history and it gives indication to “the move toward oral proficiency rather than reading comprehension as the goal of language study” (Richards&Rogers, 2001); however, in the path of grasping the nature of second language learning to take a step further in term of effective teaching, researchers and practitioners have employed task as a research tool to elaborate SLA. In SLA study, tasks have been widely used “as vehicles to elicit language production, interaction, negotiation of meaning, processing of input and focus on form, all of which are believed to foster second language acquisition” (Van den Branden 2006, p.3).

In the heyday of TBLT, the noise of abundant applauses and the voice of criticism of TBLT have intertwined. Until recent times in the conspicuous absence of evidence to the contrary, SLA methodology’s mainstream theories have been superseded by new ones. Instead of pointing out a replacement of the traditional approaches, Swan (2005) indicates task-supported language teaching method which is a blend of the task construct and the legacy of old tried-and-true PPP model.

By the means of the tasks, the students are sustained with a “purpose” to use the target language (Lee, 2000, p. 30). In the path of promoting the meaning-focused and communicative nature of the tasks, Skehan (1996) endorses that tasks can be designed in a connection with the real world and it is surely beyond doubt that tasks have contribution to create a learning environment that often combines more than one skill in the same task (Willis, 1996). Rather than standing as a whole lesson program from the top to the bottom, TSLT can be integrated with the ongoing mainstream curriculum and scheduled when there is a need. It is likely that the TSLT can be a remedy especially for teachers who have to catch up an ongoing mainstream curriculum or weekly schedules and at the same time endeavor in the path of promoting students’ productive skills. Also, evaluation of these productive skills can be done in accordance with the dimensions of productive skills in a task which are distinguished by Skehan as complexity, accuracy, and fluency by drawing attention to different systems of language (1998). These three task dimensions have measures which stand for different aspects of language. Besides TBLT and TSLT, planning tasks have also caught the attention of the researchers so far. Planning is regarded as crucial as it plays a role of the merger between the task and learner’s access to L2 knowledge by helping learners to process the knowledge, pay attention selectively, and monitor. Furthermore, it can be decided which dimension of task will be addressed in the light of task planning. Theoretically, on the course of the planning the task, teachers have implementation variables such as pre-task planning and within task planning, both of which serve to learners’ needs.

All in all, the aim of this research is to reveal if TSLT as a method in ELT programs can be revisited by planning pre-task, designing tasks and applying them as an addition to the natural course of the lesson to improve students’ writing and speaking skills as well as the metacognitive awareness of students, which could then have a number of emerging effects on other skills and awareness as well.

1.2. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

As writing and speaking are the productive skills, they can be regarded as challenging to be improved upon for teachers and EFL students. This study examines the effectiveness of task-supported teaching and its dimensions on the improvement of students’ productive skills: writing and speaking. A quasi-experimental study was

conducted to investigate which dimension of task-supported language teaching stands out, if any does, in the students' writing and speaking tasks at Kocaeli University, School of Foreign Language (SFL) in the academic year of 2017-2018.

1.3. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions were posed to achieve the purposes of this study:

- 1) Is there a correlation between task accuracy and complexity across the eight weeks on students' written productive skills?
- 2) Is there a significant difference between the task performances in each of these three dimensions and their native-norm counterparts?
- 3) Is there a significant difference among complexity, accuracy, and fluency dimensions of the task performance of an EFL class trained through TSLT?

1.4. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The study addresses the paucity of research on Task- Supported Language Teaching and its dimensions in EFL writing and speaking skills. Task performance has been heavily studied; however, having a closer look at the previous studies, it can be said that task performance measures have been limited to only one or two. In this study, for each task dimension, three measures have been employed. Another, distinctive feature of this study is that it mainly dealt with what happened after task rather than during task; that is to say, task designing has been the focus of many studies rather than task performance; therefore, there is a need to draw attention to these fallacies. Although task-based language teaching has been the center of the investigation in EFL classrooms, little research has been conducted in task-supported language teaching and the dimensions of the task performance. Also, the field of SLA tends to show less interest in evaluating learners' writing and speaking together on the ground of task performance. Thus, it may provide general information and an additional tool for promoting students' productive skills for program planners at the university level.

Regarding "which" dimension of task-supported language teaching contributes more, the focus is placed on the improvement at the students' papers and WhatsApp voice recordings. At the local level, the study may contribute to the re-thinking and re-design of the syllabus by attributing more allocated time for productive skills.

Furthermore, this study might be regarded as a pilot study of a new approach in writing and speaking classes. Especially organizing WhatsApp sessions for speaking tasks after school aims to help the students realize that the primal goal of learning a language is of communicating. Therefore, this study aims to yield new perceptions of using technological devices for instructional benefits.

1.5 DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

The following terms are emphasized throughout this study:

Accuracy: The capacity to use language in line with the rule system of the target language.

Complexity: The capacity to use more complex, elaborated language and in this aspect, learner shows a tendency to take risk and enthusiasm to use more complex structures with the possibility to reconstruct their competence and interlanguage.

Fluency: The ability to avoid pause, hesitation error in speaking performance, put predominant emphasis on the meaning.

Task: Many researchers tend to describe tasks as activities that will be completed while using the target language communicatively by focusing on meaning to reach an intended outcome (Bygate, Skehan and Swain, 2001; Lee, 2000; Nunan, 1989; Prabhu, 1987; Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Skehan 1996).

Task-based language teaching: It can be described as follows: “An approach to language education in which students are given functional tasks that invite them focus primarily on meaning exchange and to use language for real-world, non-linguistic purposes” (Van den Branden, 2006, p. 11).

Task-supported language teaching: It can be defined as the blend of explicit instruction and functional task in language teaching setting.

Pre-task planning: Task planning is divided into two as pre-task planning and within task planning.

Rehearsal: Pre-task planning is divided into two and one of them is rehearsal.

Focused task: Tasks are designed to employ to elicit use of specific linguistic features and focus attention on form in the implementation of a task (Ellis, 2003).

Whatsapp voice record: It is a kind of communication application designed for the exchange of instant messages as well as videos, pictures, voice calls and voice recordings (Montag, 2015).

1.6. LIMITATIONS AND ASSUMPTIONS

This study had certain limitations and resulted from the length of the treatment and the selection of the group. The duration of treatment was short and limited to eight weeks since each module at the School of Foreign language at Kocaeli University lasted seven or eight weeks, thus there was only one experimental group which is an important limitation. The tasks were limited to preparatory students of EFL the School of Foreign Languages of Kocaeli University and the participants were only the preparatory students. Therefore, in this study the activities were merely applied to preparatory students of English and the results can only be valid for these students.

The students who were at the age of eighteen and over, took part in this study voluntarily. They were told that the homework they did after the school for eight weeks would not have an impact on their grades negatively. The researcher assumed that all thirty participating students strived to show their maximum performance without any cognitively or affectively hindering problem.

CHAPTER II

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the review of the related literature of the study is presented. Initially, the brief overview of major methods in language teaching in the history of SLA is presented. Then, more contemporary approaches in language classroom is introduced.

2.2. A BRIEF OVERVIEW OF MAJOR METHODS IN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

Inspired from the way Latin and Greek were taught, the grammar-translation method (GTM) emerged in Prussia at the end of the eighteenth century (Howatt, 2004). Its fundamental purpose of teaching a foreign language is to make learners competent to read literature in a foreign language. Hence for attaining this aim, the major necessity is the proficiency of grammatical structures which learners are expected to gain (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011), as Richards and Rodgers (1986) said,

“The type of grammar-translation courses remembered with distaste by thousands of school learners, for whom foreign language learning meant a tedious experience of memorizing endless lists of unusable grammar rules and vocabulary and attempting to produce perfect translations of stilted or literary prose” (p.3).

Before 1800, most of language learners were individual scholars focusing on grammar to improve their reading skills and using this knowledge to interpret texts; however, this scholastic method being common among well-educated learners did not go well with the capabilities of younger learners besides the fact that it was a self-study method rather than group-teaching in schools (Howatt, 2004).

Between the 1940s and the 1970s, behaviorism, as Vanpatten and Williams (2014) stated, predominantly deals with the acquisition of a new behavior with the help of several constructs such as imitation, reinforcement, positioning teaching such as structural and conditioning. It had a conspicuous success and impact on all kinds learning, including language learning (Lightbown&Spada, 2006). The reflection of behaviorist psychology to language teaching was the audio-lingual method in which

“language learning was seen as a process of habit formation and in which target language patterns were presented for memorization and learning through dialogue and drills” (Richards (2002, p:20). Brooks (1960) and Lado (1964), who advocated Behaviorism, made huge contributions in the development of the audio-lingual Method (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). Audio-lingual Method seized the attention because there was an intense need for language teaching in the US because of World War II; therefore, the audio-lingual method is also known as “The Army Method”. Teaching grammatical structures via practicing the drills after the presentation of them by the teacher was the core of this method (Richards&Rogers, 2001); however, when the matter was to produce novel sentences, the students failed by repeating their success that they achieved in the course of learning mechanical drills. (Griffiths, 2004).

As time goes by, language teaching has evolved into a system based on communicative approaches as former mainstream approaches were deemed inadequate to keep up with the time. Thus, they left their place to more contemporary approaches since a learner’s needs and the expectations from the learner are mutually extricable. As Pennington (2002) criticized that the dominant methods undoubtedly fail to meet the communicative needs of the modern world’s language student.

2.3. MORE CONTEMPORARY APPROACHES IN LANGUAGE CLASROOM

Linguistics has been guidance on language teaching thanks to being an authoritative discipline in the history of language teaching. Moreover, the primary concern of linguistics has been the structure of language for 50 years, without a surprise, the proficiency of structures of language has been the ultimate goal of language teaching (Spada, 2001) Audio-lingual method is one of the solid examples of the structural view of language teaching which heavily based on drills, repetition.

In the 1970s, the two factors triggered the changes in the language teaching profession. One of them was an external factor and can be related with the need of English language because of the increasing number of immigrants and worker, and it gave birth in changing the status of English in the world. That is to say, the distate stemming from the slow pace change of language teaching policies and practices and falling short to meet the need of the new status of English in Europe caused the review of language teaching methodology. The second one was internally initiated and

reflects the change in the understanding of language teaching (Richards & Rogers, 2001). In 1972, Hymes came up with the term communicative competence as a reaction to Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance and defined the term "a knowledge of the rules for understanding and producing both the referential and social meaning of language" (p.270). Communicative language teaching (CLT) in language instruction took root from the theory of functional theory which regards language as a means of communication. The aim of communicative language teaching is to foster what Hymes (1972) termed as communicative competence. Within the time, CLT has led to predominant changes in the means in which languages were taught.

In the 1980s, on the pursuit of shaping the understanding of CLT two fundamental areas of research showed themselves: The comprehensible input hypothesis (Krashen,1984) and the interactionist hypothesis (Long, 1983, 1996). As there have been various perceptions and conceptualizations of input with the emergence of new theories, it has been an elusive concept for researchers who have perused. Its roots can be traceable up until the behaviorist theory. Nevertheless, as being one of the basic features of the input theory by Krashen (1985, 1994) and interactional hypothesis (Long, 1983,1996), input assumed to possess a substantial impact on language learning and holds a stable position. While Krashen (1994) embraced the idea that one-way comprehensible input can meet the required need for SLA, in its initial version, interactionists foreground the position of input as a predominant data which serves opportunities to have experience via production and feedback and put emphasis on interactive input (Ellis & Fotos, 1991). Long (1981) gave a clear explanation of the two concepts input and interaction: "Input refers to the linguistic forms used; by interaction, the functions served by those forms, such as expansion, repetition, and clarification are meant" (p. 259). Ellis (1991) stated that Pica (1987) has conducted most empirical studies to extend the interactive hypothesis (IH) in one major way by attaching importance to the social relationship between the participants and the conditions in which the negotiation of meaning can take place. In the light of the empirical studies conducted by Pica (1987) and has been under continuous review, evaluation and alteration, IH was further developed by Long (1996) as follows;

“...it is proposed that environmental contributions to acquisition are mediated by selective and the learners’ developing L2 processing capacity, and that these resources are brought together most usefully, although not exclusively, during negotiation for meaning, Negative feedback obtained during negotiation work or elsewhere may be facilitative of L2 development, at least for vocabulary, morphology, and language-specific syntax, and essential for learning certain specifiable L1-L2 contrasts” (p. 414).

In the interaction hypothesis, the empirical studies conducted by Swain (1985) and by Hammerly (1987) in the immersion schools by Spada and Lightbown (1989) in an ESL program in Quebec have shown that the availability of comprehensible input does not guarantee a high level of proficiency in grammar. That is to say, these retrospective data come to conclude that the learners in such programs do not notice grammatical components in the input they are exposed to.

In the Noticing Hypothesis, Schmidt (1990) indicated that input is not conveyed into intake unless it is noticed in the language learning process. Similarly, Ellis (1991) pinpointed that “the process of acquiring an L2 involves three basic procedures: (1) noticing, (2) comparison and (3) integration.” Initially building on Krashen’s Input Hypothesis, (1985) Swain’s Output Hypothesis (1985) came to conclude that comprehensible input alone does not meet the needs of the students in terms of sociolinguistic and grammatical competence (Ellis, 2003).

2.3.1. From Mechanical Drills to Pedagogical Tasks

A cursory glance at the SLA history in terms of the language teaching methods and hypothesis reveals a plethora in the SLA theoretical foundations. Similarly, as stated by Griffiths and Parr (2001), over the years the history of SLA has witnessed many different methods and approaches to their own theoretical basis that comes and goes in and out of fashion (for instance the grammar-translation method, the audio-lingual method and the communicative approach). It would be probably fair to say that the field of teaching has showed a tendency to shift from dogmatic positions such as the drills which are the basic tenets of audio-lingual method, to tasks willing to recognize the potential merits of “any learning is an active process” (Rivers, 1983, p.134).

At the dawn of audio-lingual methods, the reactions against the restraints of the grammar-translation method sparked off and the urgent need of language speakers during World War II gave a chance for the audio-lingual method to seize the limelight and it became widespread among the linguists who were already in pursuit of an

alternative to grammar-translation method (Griffiths, 2004). By the end of the 60s, however, the drawbacks of audio-lingual method were a salient issue. As Hutchinson and Waters (1987) asserted, language learners did not act in accordance with Behaviourist expectations: They would like to translate things, require grammar rules and distaste endless drill repetition not leading to learning. That is to say, although different types of drills are available and common in the SLA classrooms, the practical transition from what has been learned in the classroom to the real-life communication fell short of expectations, it seemed to hinder more than to help. Although Chomsky's (1986) innate approach and audiolingualism seem to advocate different views in terms of language teaching, they tacitly do not disengage in one respect toward treatment of form on the course of second language instruction (Ellis, 2003).

In the 1980s, with the appearance of Communicative Language Teaching prioritizing the meaning and interaction by putting the learner center-stage, the goals and methods of language teaching has undergone major changes and these changes have manifested as fundamental changes in-class procedures; even from the nature of coursebooks to assessment and the procedures of teacher education (Skehan, 2014). As one of the interpretations of communicative approach, teaching has gathered around tasks since there was a dissatisfaction with dominant traditional approaches and the willingness to be in harmony with findings of research as to how second language acquisition takes place in instructed and naturalistic settings. The term "task" was coined, and the concept appeared (Long, 1985). The predominant language teaching methods of the post-war era were regarded as falling short in certain respects, 1) they were "form-oriented, teacher dominated classroom practice"; 2) they assumed the rapid transition of accumulated knowledge to the competence of communication (Van den Branden 2006, p: 3).

The vast scope of task in SLA research and pedagogy has been extensively in use. As Norris (2009) stated, tasks have potential to serve the four tenet concepts which are means to obtain language production: evoking interaction, negotiating the meaning, and processing the input to take further steps with regard to second language learning. Moreover, several studies of input and interaction hypothesis have employed the tasks as the focal point of their research, especially when they strived to detect which tasks had high potential to spark off negotiating the meaning presumed to develop language acquisition (Ellis, 2004). Though myriads of signals to the

pedagogical task of how a pedagogical task can be defined exist, the researchers have not reached a consensus on the issue. One of the definitions made by Richards (1986) is that a production at the end of a task is not an ultimate goal, so in that respect drawing a map during listening sessions; role-playing after receiving instructions by a teacher may be called as tasks, in this respect, the main aim of a task and a task performance is to create a more communicative language teaching context with the help of understanding or processing the language elicited by a teacher. This definition is likely to underscore the significance of getting a non-linguistic outcome. Considering other descriptions may enhance both theoretical and pedagogical insights of tasks, like the one offered by Breen (1987), a task is presumed to indicate a variety of work plan whose predominant aim is to create facilities for language learning ranging from the simple and short materials to more complicated authentic and long materials. This definition primarily implies the broad border of the task that almost anything that is done in classroom can be regarded as a task. To reach a more proper clarification as to how a task is defined, Willis and Willis (2001) states that any procedure which takes place in a classroom presents an opportunity to use the target language, in order to accomplish an outcome. A more detailed and commonly held description comes from Skehan (1998):

- Meaning is paramount.
- There is an aim that needed to be dealt with.
- The outcome of the activity is evaluated.
- There is a real-life bond.

Being in a similar line with Skehan (1996a), Richards and Rodgers (2001) argue that “Tasks are believed to foster a process of negotiation, modification, rephrasing, and experimentation that are at the heart of second language learning” (p. 228).

Table 1 The broader version of the definition of tasks with five core features was proposed by Ellis (2003; 120)

Goal	The general aim of the task
Input	The verbal or non-verbal information provided by teacher or task

Conditions	The means of how information is presented e.g. split vs shared information
Procedures	The methodological steps to be followed in implementing the task
Predicted Outcome: Product	The outcome that comes from achieving the task

Besides providing a clear basis of what a task is, it can be said that these features also provide a standardized description of different tasks and help in the recognition and categorization of different tasks (Ellis, 2003). The theoretical base of tasks has evolved through the time. The early focus of the tasks' research draws on maximizing interactional opportunities for learners and understanding the system of interlanguage with the help of the Interaction Hypothesis. The concept "focus on form" emerged (Long & Robinson 1998) and this proposes of communicational naturalness can be ignored when there is need, thus targeted communication conditions are created (Skehan, 2014). The different approach, showing a contradiction with the previous one to researching tasks, has emerged since the 1980s. This approach has mainly dealt with task performance and the processing. This change has included a move towards cognitive approach by putting emphasis on attention and working memory. The constructs required to evaluate a task shares the same components of L2 performance, suggested by Skehan (1998) who built on Output Hypothesis by Swain (1985). He divides three dimensions of production: "complexity, accuracy, and fluency" (Ellis 2003, 2008; Ellis&Barkhuizen 2005; Skehan 1998), regarded as major research variables; oral and written performance assessment descriptors of learners' underlying competence (Housen & Kuiken, 2009).

Table 2 Definitions of complexity, accuracy, and fluency (based on Skehan and Foster 1999: 96–97 and Ellis, 2009; 475)

Accuracy	The capacity to use language in line with the rule system of the target language
Complexity	The capacity to use more complex, elaborated language and in this aspect, learner shows a tendency to take risk and enthusiasm to use more complex structures with the possibility to reconstruct their competence and interlanguage
Fluency	The ability to avoid pause, hesitation error in speaking performance, put predominant emphasis on the meaning.

This bird’s eye view of the SLA history may shed light on the shift from the traditional view of second language to the contemporary perspective with more tangible goals: tasks with all its dimensions, that is to say both “a research instrument with its implications and a construct” has consolidated the bonds with SLA and language pedagogy (Ellis, 2003, p.21). This consolidation shows itself with two basic approaches whose theoretical foundations around the tasks: task-based language teaching and task-supported language teaching.

2.3.1.1. Task-Based Language Teaching

Motivated by the theory of learning, contrasting with the previous dominant traditional approaches to teaching such as Audio-lingualism, not being monolithic, entitled as “long-awaited elixir of language teaching” by Richards and Rogers (2001, p.34), and task based language teaching (or task-based language teaching) have thrusted into the limelight among researchers and teachers (Ellis, 2009; Richards& Rogers, 2001). Ellis (2009) posited Dewey’s (1913) perspective, which claimed that effective learning takes place only after ‘intelligent effort’, relevant experience, and Prabhu’s (1987) communicational language teaching project have played major roles on the development of TBLT. Richards (2005) indicated that TBLT is an “extension of the CLT movement, which takes different routes to achieve the goals of communicative language teaching – to develop learners’ communicative competence” (p.29). Skehan (1998) regards the traditional approach as conservative in which

teachers lean heavily on proactive syllabus-based teaching favoring teacher control, accountability, and emphasis on product, having lost touch with the recent language studies. Refusing any reciprocal or alternative approach is common among the proponents of TBLT regarding TBLT as “central planning tool of the syllabus” (Nunan 1991, p.24). Likewise, Ellis (2003) advocates the pedagogic utility of tasks by saying “the basis for an entire language curriculum” (p.30). TBLT has been well with actual practice of teaching and learning by taking a step further feeding from only the theoretical basis. Specifically, the implementation basis of TBLT has equipped teachers with the various convenience tasks in terms of both planning a lesson plan and forming a language program that fosters classroom interaction (Van den Branden 2006). Yule (1997) advocates tasks in which effective communication opportunities occur.

Tasks can be categorized as ‘unfocused’ or ‘focused’. While focused tasks are kinds of tasks designed to involve the use of some definite grammatical linguistic features and must meet the four criteria mentioned in Table 1, unfocused tasks are designed to facilitate the use of language communicatively in general terms (Ellis, 2003). Another distinction is well worth saying that there are two types tasks: “input-providing” and “output-prompting”; while the former one employs learner listening or reading, the latter one employs them with speaking or writing (Ellis, 2009).

There are three different approaches to TBLT: Long’s (1985), Skehan’s (1998a), and Ellis’ (2003). The primary differences between these three approaches would open a Pandora’s box of different implementations and interpretation of TBLT.

Table 3 A comparison of four approaches to TBLT (Ellis, 2003)

Characteristic	Long (1985; 1991; 2014)	Willis (1996)	Skehan (1998; 2001)	Ellis (2003)
Natural language use	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Type of task	Real-world production tasks	Real-world production tasks	Pedagogic production tasks	Both pedagogic and real-world input-based and production tasks.

Linguistic focus	Both unfocused and focused tasks	Primarily unfocused tasks	Only unfocused tasks	Both focused and unfocused tasks
Linguistic support	No	Yes	No	Possibly
Focus on form	In the main-task phase	In the pre-task and post-task phases but not in the main task phase	Mainly in the pre-task phase	In all phases of a lesson
Learner-centeredness	Yes	Yes	Yes	Not necessarily
Rejection of traditional approaches	Yes	Yes	Yes	No

As being a rather elusive approach, TBLT has been perused differently though they are united in a primal respect, such as they all accept the role of tasks in manipulating natural language use and focus on form despite the different extent and phase of directing student's attention to form during communication, they fall afoul of on the grounds of focused or unfocused tasks, the center of attention (Ellis, 2003). Long (1989) favors the TBLT, as engaging tasks triggers the productive forms of communication such as negotiation of meaning, confirmation checks, recasts, clarification requests. The umbrella term for all is 'Corrective Feedback' provided the learner, through TBLT, enables the learner to develop interlanguage through scaffolding (Skehan, 1998).

Task-based language teaching can be divided into three phases (the pre-task phase, the main task phase, and the post-task phase), although only the main task phase is not extricable from the lesson design. However, pre-task phase shows itself in task planning and it is worth mentioning that it has been caught the researchers' attention. Task planning is divided into *pre-task planning* and *within-task planning*, whose names give a clue what they are (Ellis, 2005). Rehearsal and strategic planning are implementation variables of pre-task planning while within-task planning is categorized as *pressured* or *unpressured* (Ellis, 2005). Theoretical background of task

planning in task-based research draw on the three constructs and these are attention and noticing, a limited working memory capacity and focus on form. Also, task implementation can undergo alteration as the whole class, in groups, in pairs, or by individually (Ellis, 2009).

With the dawn of TBLT, some of the SLA researchers and educators (Ellis, 2003; Fotos, 1998; Nunan, 1989; Prabhu, 1987; Robinson, 2001; Skehan, 1998; Willis, 1996) have advocated the benefits of TBLT on the basis of the empirical studies of its implementation. On the other hand, TBLT has been evoked a harsh criticism among the researchers; the foremost ones are Butler and Lino (2005), Carless (2004), Li (1998), Seedhouse (1999), Sheen (1994), Swan (2005), Widdowson (2003). Swan (2005) claims that TBLT does not meet what it offers on the grounds of theoretical rationale and empirical findings; hence, soundly continues to criticize TBLT in many respects: TBLT targets the learners who have already been familiar with or competent in the major structures of the language that only need left to improve complexity, accuracy, and fluency of their output. What is more, Willis (1996) and Ellis's (2002) suggestion that grammar can be omitted for beginners until intermediate level stands as an index of Swan's claim. In a similar vein, Widdowson (2003) states the belief underlying the traditional approach is that "competence is primary, and performance will emerge as a by-product." (p. 32) The TBLT belief is the reverse: "Get performance right and competence will, with some prompting, take care of itself" (p.128). However, competence and performance are mutually extricable; "neither follows straightforwardly" (Swan, 2005). Also, as Thornbury (1999) and Van den Branden (2006) argue, task-based materials are demanding for the beginners; that is to say, their language proficiency fails to satisfy the needs of task to achieve.

What is more, the core component of TBLT, 'focus-on-form' coined by Long (1991) states that the implicit instruction through task having potential to promote negotiation of meaning and incidental learning for the beginners has not been consolidated with the implications of the empirical studies in this area. Norris and Ortega's (2000) and Spada and Tomita's (2010) findings of meta-analyses stand as evidence that shows the effectiveness of explicit instruction has outweighed the implicit instruction and thus a traditional structural syllabus that has been under criticism because of the isolate instruction of the structures from communication needs to attract the attention of the researchers since s needs analysis reflects what a learner

needs to engage in the language (Swan, 2005). Despite communicative language teaching and its merits that have been centralized at the center of syllabus design and instructional goals (Littlewood, 2004; Nunan, 2004; Richards, 2005), there are alterations needed to modify TBLT in the different language settings.

Apart from several contextual factors that burgeoning empirical studies on the implementation of TBLT in classrooms has identified, being a “communication-centered”, “process-oriented approach”, TBLT may neglect the linguistic product (Swan, 2005; p. 389) that Kumaravadivelu (1998) puts it “methodology becomes the central tenet of task-based pedagogy, in that no attempt is made to specify what the learners will learn, only how they will learn” (cited in Ellis, 2003; p. 31). Under these harsh criticisms, the consolidation between tasks and syllabus comes to light as task-supported language teaching.

2.3.1.2. Task-Supported Language Teaching

Both TBLT and TSLT centralize a task implementation at the heart of the approach and both of them are in the pursuit of designing a syllabus around a task achievement; however, TBLT has faced immense criticism for not enabling a smooth transition from the findings of empirical studies to the implementation of TBLT in a language classroom context (Lai, 2015). Since TBLT’s inception, apart from the methodological rationale issues, the implementation of TBLT in various sociocultural language classroom has revealed various challenges both for teachers and learners (Lai & Li, 2012) including: inevitably discipline problems and “unwelcome” noise sparking off whenever task implementation takes a start (Bruton, 2005; Carless, 2007; Li, 1998; Littlewood, 2007); lack of confidence and language proficiency to engage and conduct communication tasks that stand a challenge for both teacher and learners (Li 1998, 2003; Jeon & Hahn 2007); excessive use of mother tongue to conduct communication activities (Carless, 2004; Littlewood, 2007); various language proficiency levels in the classroom (Mustafa, 2008); inadequate allocated time to design TBLT materials for teachers (Adams&Newton, 2009); even if learners are linguistically ready to tackle the challenges of TBLT, they prefer to take a step back about taking a risk because of the inhibition (Burrows, 2008). That is to say, the implementation of TBLT is demanding for the students and does not get on with the students’ the affective filters.

In TBLT context, language introduction is operated under the assumption that the learner can infer the grammatical structure on the course task implementation; however, from the learner perspective according to the researchers, this situation poses some problems that learners seek orderly, explicit grammar introduction before language production (Lai, Zhao&Wang 2011; Loewen et al. 2009; Schulz 2001). However, learners give preference to the manner of grammar introduction embedded in a meaningful context (Ellis 2009; Long 2006; Willis 1996). Hence, learner's dispositional demand, in terms of explicit language instruction is odd at the nature of TBLT (Lai, et al., 2011; Lopes 2004; McDonough and Chaikitmongkol 2007) and Sheen (2003) urges that in TBLT "there is no grammar syllabus" and the treatment of grammar is handled with corrective feedback in an ongoing communicational activity (p.226) and in the same line, Swan claims that TBLT "outlaws" the grammar syllabus (Ellis 2004, Shafipoor & Latif, 2005).

Blending task construct with the mainstream pedagogy, Swan (2005) came up with a new alternative approach to TBLT called task-supported language teaching (TSLT), expecting to compensate dissatisfying aspects of TBLT in SLA pedagogy. Since the history of language teaching methods study has witnessed a permanent change in improving effectiveness of language teaching and in the meanwhile the mainstream methods were superseded by the newer ones. Some of them did not meet the expectations and are depicted "failure", however, since the 1990s researchers and teachers have gathered around the belief that the newer approaches should not be regarded as better than the mainstream approaches and understanding of language learning nature should be the core of teaching independently of the methods (Richards&Rogers, 2001). In a similar vein, Swan (2005) claims that rather than replacing traditional approaches with TBLT, enhancing the effectiveness of teaching contexts with tasks can be diversified in accordance with the needs of instruction, and not letting the flow of instruction confine limited activities seems fairly obviously one of the best strategies. Unlike TBLT that necessitates an instructional program including a syllabus with mainly unfocused tasks, TSLT employs typical and traditional PPP (present-practice-product) models with the final phase teaming up with tasks (Ellis, 2009).

Contrary to the common belief, audio-lingual method is not the one which constitutes a base for present, practice, produce model (PPP). As its name refers, it is

a “prescriptive framework” for language lessons (Anderson, 2016 p.2). PPP first emerged in the mid-1970s, and its UK-based origins have links to the early development of communicative language teaching (CLT) (Howatt,2004). It is still widely in use and preferred by teachers as Widdowson (2003) suggested that PPP “has endured because teachers genuinely believed in it and found some basis of their belief in their classroom experience” (p.131). PPP model has been appealing in the history of SLA because of a number of reasons such as its simplicity, its compatibility with other methods.

2.3.1.3. Task Planning and Task Performance

With the representation of communicative language teaching, there were major shifts in goals and methods of language teaching giving much importance to active language use and prioritizing meaning. Language teaching tasks as one interpretation of this change has emerged and attracted to empirical and theoretical interest (Skehan, 2014). Interestingly, task has not stuck in only one theoretical base; on the contrary, it feeds itself with different and various theoretical linkages.

Early approaches to task were powered by the interaction hypothesis (Long, 1985) and the initial priority was to maximize interactional opportunities within tasks with the help of recasting and negotiating meaning. The ultimate goal was to grasp the nature of interlanguage development and a good task design could be a basis to attain to this goal, however, the contrasting approach has come to the stage by putting interaction processes in second place and the initial priority was to manipulate task performance (CAF measures) and to do this, pedagogic interventions; that is to say, planning was getting attention from the researchers (Crookes, 1989; Ellis&Yuan, 2004; Ellis, 2009; Kawauchi, 2005; Mehnert, 1998; Ortega, 1999; Skehan & Foster, 2005; Skehan & Foster, 1997; Wigglesworth, 1997). With a doubt, it is clear that the general framework of task has undergone some changes which the analysis of task performance gains importance rather than designing tasks. There has been a move towards gaining an understanding of working memory, long-term memory and attention; therefore, cognitive approach has been a major focus of the research. At this point, two competing approaches have emerged: Tradeoff Hypothesis (Skehan, 1998) and Cognition Approach (Robinson, 2001, 2011). The primary claim of the Tradeoff hypothesis is limited attention capacity coming from learners’ disposal and is

consumed by demanding tasks that cannot be divided into task performance variables: complexity, accuracy, and fluency (Skehan, 2014). On the other hand, Cognition Approach is opposed to limited attention capacity whose access is multiple and do not compete with each other when a learner deals with a demanding task.

Since the late 1980s, the axis of the research has shifted from task design to task performance and with this change, analysis of task performance itself becomes important. Therefore, task planning has been a conspicuous scope for empirical studies so far with its strong theoretical basis and a set of constructs that has managed to not be a fad as it has pedagogical relevance (Skehan, 2014). All utterances and written language use include planning and can show itself at any level of language use (Ellis, 2005). As Table 3 presents, types of planning are pre-task planning and within-task planning.

Table 4 Types of task-based planning

Planning	
<u>Pre-task planning</u>	<u>Within-task planning</u>
1.Rehearsal	1.Pressured
2.Strategic planning	2.Unpressured

Theoretical base of task-based planning takes its roots from three theories. These theories are Tarone’s theory of stylistic variation, models of speech production and writing and Cognitive models of task-based performance and learning; however, the first theory seems a weak one among the other two because of the lack of explanatory power. The second model is mainly interested in Levelt’s (1989) models of speech production and in Levelt’s (1989) model, there are three stages: 1) conceptualizing the message, 2) formulating the language representation and articulating the message (cited in Ellis, 2005, p.11). This model mainly deals with actual production and in this sense, rehearsal may help learners attend to these components of Levelt’s (1989) model. Furthermore, the third model, Skehan’s (1998) cognitive approach draws on the differentiation between exemplar-based system, and a rule-based system (p.269).

2.4. CONCLUSION

The blend of task and PPP model instruction are becoming appealing to both instructors and researchers. A well calculated PPP can invalidate the problem which stems from ignorance or badly prepared production phase (Willis, 1996). At the production phase of PPP, tasks playing crucial role in learning processes can be employed and with the help of task planning, EFL learners' learning opportunities which are limited outside school (Nunan, 1989), can be enhanced.



CHAPTER III

3. METHODOLOGY

To have a general view of task performance research conducted so far, there is a need to set a clear scene. Recently, a growing body of research has focused on the task performance, especially planning rather designing. Among retrospective studies of the task planning preferences, rehearsal has been less touched. Therefore, this study was designed to compare the dimensions of task performance of task supported language teaching on elementary level EFL learners' learning of English by employing rehearsal as a pre-task planning in a state university in Kocaeli, Turkey. This chapter discusses the methodology used for this study and is divided into five main sections: research questions, participants and setting, instruments, procedure, and data analysis.

3.1. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This eight-week study aims to reveal firstly if there was a correlation between accuracy and complexity as they are writing task performance dimensions. Secondly, this study stands to find out whether the implementation of TSLT created a significant difference in the task dimensions (complexity, accuracy, fluency) in an EFL class. Moreover, the third goal is to investigate if there was any significant difference between a TSLT class and their native counterparts in terms of task performance. For these purposes, the present study will try to answer the following research questions:

- 1) Is there a significant correlation between task accuracy and the complexity across the eight weeks on students' written productive skill?
- 2) Is there a significant difference between the task performances in each of these three dimensions and their native-norm counterparts?
- 3) Is there a significant difference among the complexity, accuracy, and fluency dimensions of the task performance of an EFL class trained through TSLT?

3.2. PARTICIPANTS AND SETTING

The study was carried out in one of the public universities located in the west of Turkey called Kocaeli University (KOU), in the School of Foreign Languages (KOU SLF) in the fall term of the 2017-2018 academic year. There are two main departments in the KOU SLF, as the Department of Modern Languages and the Department of Basic English. The Department of Modern Languages is in charge of instructing vocational and basic-level English in the different departments of the Kocaeli University; on the other hand, the goal of the Department of Basic English is to equip students with necessary language skills before starting to follow a four-year program with 30% English-medium instruction. With the onset of the academic year, a proficiency test is implemented for all incoming students. Depending on the score they get, they have the right to start studying at their own departments provided that their grades are 65 or above out of 100 on the proficiency test. If their scores are under 65 out of 100, students are expected to take compulsory intensive language education for one academic year in the Department of Basic English. KOU SLF basic English department categorizes the learners who cannot achieve this score into two main classes, A and B, with respect to the results of the proficiency test. Beginner level learners are placed in A classes and Elementary level learners are placed in B classes. At KOU SLF, one academic year comprises of two terms, four-modules in total. Each module lasts eight weeks and at the end of each module, all students in both levels are expected to take part in proficiency exam to pass upper module which serves an evidence for the instructors to see if the students take steps in developing necessary language skills. If they do not score 65 or above out of 100 at the end of the module proficiency exam, they are required to take the same module again. Students are expected to take part in classes twenty-five hours per week at all levels. During the eight weeks of English instruction, students take the course's book-based lessons, reading, and listening lessons. At the end of the first term of the academic year, all levels are expected to have completed an intermediate level main course book in order to take the final exam.

Participants of this study were thirty students from a random intact elementary level class out of nine elementary classes. The students were within the age range of 18 to 25 and their age average is 19. Nineteen of these students were male and eleven

of them were female. Their departments were environmental engineering, civil engineering, mechanical engineering, business administration, economics, and public administration. The students were explained the aim, the length of the study and the procedure. Considering that this practice would be contributing to their English language performance, all students accepted to take a part in this study voluntarily. The treatment was implemented in one group and as keeping trace of their improvement through the treatment.

3.3. DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

Data for the purpose of this study was collected through two instruments: the students' emailed writing homework and WhatsApp voice recordings. The tasks performed in the classrooms, in accordance with the subject in the coursebook, became writing and speaking captions with the specific language goals for each week.

Even though the research questions in this study were carefully dealt with, there is always risk conducting a research due to validity issues. On the course of designing tasks, three non-native instructors at the same school and a lecturer who has a PhD degree in TEFL contributed to task planning for the content validity.

3.3.1. In-class Tasks as Rehearsal and Writing Tasks

The target grammar structures in the course book (Speakout Elementary Student's book, 2015) were planned to be taught during the period of the study in the module, to be consistent with the current curriculum. The target grammar structures were the simple present tense, countable and uncountable nouns, the past simple, future tenses, modals (should/ should not), comparatives and superlatives. In the course book, the target grammar points were presented as mini-grammar sections, including a language bank for each grammar structure at the end of the course book. Besides these, for each unit, several communicative tasks which were in harmony with the grammar structures were designed and implemented in the class for eight weeks as a necessity of TSLT. The pedagogical tasks are identified, classified and sequenced in accordance with the pedagogical objectives that have been formulated and the subject related with the coursebook to complementing each other. And the task performed at the school as a pre-task, has two parts: rehearsal and strategic planning. Rehearsal is an indispensable component on the path of implementing a task as Ellis (2005) clearly

stated that “Rehearsal entails providing learners with an opportunity to perform the task before the ‘main performance’. In other words, it involves task repetition with the first performance of the task viewed as a preparation for a subsequent performance” (p.3). Bygate (1996) found out that focusing on the target language in different occasions makes second performance manifest significantly in terms of fluency and complexity. Last but not least, Bygate and Samuda (2005) concluded that as a beneficial pedagogic procedure, rehearsal yields the facilities to develop L2 discourse skills and offers the learners an opportunity to integrate and manifest their linguistic resources that is special to only rehearsal among planning types.

In order to investigate the research questions, the students were expected to write a paragraph that is a parallel version of the pedagogical task implemented in the class, which consisted of that week’s grammar structures at home for eight weeks. That is to say, the pedagogical task in the classroom become writing caption. Thus, the tasks students perform in the classroom are formulated to use the language both inside and outside the class.

The subjects in the curriculum were presented in accordance with PPP design and a pedagogical task as a pre-task activity and were implemented in the classroom in the light of TSLT in the classroom. Every Friday for eight weeks, a writing task related to the subject of the week was assigned.

3.3.2. WhatsApp Voice Recorded Speaking Task

To obtain data, tasks were used for different purposes in this study. For fluency dimension of task, real life -like situations were used in WhatsApp Speaking tasks. This may be consistent to what Skehan (1996) stated that one of the goals of language instruction is to create real life- like situations at an adequate degree of speech rate without disturbing pauses in TBLT (Skehan, 1996). During the treatment, a Whatsapp group was created and added the thirty students by the teacher. The students were expected to be online at a pouted time every Friday across the eight weeks. The teacher sent the topic and gave the allocated time (about 2-3 minutes) to organize their thoughts about the topic and they were expected to record their talk and send to this group.

3.4. PROCEDURE

For the research treatment, a quasi-experimental research design, including both qualitative and quantitative data, was utilized in the present study. The treatment is based on exploring EFL students' writing and speaking performance in light of the dimension of TSLT setting. This EFL group started the academic year in A2 at the beginning of the first module in the first semester and the treatment was applied in this period. Thirty A2 level preparatory students in Kocaeli University were explained the aim, procedure and possible outcomes in the first module in the first half of the Fall in 2017-2018 academic year. This study lasted seventeen hours in each week (eight weeks) and included 12 units from their coursebook. Each week, as an implication of TSLT, a pedagogical task was implemented in the classroom after the PPP model was applied. Besides this duration, the rest of the procedure can be classified in two stages. First stage is that the students were expected to write about that week's topic as homework as a pre-task activity and send their homework via e-mail before the due. The second stage is WhatsApp speaking sessions after school once a week.

All tasks were designed by the researcher in light of the current curriculum. The whole module (8 weeks) was an ongoing treatment period. The beginning of the weekdays was the PPP method of treatment while the end of the weekdays were task-supported courses; however, by the end of the pre-tasks, the students were given writing tasks as homework to be submitted via e-mails. At the end of the module, they had sent eight emails as homework and had taken part in eight WhatsApp speaking sessions.

Table 5 An Overall View of Planning of Pre-task Task and Task Agenda

Tasks and Task types - Dates	Planning of pre-task	The predicted outcome of the tasks
Task 1 14.09.2017 Information gap (Candlin,1987)	A task is designed for generating meaningful conversation between students. Guided worksheets are dispersed, and the learners are paired randomly. Students are expected to guess their pairs' daily routines from Monday to Friday. After then, the students read the statements to their pairs to justify their guesses. If their guess is right, they would	To introduce oneself

	put a tick, if it is wrong, they search for the information by asking questions to their partners.	
Task 2 21.09.2017 Grading input (Nunan,1989)	The learners are divided into groups of four and the teacher writes the beginning of a story: “There is an old lady and she lives in a cottage in the forest with her granddaughter.” Student A, B, C; D are expected to describe, in sequence the old lady, the granddaughter, the cottage, the forest and beyond.	To write about your best friend
Task 3 29.09.2017 Information gap (Willis, 1996)	Each student in pairs is given 2 maps. As it is an information gap activity, one has the information that the other one does not have. Student A asks student B for a direction and the other student gives the directions. According to the given directions, St. A finds the place on his/her map.	To talk about your favourite city/ place
Task 4 05.10.2017 Problem-Solving (Lee, 2000)	Learners are given a short tale, jumbled and lacking the ending. Then in pairs the parts of the incomplete story are given to the students randomly and they are expected to reorder them and create an ending for it.	To tell your best day
Task 5 12.10.2017 Real world (Nunan, 1989)	The learners are paired to create a leaflet of their hometown to welcome incoming tourist groups as a guide.	To write about your hometown
Task 6 19.10.2017 Role- Playing Candlin, 1987)	A task is designed for role playing and the learners in a group of four are expected to plan a holiday as a member of the same family. The learners, as members of a family have different ideas and try to convince each other by referring to their previous holidays.	To write about your best/ worst journey
Task 7 26.10.2017 Real world (Nunan, 1989)	The learners work in small group and tell each other everything they ate and drank yesterday and decide who has the healthiest and unhealthiest diet. All groups are expected to create a healthy recipe all together.	To tell a recipe to your friend for his/her guest
Task 8 02.11.2017 Real world (Nunan, 1989)	For this task, the teacher will need to prepare in advance a number of cards that will show the students (1) the name of the city, (2) the budget for a day. The students will work in groups of four and have 5 five minutes to organize their days for these cities.	For the organization of one day tour for university students, to prepare a leaflet by mentioning the activities with a limited budget.

All tasks shown in Table 5 and 6 were designed by the researcher in the light of the current curriculum. The whole module (8 weeks) was an ongoing treatment period. The beginning of the weekdays was PPP method of treatment while the end of the weekdays were task-based courses; however, by the end of the tasks, the students were given writing tasks as homework to be submitted via e-mails. And concurrently, they were expected to take part in WhatsApp speaking sessions at a given time for each week. At the end of the module, they had sent eight emails as homework and taken part in eight speaking sessions

Table 6 Speaking Tasks Agenda

Task 1 15.09.2017	Question Circle (Each student is expected to ask questions about age, hometown, department, hobbies, accommodation) by addressing one of their students in the WhatsApp group.) This task serves also ice-breaker.
Task 2 22.09.2017	Question Circle (Each student is expected to ask questions about daily routines by addressing one of the students in the WhatsApp group.)
Task 3 30.09.2017	To talk about items, we use every day demonstrated on a worksheet. (There is a handbag and there are lots of items depicted it)
Task 4 6.10.2017	To talk about a situation depicted in the image. (A group of people had a traffic accident in a desert while they were on a safari)
Task 5 13.10.2017	To talk about your favorite film
Task 6 20.10.2017	To make sentences by using the prompt sent by the teacher (This prompt comprises of a set of half sentences.)
Task 7 27.10.2017	To retell a story (A set of pictures was sent by the teacher)
Task 8 3.11.2017	Question Circle (Each student is expected to ask questions about bad/ perfect day by addressing to one of their students in the WhatsApp group.)

The pedagogical tasks of both writing and speaking picked for in-class implementation were almost simulations of real-world tasks that were achieved through role-plays and preparing a leaflet. In speaking tasks, the students who were

assigned to improvise small talks were purposeful and authentic since these situations that they negotiated real life-like. The students were linguistically ready for negotiating and improvising the focused tasks and the topics were appropriate to students' age and culture. Tacitly, these pedagogical tasks may be consistent to what Skehan (1989) asserted, that one of the key characteristics of a task is that there is some sort of relationship to comparable real-world activities.

All writing and speaking tasks implemented in the classroom had products, namely two predicted outcomes that one was assigned in the classroom, the second one was take-home assignments. The table 4 and 5 above provide detailed information about the pedagogical task implemented during the treatment. The more detailed version of the lesson plans is in Appendix A. For the sake of the paper economy of the thesis, the data samples gathered from two hundred and sixty emails sent by the total of thirty students', is in Appendix B.

3.5. DATA ANALYSIS

Until Skehan (1996), who has identified three measures of task dimension complexity, accuracy, and fluency on the ground of his theoretical claims, researchers used the measures that are heavily based on intuitively chosen or data driven to evaluate the learner's production (e.g. Berwick 1990; Brown 1991; Newton&Kennedy 1996; Tong-Fredericks 1984 cited Ellis 2003, p.116). The studies conducted by various researchers (In this study, the tasks employed for eight (8) weeks were scrutinized in the light of the measures defined by Skehan (1996). These measures are shown in Table 5. The data compiled by the papers of the thirty (30) students for eight (8) weeks were statistically analyzed through SPSS 21 (Statistical Package of Social Sciences) by employing the Pearson correlation Test, the paired-samples t-Test, and One-Way ANOVA.

Table 7 A classification of production variables used in task-based research

Dimension	Measures
1. Fluency	Number of words per minute Number of syllables per minute Number of pauses of one/two second(s) or longer

	Mean length of pauses
	Number of repetitions
	Number of false starts
	Number of reformulations
	Length of run
	Number of words per turn
2. Accuracy	Number of self-corrections
	Percentage of error-free clauses
	Target- like use of verb tenses
	Target-like use of articles
	Target- like use of vocabulary
	Target- like use of plurals
	Target- like use of negation
	Ratio of indefinite to definite articles
3. Complexity	Number of turns per minute
	Anaphoric reference
	Lexical richness
	Proportion of lexical verbs to copula
	Percentage of words functioning as lexical verbs
	Percentage of occurrence of multi-propositional utterances
	Amount of subordination
	Frequency of use of conjunctions
	Frequency of use of prepositions
	Frequency of hypothesizing statements

In this study, for their practicality and applicability of this quasi-experimental research in the target population, for accuracy of the number of error-free clauses; the target like use of tenses and target like use of plurals; for complexity, frequency of use of prepositions, frequency of use of conjunctions, proportion of lexical verbs to copula; for frequency number of words per minute, mean length of pauses, number of reformulations are picked from the production variables. The measures used in this

study are shown in the Table 8. Therefore, it can be said that reliability of the dimensions of task takes strength from these three different measures.

Table 8 The dimensions with the measures

Complexity	Accuracy	Fluency
Frequency of use of conjunctions	The percentage of error-free clauses	Mean length of pauses
Frequency of use of prepositions	Target-like use of verb tenses	The number of words per minute
Proportion of lexical verbs to copula	Target-like use of plurals	The number of repetitions

Task performance data will be measured with respect to students', complexity and fluency and their measures are shown in Table 8.

The data compiled by the papers of the thirty (30) students for eight (8) weeks were statistically analyzed through SPSS 21 (Statistical Package of Social Sciences) by employing the Paired-Samples t-Test and One-Way ANOVA.

3.5.1. The Analysis of the EFL Learners' Task Performance

As specific measures for each task performance variables have greater construct validity (Skehan, 2014), specific measures were chosen for each task performance variables in this study. Task performance, characteristics and task conditions have been the major focus of most studies; however, similar studies with different results due to the nature of the tasks were found; for instance, Bygate (1996) came up with the results that speech fluency and complexity in a repetition of the task increased; Lynch and McLean (2000) found that task rehearsal worked well on the grounds of the learners' accuracy and fluency; De Jong and Perfetti (2011) revealed with their study that repetition (a kind of rehearsal) of the task enhanced the learners' fluency. In this study, the results gained from the comparison with the native norms is the main issue. In this sense, in this study it was attempted to obtain the best results when looking for native norms comparison; therefore, pre-task planning gained weight.

On the path of the attempts to find answers to research questions stated in the beginning of this chapter, the analysis steps of data collected from the EFL learners' essays will clearly be presented.

3.5.1.1. The Analysis of Complexity

As Skehan (1995) states, complexity takes its strength from a rule-based system and in this way, demands syntactic processing. In this study, the frequency of use of conjunctions, the frequency of use of prepositions, and proportion of lexical verbs to copula are the chosen measures for complexity.

According to the studies, the use of conjunctions can create a dilemma for EFL learners because of its wide range of variety (Chan, 2004). Without a doubt, the task resulting in greater lexical complexity as well as greater accuracy and fluency has attended its pedagogical goal. In this study, to reach the results of frequency of conjunctions, there was the number of conjunctions divided by the total number of words in the writing tasks.

As some essential features of English language syntax differ rigidly from the other languages, EFL students find prepositions as a challenging feature of English (Lynch, 2010). Because of the lack of specific rules in their usage, EFL students regard as preposition hard to grasp. Hermet and Desilets (2009) state that wrong preposition choice formed 17.2 percent of all errors. As prepositions are basic features of English language and the frequency of use of preposition contributes to complexity of the task, it was chosen as a second measure. The number of prepositions were divided by the total number of words in the writing tasks and this procedure was applied to the thirty learners' writing for eight weeks.

The proportion of lexical verbs to copula is the third measure for the complexity. On the ground of the characterization, lexical verbs constitute an open class of words and stands for rich semantic content, on the other hand, copula verbs are comparatively a small and closed set of grammatical structures. In this study, to reach the result of this measure, the number of copula verbs were divided by the total number of words in the students' writing tasks. And this procedure was applied to thirty learners' writing for eight weeks.

As a result of these procedures, the averages of proper use of copula verbs and lexical verbs were calculated for each thirty students for for eight weeks and the

average of these three measures for eight weeks stood for complexity rate in this study and is ready to be operationalized for SPSS 21.

3.5.1.2. The Analysis of Accuracy

In this study, accuracy was measured by the number of error-free clauses (NEFC); the target like use of tenses, and target like use of plurals.

Error-free clauses have been preliminary the preference of the researchers conducting research over linguistic accuracy (e.g., Ashwell, 2000; Ellis, 2005; Ferris, 1995; Ferris & Hedgcock 1998; Lalande 1982; Robb, Ross, & Shortreed, 1986). Within the time, NEFC has become a plain epitome symbol over linguistic accuracy. In this study, any kind of errors relating to syntax, morphology and also lexical choice were taken in consideration. Target-like use of tenses is the second measure for accuracy. The proportion of accurate use of verbs in terms of tenses and the proper use of tenses in terms of the context were considered. Target like use of plurals is the third measure for accuracy. Leech (2002) asserts that even though there are some irregular nouns and those borrowed from other languages, most of the nouns in English are primarily converted into plural by adding the suffixes -s, -es and -ies. Mauranen (2012) states, non-native speakers of English show a tendency to use the suffix -s improperly. That is to say, they are likely either to forget to add the plural suffix to a noun or to add -s to irregular nouns even in academic contexts.

Consequently, in this study, firstly the percentage number of proper use of plurals was calculated. These data were in use for the independent sample t-Test. After that, the average of the proper use of measures was calculated for each thirty students for eight weeks. The average of these three measures for eight weeks stood for accuracy rate in this study and is ready to be operationalized for SPSS.

3.5.1.3. The Analysis of Fluency

The fluency data collected by WhatsApp speaking sessions were operationalized in accordance with these measurements: mean length of pauses, the number of words per minute and the number of repetitions. These three measurements were chosen since they are regarded as basic units that need to be studied in the first place.

Hesitation on the course of speaking can show itself as a pause; however, every pause does not stem from hesitation. Pausing is a distinctive feature of lower proficiency learners (Park, 2016). In this study, any silence or filled pause longer than 0.25 seconds was categorized as pauses during utterances and the mean length of pauses divided into the total length of the speaker. This procedure was applied to thirty speakers' talk individually for four speaking sessions.

The number of words per minutes measure is the second one for fluency. The number of words per minute positively correlates with proficiency and this was proven by Esser (1995). The number of words uttered by the learners was divided by the total minutes of talks and this procedure was applied to the thirty speakers' talk individually for four speaking sessions.

The number of repetitions is the third measure of fluency chosen for this study. Learners use hesitations by repeating to earn processing time (Bygate 1996; Foster & Skehan 1996; Ortega 1995; Skehan & Foster 1999). A study conducted by Kawauchi (2005) found out that the students with higher proficiency level use more words per minute and less repetitions during the task performance than the low proficiency level students. The number of repeated words was divided by the total number of words the students used during the talk and this procedure was applied to the thirty speakers' talk individually for four speaking sessions.

To sum up, the same procedure applied to accuracy and complexity to reach an average standing for them was also repeated for fluency in this study and the average is ready to be operationalized for SPSS 21.

3.5.2. Data Analysis of Overall Mean Score

At the end of the eight weeks, there were nine mean scores of nine measures belonging three dimensions and furthermore the average of each three measures constituted a mean score of each of three dimensions ;that is to say, at the end of the study, there were three frequencies belonging to three dimensions but a Pandora's box of problems showed itself there since the raw form of these averages were not equal in terms of the percentage because of the linguistic elements of English language studied in this study. For instance, while the number of words per minute per student is 80 percent, the frequency of use of plurals per student was 6 %. So, by the help of

the mathematical comparison of these three frequencies with the native norms, only one score for each dimension was managed to gain.

3.5.3. Data Analysis of the Corpus of Native Speakers

The corpus LOCNESS consisting a native English speakers' essays at different levels was applied to stand as a base of norm in this study. The thirty essays were chosen according to their age and levels. The essays chosen for this study were in similar length and had similar subjects with the essays produced by the EFL students taking part in this study. These essays were scrutinized under the light of the two dimensions (accuracy and complexity) of task performance and six measures belonging to these two dimensions.

The Backbone Corpus consisting of the native speakers' spoken discourses employed for the fluency dimension of task performance to be a base of norm in this study. The three measures chosen for the EFL students' talks in this study were applied to native speakers' talks with the same manner of the process held for the EFL students' talk evaluation.

3.6. SUMMARY

This chapter aimed to present detailed information about the aim of study, the research design, data collection instruments, settings and samples and data analysis. The next chapter will shed light on the results of data analysis by providing detailed information.

CHAPTER IV

4. RESULTS

Based on the purposes of the research and its questions, this chapter presents the results of the experimental phase of the study. The data analysis will assuredly cover quantitative data collected. In order to see if there is a meaningful correlation between two dimensions of task, accuracy and complexity on students' written productive skill across the eight weeks, a detailed chart displaying six (6) measures belonging to accuracy and complexity will enable the answer of the first question besides the results of the Pearson Correlation test operationized through SPSS 21.

To be able to answer the second question, which asked whether there is a significant difference among the fluency, accuracy, and complexity dimensions of the task performance of an EFL class trained through TSLT, the data collected by analyzing the thirty students' productive skills performance for eight weeks individually were analyzed through independent samples t-Test (SPSS 21).

Moreover, comparison of native speaker equivalents of each three measures standing for three dimensions of task performance administered a content analysis to answer the third research question with the help of One-Way ANOVA.

4.1. FINDINGS TO RESEARCH QUESTION 1

The first question is whether there is a correlation between accuracy and complexity across the eight weeks on students' written productive skill. In order to make a number of comparisons, each six (6) measures belonging to these two dimensions for eight weeks were examined.

4.1.1. Results related to Task Dimensions: Accuracy and Complexity

This part will provide tables displaying developmental fluctuations of students on the grounds of complexity and accuracy across the eight weeks. To put it plainly, Table 9 and 10 presents the numerical data of accuracy and complexity week by week.

Table 9 The accuracy averages of three measures across the eight weeks

	The Number of Error-free Clauses			The Target-like Use of Tenses			The Target use of Plurals		
	Total Clauses	Error free clauses	%	Total Clauses	Proper use	%	Total Plurals	Proper Use	%
W1	423	222	52.48	423	207	48.94	257	205	79.77
W2	639	297	46.48	639	265	41.47	92	81	88.04
W3	559	261	46.69	559	249	44.54	174	162	93.10
W4	441	235	53.29	441	226	51.25	137	117	85.40
W5	510	236	46.27	510	255	50.00	288	250	86.81
W6	810	473	58.40	810	458	56.54	248	217	87.50
W7	689	477	69.23	689	462	67.05	271	215	79.34
W8	677	421	62.19	677	387	57.16	338	258	76.33
Total	4748	2622	55.22	4748	2509	52.84	1805	1505	83.37

Data evaluation for the first measure is the number of error-free clauses, and there is a steady progress which can be observed from the first week to the eighth week. Besides the fact that the number of sentences used by the students increased at 37.5 per cent in the total sum, the number of error free clauses increased regularly, especially during the last three weeks. Likewise, in the first measure, there is a steady progress shown by the EFL students. In both measure, there is a higher positive increase that likely stems from the subject of the week. That is to say, maybe it was handled easier when compared to the subjects of the other seven weeks. The total average of target-like use of plurals is the highest one of the averages of three measures. It can be said that target-like use of plurals is less challenging than these two measures. In a nutshell, there is a steady progress in terms of all measures of accuracy throughout eight weeks though a small fall showed itself across the weeks. In other words, the treatment period proved itself to be beneficial for the participants for the linguistic accuracy.

Table 10 The complexity average consisting of three measures across the eight weeks

	Frequency of use of prepositions			Frequency of use of conjunctions			Proportion of lexical verbs to copula		
	Total Words	Total Prepositions	%	Total Words	Total Conjunctions	%	Lexical Verbs	Copula verbs	%
W1	3627	241	6.64	3627	172	47.4	254	173	68.11
W2	5239	341	6.45	5239	243	4.64	431	280	64.97
W3	4462	319	7.15	4462	244	5.47	390	278	71.28
W4	3849	248	6.44	3849	188	4.88	309	240	77.67
W5	4078	266	6.52	4078	168	4.12	333	243	72.97
W6	5408	329	6.08	5408	241	4.46	521	441	84.64
W7	5783	323	5.59	5783	229	3.96	280	194	69.29
W8	5988	378	6.31	5988	251	4.19	472	334	70.76
Total	38434	2445	6.36	38434	1736	4.50	2990	2183	73.01

The participants in the study did not show a sharp progress in terms of the frequency of use of prepositions across the eight weeks. When compared to the native speakers' average of the frequency use of preposition in their essays that was obtained specially for this study, which is 15.07 per cent, it can be said that this average is statistically far below. For the second measure, from the first to the last week any radical changes could not be observed in Table 9 and the average of frequency of the use of conjunctions left behind the native speakers' average, which is 9,71 per cent. In the average of the third measure, there was a steady rise across the eight weeks; however, this time the average of the participant is higher than the native speaker's average which is 52,50 per cent.

Table 11 The Pearson Correlation Test for Accuracy and Complexity

		1	2
1	Pearson Correlation	1	.325
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.080
	N	30	30
2	Pearson Correlation	.325	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.080	
	N	30	30

To find out the impact of accuracy over complexity or vice versa, the averages of the complexity and accuracy were computed to assess the relationship between them, therefore a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was in use to assess the relationship. There seems to be a weak yet positive correlation between the two variables ($r = .325$, $n = 30$, $p = .080$).

4.2. FINDINGS RELATED TO RESEARCH QUESTION 2

This part will be concerned with tables displaying the independent samples t-Test based on the results of the participants' performance in the tasks with the purpose of demonstrating their developments when compared to the native norms. In this way, with respect to independent samples t-Test, the question aimed to find out if there is a significant difference among the CAF measures of dimensions of the task performance of an EFL class trained through TSLT will be clarified.

4.2.1. Findings related to Accuracy Measures

Considering the accuracy performance of the participants in their writing task, the Tables 12, 13, and 14 show the results of independent samples t-Test employed to find out any significant mean in the participants performance in each measure of accuracy when compared to the native norms.

Table 12 Independent samples t-Test result of the number of error free clauses

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
7.524	.008	11.844	58	.000	30.86667
		11.844	41.710	.000	30.86667

In order to examine differences in the number of error-free clauses between the participants in the study and the native speakers at the end of this quasi-experimental study, independent t-Test (SPSS) was applied to the averages of the results. According to the Table 12 shown above, there was a significant difference in mean values of the number of error-free clauses in native speakers ($M= 84.0333$, $SD= 12.866665$) and in the participants of the study ($M= 53.1667$, $SD=6.18164$) conditions; $t(58) = 11.844$, $p = 008$. It can be understood that there is a significant difference between these groups in terms of the number of error-free clauses ($p < .05$).

Table 13 Independent samples t-Test result of the target-like use of tenses

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
12.847	.001	32.112	57	.000	47.28346
		31.750	38.766	.000	47.28346

The same statistical procedure was computed in order to see if there is a significant difference between these two groups. The result highlights the presence of the significant differences in the target-like use of tenses among the participants in the study. According to Table 13 shown above, there was a significant difference in the scores of the target-like use of tenses among the groups ($M=98.2497$, $SD=3.32249$) and in the participants of the study ($M=50.9662$, $SD=7.32451$), conditions; $t(57) = 32.112$, $p = 001$ and $p < .05$.

Table 14 Independent samples t-Test result of the target-like use of plurals

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
2,198	.144	5,992	58	.000	10,3333
		5,992	56,252	.000	10,3333

It can be understood from Table 14 that there is not a significant difference between these groups in terms of the target-like use of plurals. Statistically, it can be inferred from Table 14, native speakers (M=96.4667, SD=6.06137) and in the participants of the study (M=86,1333, SD=7,24323), conditions; $t(58) = 5,992$ $p = .144$ ($p > .05$).

It is worth mentioning that according to the results of independent sample t-Test of accuracy measures in this study, only one out of three measures showed a significantly similar mean score to the native norms' score. This measure is target like use of plurals.

4.2.2. Findings related to Complexity Measures

In order to examine the progress of the participants in the study and see if there is the difference in complexity dimension between the participants and the native speakers, an independent samples t-Test was conducted for each measures of complexity.

Table 15 Independent samples t-Test result of the frequency of use of conjunctions

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
16.713	.000	.812	58	.420
		.812	42.471	.422

Table 15 gives the descriptive statistics for one of the complexity measures: the frequency of use of conjunctions. While native speakers' frequency use of conjunctions (M=4.96, SD=1.507) are more often than NNS in the study and in the participants of the study (M=4.71, SD=.748), the analysis revealed a significant difference between these two groups by referring the conditions (58) =.812 p = 000.

Table 16 Independent samples t-Test result of the frequency of use of prepositions

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
2.111	.152	6.335	58	.000	12.61267
		6.335	51.309	.000	12.61267

The same statistical procedure was computed in order to see if there is a significant difference between these two groups in the frequency of use of prepositions. Table 16 indicates that the participants' mean score (M=83.6813, SD=8.99612) is not significantly different from the native norms' mean score (M=96,2940, SD=6.16329) in the frequency of use of prepositions and conditions; t (58) =6.335 p = .152 (p >.05).

Table 17 Independent samples t-Test result of proportion lexical to copula

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
16.195	.000	-2.765	58	.008	-14.66700
		-2.765	40.391	.009	-14.66700

According to Table 17 shown above, there was a significant difference in mean values of proportion lexical to copula of native speakers (M=54.3530, SD=26.46813) and in the participants of the study (M=69.0200, SD=11.97295), conditions; t (58) =2.765 p = 000.

The results highlight that only one out of three measures of complexity showed a significant similarity to native norms which is the frequency use of prepositions.

4.2.3. Findings related to Fluency Measures

With respect to the progress shown by the participants, independent sample t-Tests were conducted for each measure of fluency separately, and with the help of these t-Tests it can be detected which dimension(s) stood out among others in this study.

Table 18 Independent samples t-Test result of the length of pauses

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
29.792	.000	-6.644	58	.000	-7.21433
		-6.644	30.210	.000	-7.21433

These statistics presented above points out that there is a significant difference on the length of pauses during speaking between the native speakers (M=1.9780, SD=.85026) and the participants of the study (M=9.1923, SD=5.88658), conditions; $t(58) = -6.644, p = 000$.

Table 19 Independent samples t-Test result of the number of repetitions

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
15.418	.000	-1.201	58	.235
		-1.201	34.705	.238

The same statistical procedure was computed and as a result, there is a significant difference between the mean scores of the native speakers (M=1.10, SD=.960) and the participants of the study (M=1.80, SD=3.044), conditions; $t(58) = -1.20, p = 000$.

Table 20 Independent samples t-Test result of the number of words per minute

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
4.958	.030	7.987	58	.000
		7.987	52.213	.000

According to the statistics presented in Table 20, it can be said that there is not a significant difference between native speakers ($M=152.73$, $SD=34.823$) and the participants of the study ($M=90.53$, $SD=24.635$), conditions; $t(58) = 7.987$, $p = .030$ ($p > .05$) in terms of the mean score of the number of words per minute.

4.3. FINDINGS RELATED TO RESEARCH QUESTION 3

This study was motivated in part by the wish to disentangle the comparison of the mean scores of native speakers of English and the group as non-native speakers of English who participated in this study. The third question aims to demonstrate whether there is a significant difference between the task performance in each of these three dimensions and their native-norm counterparts. To explore the existence of any significant difference among these two groups in respect of overall achievement in writing and speaking, ANOVA was computed; that is to say, A one-way ANOVA was conducted on the total sum of each of the 9 independent variables, which each three set of measures form three task performance (complexity, accuracy, fluency) to find out which measure yielded significant differences. In cases of non-significant results, pairwise comparisons between task performance were run to delve into the differences between pairs of the task dimensions to obtain a recognition of trends within the data with the help of independent sample t-Test.

Clearly applying a test of homogeneity to acknowledge whether the three (3) groups are homogenous to be compared in One-Way ANOVA is a necessity. The Levene's Test checks if the groups are all equal, which is a requirement ANOVA and signals which post-hoc test would be run and interpreted.

Table 21 Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
5,395	2	87	,006

With reference to the Levene's Test, it can be said that the variances are not homogeneous ($p < .05$). In fact, it is what was expected as one set of the groups comprised of the native speakers of English. On the grounds of the result of the Levene's Test, the Tamhane's T2 test was taken into consideration.

Table 22 The Tamhane Heterogenous Subsets among native speakers of English and the participants in this study

	(I) dimension	(J) dimension	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval		
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound		Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound
Tamhane	accuracy	fluency	5.10213	3.27301	.329	-2.9567		13.1610
		complexity	8.29595(*)	2.35371	.003	2.4648		14.1271
	fluency	accuracy	-5.10213	3.27301	.329	-13.1610		2.9567
		complexity	3.19382	2.81271	.599	-3.8103		10.1980
	complexity	accuracy	-8.29595(*)	2.35371	.003	-14.1271		-2.4648
		fluency	-3.19382	2.81271	.599	-10.1980		3.8103

The result of the mean scores of multiple comparisons relating accuracy was shown in the first line of the Table 22. When the mean of accuracy is compared with the means of the other two dimensions, there is not a statistically significant difference between accuracy and fluency ($p = .329$; $p > .05$); on the other hand, there is a significant difference between accuracy and complexity ($p = .003$; $p < .05$).

The second line in the Table 22, represented the multiple comparison of fluency with accuracy and complexity; however, the comparison between accuracy and fluency had already been done in the first line of the Table 20. Upon comparing fluency and complexity, it can be stated that there is not a statistically significant difference between fluency and complexity ($p = .599$; $p > .05$).

The comparison of complexity with accuracy and fluency showed in the third line of the table above pointed out that there a statistically significant difference between these two means: complexity and accurac



CHAPTER V

5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1. INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, after the general overview of the study, the following subheadings will shed light on the research questions in light of the results. Implications and the recommendations for further research will also appear in the ensuing lines.

5.2. GENERAL OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

The past two decades have been the witness of the transition from communicative language as both classroom implementation and research interest to the approaches whose main focus are task (Bygate & Samuda 2005; Robinson 2011; Skehan, Bei, Li & Wang, 2012). Also, task-based language teaching has undergone changes within itself. Ellis (2005) identified two types of planning and these are: (1) pre-task planning that is further subdivided into rehearsal and strategic planning and (2) within-task planning which is divided into pressured and unpressured.

Wang (2009) found out that both rehearsal and repetition have an obvious effect on CAF measures. As rehearsal has been less touched upon throughout the history of SLA and until now, the focus of most research is either on oral production or written production, the current study was set around task rehearsal after PPP in the task-supported language teaching setting and to have an amply rich sampling of data, the students' task performance as homework was traced throughout the eight weeks both as orally and written. These assignments were a kind of rehearsal of the task with their essentials. In the aim of attaining the goal of the study, EFL learners' linguistic outcomes of task performance were compared with native speakers' performance. Namely, in this study the native counterparts were regarded as independent measuring linguistic performance in terms of CAF measures and EFL learners' performance as dependent factors.

To attain the goal of the study, nine (9) task performance measures were employed in this study. Accuracy was measured by focusing on the number of error-free clauses; the target like use of tenses and target like use of plurals. Complexity was

measured by examining frequency of use of prepositions, frequency of use of conjunctions, proportion of lexical verbs to copula and frequency was measured by examining the number of words per minute, mean length of pauses, and number of reformulations which are picked from the production variables.

The distinctive feature of second language productive skills is that many EFL learners put lots of effort into writing and speaking but still have problems and tend to fall short to reach a native-like proficiency. In this sense, in this study it was attempted to obtain the best results by looking for native norms comparison. To set a clear scene; firstly, the T-Test independent sample test was conducted for each nine measures and then the Tamhane test was put into use to find out the similarity and difference of task performance between EFL students and the native equivalents.

5.3. DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS IN REFERENCE TO RESEARCH QUESTION 1

Is there an impact of accuracy over the complexity across the eight weeks on the students' written productive skill?

The basic account of Tradeoff Hypothesis assumes that the high levels of proficiency performance in both accuracy and complexity is difficult because of the tension between accuracy and complexity (Skehan, 2014). In pursuit of examining the first research and the assumption of Tradeoff Hypothesis, the linguistic outcomes from accuracy and complexity were compared with the help of a Pearson product-moment correlation. There seems to be a weak yet positive correlation between the two variables ($r = .325$, $n = 30$, $p = .080$). However, Skehan and Foster (1997) state that while pre-task planning has a role to promote greater complexity, it has a negative effect on accuracy. Another study by Ellis (1987) favors accuracy in the recycling of tasks performance. In the similar vein, Altay, İnan Karagül and Yüksel (2017) concluded that as TSLT presents a better understanding due to to explicit and declarative knowledge together with communicative tasks, TSLT can offer better teaching circumstances in certain dimensions of accuracy; on the other hand, it does not mean to promise the same outcomes in other dimensions; complexity and fluency. Moreover, Bygate (2001) came up with a result that the repetition of a task promotes complexity

and fluency but not **accuracy**. On the contrary to these results, this study shows that accuracy and complexity are correlated weakly but positively.

5.4. DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS IN REFERENCE TO RESEARCH

QUESTION 2

Is there a significant difference among the complexity, accuracy, and fluency dimensions of the task performance of an EFL class trained through TSLT?

To find out the answer of the second question of the research, the linguistic outcome of each dimension of task performance was processed with the help of independent samples of the t-Test to make a comparison of task performance measures between the participants in this study and their native counterparts. Thanks to this comparison, it was found out that the measures investigated in the participants' productive skills is not significantly different from the native counterparts. For three task performance dimensions, one out of three measures is not significantly different from native norms. One of them is the target-like use of plurals as an accuracy measure. Peyman (2014) came up with the result that one of the inaccuracies in EFL written contexts comes from plural forms of nouns. On the other hand, a study conducted by Şen and Kuleli (2017) showed that the error frequency of the use of plurals declined as EFL learners' proficiency levels improved in spoken English. Another outstanding study conducted by Ting, Mahadhir and Chang (2010) who had a close look at the oral skills of university level students in an EFL context, and labelled mistakes in plural form of nouns as one of the most frequent problems encountered in the EFL context. In a nutshell, the previous studies were conducted to analyze the oral skills; however, in this study, written English in the EFL context at the university level was analyzed and surprisingly, the target-like use of plurals is the one among other two measures which is not significantly different from the native-like use of plurals.

Secondly, in this study, the frequency of use of prepositions is the second measure which is not significantly different from the native norms as a complexity measure. The findings of a study show that the most preferred prepositions in native

language texts are those most misused by learners (Tetreault and Chodorow, 2008). The proper use of preposition is obviously challenging for EFL learners. Similarly, a study conducted by Izumi, Uchimoto, Saiga, Supnithi, and Isahara, (2003) can support the claim that the misuse of English prepositions in a Japanese learner corpus constitutes 10 per cent in all kinds of linguistic error rates. Furthermore, 29 per cent of all the errors belonging to intermediate to advanced ESL students were preposition errors (Bitchener et al., 2005). To sum up, it is surprising that the frequency of use of preposition is not significantly different from the native use among the other two measures.

Last but not least, fluency as a task performance has been one of the most hotly debated issue and still has reached no consensus on what fluency is; however, in all its simplicity, Lennon (2000) proposed a description of fluency “a working definition of fluency might be the rapid, smooth, accurate, lucid, and efficient translation of thought or communicative intention into language under the temporal constraints of on-line processing” (p. 26). And the results of speaking tasks in this study confirm that there is no significant difference between the learners and the native norms in terms of the number of words per minute during a three minutes small talk. The result of this measure gives a clue about speech rate, which is described as the number of syllables per second or the number of words per minute (Chamber, 1997). On the course of assessment of fluency, speech rate is one of measures used commonly by researchers; that is to say, speech rates were employed as a measure of fluency in the studies whose aim was to improve fluency with the help of repetition of the same task (Nation, 1989). The findings of the several studies in the literature (Foster and Skehan, 1996; Gilabert, 2005; Mehnert, 1998; Rahimpour and Hazar, 2008; Skehan and Foster, 1997; Tavakoli and Skehan, 2005; Wigglesworth, 1997) indicate that fluency can benefit from pre-task planning significantly and positively. In addition to these findings, in this study, rehearsal as a pre-task planning, has a positive effect on the speech rate of the participants of the study; therefore, the participant and their native counterparts do not show a significant difference from each other.

5.5. DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS IN REFERENCE TO RESEARCH

QUESTION 3

Is there a significant difference between the task performances in each of these three dimensions and their native-norm counterparts?

To find an answer to the third question, the linguistic outcomes of the learners and the native norms were compared in terms of CAF. These results were submitted to one-way ANOVAs (each three set of measures comprised of one task performance). To find out which task performance measures would yield a significant difference, a one-way ANOVA was carried out on each of the independent variables to compare with the dependent variables. Pairwise comparisons between task performance were run to search the differences of task performance in order to expand the understanding of trends within the data. The answer to this question is precious because there are competing merits of Tradeoff and Cognitive approaches though these two agree on the utility of task as a research tool. As Skehan (2014) puts it simply that there is a raise of accuracy and complexity simultaneously in accordance with task complexity suggested by the Cognition approach (Robinson, 2001, 2011). On the other hand, what Tradeoff Hypothesis suggest is because of the attentional demands, accuracy and complexity can compete with each other. Having a close look at the results of one-way ANOVA Tamhane's test, the mean of accuracy and complexity is significantly different while fluency is not significantly different from both accuracy and complexity. The working and long-term memory is another issue of this last question. Skehan (2014) states that because of the limited capacity of working memory, task performance variables increase independently being far from stability. On the other hand, Skehan and Foster (1997) detected three different learners across tasks: complexity-oriented, accuracy oriented and fluency- oriented learners. The stability of their performance was independent from the tasks; however, Foster and Skehan (1996) state planning task has an effect on producing greater complexity and fluency of target language. Mehnert (1998) studied different allocated planning time (no planning time, 1, 5 and 10 minutes) and task performance variables and came up with the result that the longer task planning time was, the more complex language was produced. Relying on the various studies, it has been observed that there is a correlation between planning and complexity (Crookes, 1989; Ellis, 2009; Ortega, 1999; Skehan & Foster, 2005). In this study, after rehearsal at school, the take-home tasks were expected to be more

complex; however, the findings of this study chimes in with the study conducted by Skehan and Foster (1997) “*when planning was carried out, subjects seemed to prioritize either complexity or accuracy, but not both*” (p.220). On the other hand, with the help of in-class task rehearsal, it was aimed to raise the familiarity to forms and subjects and so it was aimed to increase accuracy too. (Foster and Skehan, 1999).

In a nutshell, L2 performance fleshes out the bare factual bones of individual predisposition, task, task planning and task condition influences.

5.6. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

In this study, in-class tasks which were regarded as rehearsal of the actual task were designed to improve EFL students’ productive skills across eight weeks. Although the study did not show statistically significant changes in the students’ productive skills, one out of three measures for each task performance of the participants do show statistically similarity with the results of their native counterparts. This study indicates that it is worth experimenting further with task-supported language teaching, and attaining the goal of being native-like and exploiting the role of tasks in generating more sophisticated output.

Task-supported language teaching is an interpretation of task-based language teaching and presents various facilities for teachers who are in charge of following the current curriculum. This study may contribute to the course and syllabus design in schools and institutions. Designing the whole module program in accordance with the necessities of task-supported language teaching can be regarded as a kind of contribution to the advancement of alternative methods for creating more effective and beneficial learning atmospheres.

This study may encourage teachers to put technological devices to use as well as social media applications with educational concerns instead of regarding them as totally detrimental to education process. Using social media apps may help learners regard English as a language rather than just a lesson. Moreover, participating WhatsApp speaking session after school can create real life-like communication among learners, and this may raise awareness in this sense. Observing that learners find technology engagement through social media apps for homework motivating and enjoyable, the teachers might create or modify course plans involving the use of a mobile device or social media platform to attract more their students’ interest.

Besides attracting more learners' interest, Whatsapp speaking session can provide each learner a chance to express themselves in English since speaking course duration in classrooms can be limited and most of learners cannot have a chance to speak in English or other affective filters such as inhibition can hinder them from speaking in classroom atmosphere. However, in Whatsapp speaking session, all learners are expected to speak in English, and they have equal allocated time. The teacher may take into consideration the limit of course time and change the nature of homework to create more equal atmosphere for learners.

Another implication for teachers is that meeting at Whatsapp speaking session with the teacher in an informal setting after school gave a sense to the learners that the homework was not one-sided process and they did not regard as a burden; moreover, they came to realize that their teacher put in a lot of effort to be beneficial both inside and outside school; therefore, they tried to do their best. The teachers may motivate their students in this way.

5.7. FURTHER RESEARCH

Based on the findings and limitations of the study, further research can be built on investigating the participants' pre-planning task performance and task performance to track down the participants' developments within the process over a longer period of time. If the implementations of the procedure were planned more carefully, the results might be more positive; that is to say, a future research can take this study as a basis and replicate it with a larger number of participants with different English proficiency levels for a longer period of time. Different English proficiency levels are crucial to be able to make generalizations of the findings of further studies.

The measures bearing similarities with native norms in this study can be operationalised in Pearson correlation test as a further research. In this way it can be detected what extent similarity exist in these measures with native norms.

Besides quantitative data, qualitative data can be collected to obtain the participants' attitudes towards the treatment. The participants who take part in the treatment can provide valuable information about the implications of the study.

Lastly, the attitudes of instructors towards the treatment of task-supported language teaching in productive skills can be explored. As result of this treatment, the

participants and the instructors provide insights concerning the effects of PPP model, task and task-supported language teaching.



CONCLUSION

The study investigated the influence of task-supported language teaching on task performance variables of the non-native speaker and the comparison of their task performance with native counterparts. The linguistic measurement for accuracy were mainly, the number of error-free clauses, the target like use of tenses, and target like use of plurals; for complexity, frequency of use of prepositions, frequency of use of conjunctions, and proportion of lexical verbs to copula; for frequency number of words per minute, mean length of pauses, and number of reformulations are selected as task performance variables. One of the goals of the pedagogical task is to trigger real-world like language production; therefore, in this study, the development of EFL learners across the eight weeks was tracked by comparing the linguistic variables with native norms.

The findings of this study indicate that rehearsal as pre-task planning has a positive effect on the participants' task performance over eight weeks; though the model which consists of sequencing practice and production after a focused presentation is now partly out of favor. However, for teachers who are in the rush of catching up the mainstream curriculum and strive for building a bridge between the theoretical implications of empirical studies and practical implementations of these studies, the PPP model goes well with task-supported language teaching by integrating ongoing curriculums with pedagogic tasks. Although applying PPP may seem like it is at the expense of other approaches, a central choice in this sense is to create an allocated time to implement an in-class task.

In this quasi-experimental study, it was observed that after the first week, the students were more aware of the process even though they were informed about the implementation of the study; that is to say, they tried to put a lot of effort to in grasping the topic of the week and they seemed more competitive and motivated on the course of the implementation of in-class tasks. It was observed that the participants in the study were quite happy to work as a group and peer-correction was common among the members of the groups.

Seeing that WhatsApp speaking session was regarded by the learners as a new approach to homework and was met by the participants in this study with joy; therefore, putting in use Whatsapp speaking session may be inspiring for language teachers. It was observed that the blend of technological engagement via social media

with learning English for learners was challenging as well as satisfying. Some of the participants expressed that they suffered from shyness when the matter was expressing themselves in English and with the help of this WhatsApp speaking session, they felt more comfortable to speak in English and overcame this inhibition; moreover, they expressed their gratitude to have such a chance. It was observed that students with low attendance rates increased their interest after several speaking sessions. Another observation, meeting with the teacher in an informal setting after school gave a sense to the learners that the homework was not a one-sided process, their teacher put in a lot of effort to be beneficial both inside and outside school.

The previous studies related to task have made comparisons between the groups or the evaluations before and after task, this study can be distinctive as it compared the learners' development within the task with their native counterparts; however, without a doubt, it was only a glimpse of the vast scope of task planning. The overarching goal of this study is to build bridges between this empirical study and the implementations of the implications of this study. The results of this study imply that task-supported language instruction is partially effective in increasing task performance variables and could be regarded as an alternative teaching method with its traditional language teaching texture. It was observed that the participants in this study were motivated and had fun on the course of in-class task implementation.

The aim of this quasi-experimental study is to reveal that TSLT as a method in ELT programs can be revisited by planning pre-task, designing tasks and applying them as an addition to the natural course of the lesson to improve students' writing and speaking skills as well as the metacognitive awareness of students, which could then have a number of emerging effects on other skills and awareness, as well.

To summarize, most of the comments about the implementation of tasks and the new approach to homework were positive, and the participants were able to manage both the group work and individual study. These indicate that the study contributed to the 30 learners' productive language skills and help them gain a different viewpoint concerning language learning.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Week 1: Introduce yourself 15.09.2017

Goal	To introduce yourself and mention your daily routines.
Input	The Simple Present Tense and Frequency Adverbs. A written text in CB, Flash Cards, computer games (Kahoot, Jeopardy).
Conditions	The Course Book – Speakout. The topic presentation is done first inductively via CB; then written form of the subject on the board deductively.
Procedures	Various kind of pair works about Affirmative, Negative and Questions Forms of The Simple Present Tense.
Predicted outcomes: Product	A task is designed for generating meaningful conversation between students. The guided worksheets are dispersed and students are paired randomly. Students are expected to guess their pairs daily routines from Monday to Friday. After then, the students read the statements to their pairs to justify their guesses. If their guess is right, they will put a tick, if is wrong, they search for the information by asking questions to their partners.
Process	The students are expected to write their daily routines.

Week 2: My best friend

Goal	To use personal and physical adjectives while speaking and writing by using third person singular.
Input	A reading in CB which is about a celebrity. This text is written by using thirs person singular. Worksheets and flashcards are in use.
Conditions	The Course Book – Speakout and flashcards.
Procedures	Taking turns to pick a classmate and give descriptions of him/ her and try to guess who is.
Predicted outcomes: Product	This task is designed to help students negotiate the meaning while describing is the old lady and her granddaughter.” Student A, B, C; D are expected to describe, in sequence the old lady, the granddaughter, the cottage, the forest and beyond.
Process	The students are expected to write about their best friends by using personal and physical adjectives by using third person singular.

Week 3: Favourite Places 30.09.2017

Goal	To talk about a place by giving details and directions.
Input	Prepositions, A reading in CB about two places in Malta.
Conditions	The Course Book – Speakout. A DVD. Using Google Earth for İzmit, to give directions for various places and information about the places.
Procedures	Various kind of pair work.
Predicted outcomes: Product	This task is designed to help students negotiate the meaning while describing the directions and give information about the place.
Process	The students are expected to write about their favourite place/ city and where it is and what you can do there.

Week 4: Your Best/ Worst Day 05.10.2017

Goal	To talk about past events
Input	The Simple Past Tense and Was/ Were and Past Form of Verbs. A written text in CB, Flash Cards, computer games (Kahoot, Jeopardy).
Conditions	The Course Book – Speakout. The topic presentation is done first inductively via CB; then written form of the subject on the board deductively.

Procedures	Various kind of pair works about Affirmative, Negative and Questions Forms of The Simple Past Tense.
Predicted outcomes: Product	Learners are given a short tale jumbled and lacking the ending. Then in pairs the parts of the incomplete story are given to the students randomly and expected to reorder them and create an ending for it.
Process	To tell your best/ worst day

Week 5: Your Hometown 12.10.2017


Goal	To give information about a place
Input	The Simple Past Tense and Was/ Were and Past Form of Verbs. A written text in CB, Flash Cards, computer games (Kahoot, Jeopardy).
Conditions	Various kinds of exercises
Procedures	Reading texts about cities from different parts of the World.
Predicted outcomes: Product	The learners are paired to create a leaflet of their hometown to welcome to incoming tourist group as a guide by pointing tourist attractions and historical places.
Process	To write about your hometown

Week 6: The Best/ Worst Holiday 19.10.2017

Goal	To make comparison between things.
Input	A set of pictures illustrating two different cars, houses and people as warm-up. A small text about giving detailed information about these pictures.
Conditions	The Course Book – Speakout. The topic presentation is done first inductively via CB; then written form of the subject on the board deductively.
Procedures	Reading texts
Predicted outcomes: Product	A task is designed for role playing and the learners in the groups of four are expected to plan a holiday as a member of the same family. The learners as a member of family has different idea and try to convince each other by referring and comparing their previous holidays.
Process	To write about your best/ worst journey

Week 7: Food and Recipes 06.10.2017

Goal	To write a recipe.
Input	A picture in CB illustrates two different fridges belonging different couples and a small written text about healthy and unhealthy life. Major vegetables and fruit images were presented via the projector in the class. Quantifiers (any, some) were presented on the board deductively.

Conditions	The Course Book (Speakout) and a worksheet.
Procedures	The boys and girls group, pairs work.
Predicted outcomes: Product	<p>The students were expected to divide as boys and girls to work on this work sheet. Necessary instruction was written on the worksheet. Additionally the students were expected to a recipe for spaghetti.</p>  <p>Adapted from: https://www.teach-this.com/parts-of-speech-activities-worksheets/countable-uncountable-nouns.</p>
Process	The students are expected to write suggestions for his/her friend who is in need for an easy recipe for five people for dinner.

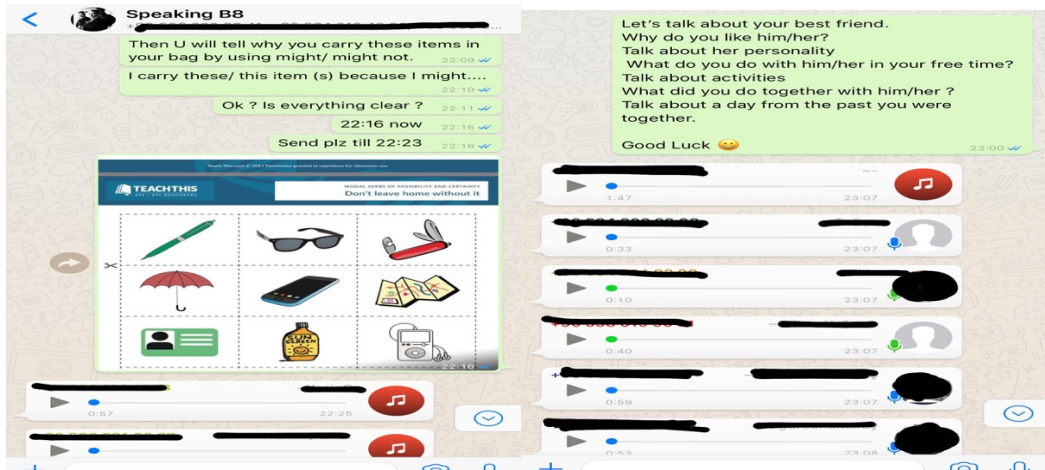
Week 8 : My City 02.11.2017

Goal	To use future tense properly
Input	Be going to and would like to. A written text in CB, Flash Cards, computer games (Kahoot, Jeopardy).

Conditions	The Course Book (Speakout) and worksheets
Procedures	Group work
Predicted outcomes: Product	For this task, the teacher will need to prepare in advance a number of cards that will show the students (1) the name of the city, (2) the budget for a day. The students will work in groups of four and have fifteen minutes to organize their days for these cities.
Process	For the organization of one day tour for university students, to prepare a leaflet by mentioning the activities with a limited budget.

APPENDIX B

Figure 1: Samples of the students' emailed writing homework and Whatsapp sessions



Hi,

My name is Abdullah.I'm 19 years old.I'm a student at Kocaeli University.I'm from Elazığ but I live in Kocaeli.My family live in Elazığ.I have one brother and three sisters.My department is civil engineering.I love watching film.I like reading books.I like to drink tea and Turkish coffee.

|

I stay in the dorm.I get up 07.00 a.m at the weekdays.I usually have a shower.I have a breakfast at 07.30 a.m. And brush my teeth.I get on the bus at 08.00 a.m. The school lessons start at 09:00 p.m. And the lessons finish at 02.10 p.m. I come back in the dorm at 03.00 p.m.And I some watching TV.And I go to bed sleep at 12 o'clock.

I get up late at the weekend. I usually in the dorm at the weekend .And usually I go to city center.

My father name is Yusuf.His job is officer.He 40 years old.He stays my uncle's home at the weekday And he goes home at the weekend.

My mother name is Hatun.She is a housewife . She takes care of us .She is 40 years old.My brother name is Mehmet.He studies for the YGS-LYS .my sister name is Esra . She studies for the KPSS

ABOUT YOU

Hi I am Furkan. I'm nineteen years old. I from Edirne but I live in Darica. I study at Kocaeli University. I have got one brother. His name is Gökhan. He is twenty four years old. He is factory worker. My mother's name is Canan. She is forty seven years old. She is housewife. My father's name is Hasan. He is fifty one years old. He is retired.

Every weekday I get up eight am. Then I have a shower and have breakfast. I go to the school. I go to the library after school. Then I have dinner and I go home. I watch TV. I brush my teeth. Then I go to the bed.

Every weekend I go to Darica because my family is there. I always go to the city center and Gebze Center.

I like playing football, basketball, badminton, volleyball and table tennis. I dislike American football. I like patty and meatball but I dislike olive.



CV

I was born in Tokat and went to Tokat Anatolian Teacher Training High School. I hold a Bachelor's Degree of English Language Teaching from Hacettepe University. Having graduated with a GPA of 3.25 in 2009, I have been working as an English instructor in Kocaeli University since 2010. I have also taught in England as a visiting English lecturer with Erasmus Teaching Staff Mobility Program in 2011. One of my studies conducted in my classes was published in 2019 as an article *The Effect of Two Different Types of Corrective Feedback on EFL Students' Writing* in KUJE (A journal of Kocaeli University). I designed English task performance materials in Valencia University in Spain with Erasmus Internship Program in 2019.

