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AN ATTEMPT TO INCREASE STUDENT TALKING TIME THROUGH TASK-BASED INTERACTION AMONG BASIC LEVEL LANGUAGE LEARNERS AT ICPNA, CAJAMARCA BRANCH

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REYNULFO FONSECA MARTÍNEZ

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APPROVAL

The thesis entitled, “**AN ATTEMPT TO INCREASE STUDENT TALKING TIME THROUGH TASK-BASED INTERACTION AMONG BASIC LEVEL LANGUAGE LEARNERS AT ICPNA, CAJAMARCA BRANCH**”, presented by **REYNULFO FONSECA MARTINEZ**, in accordance with the requirements of being awarded the degree of Master in Education with a mention in Teaching English as a Second/Foreign Language, was approved by the thesis director: **Dr. Majid Safadaran Mosazadeh**, and defended on _____, 2016 before a Jury with the following members:

President

Secretary

Informant

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INTRODUCTION

“Teacher talk should not occupy the major proportion of a class hour. It should occupy only around 30% of the total talk in class; otherwise, you are probably not giving students enough opportunity to talk”¹. It is true that many Foreign Language Teaching (FLT) course books have relied on the Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP) model of activity sequencing, and many second language learners have learned to speak a foreign language under this model. However, with the shift towards more communicative approaches, this model of lesson sequencing has come under attack and has been harshly criticized for being too teacher-centered and not allowing students to interact enough and produce the target language in a realistic way.

In response to these types of limitations there has been the need for more meaning-based and student-centered approaches. Thus, “a model claimed to be meaning-based” and allowing more student talk “is Task-based learning” or TBL, which is characterized as the strong form of communicative language teaching (CLT)”². In meaning-based approaches the teacher’s role is more limited in providing opportunities for activities that reinforce communication. “The emphasis is on communication of

¹ Brown, J. D. (2001): *Using Surveys in Language Programs*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

² Ellis, R. (2003): *Task-Based Language Learning and Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

meanings with complex activities and structured tasks or in its extreme with larger and more complicated tasks or projects that demand language discussion and problem-solving techniques”³.

The aim of this study is not to show which approach is better for language teaching and learning in general, because both PPP and TBL have their strengths and drawbacks, but to find out whether there is a significant difference in the amount the students talk and interact when using each model and to determine which works better for promoting more interaction and output among foreign language learners.

The current study begins by describing the problem under investigation and outlining the different hypotheses and objectives. Next, the theoretical framework that supports our field of study is presented. Following that, a detailed description of the methodology and instruments used to gather data can be found. Finally, the results we encountered are presented and discussed with their corresponding statistical analysis and testing of the hypotheses, their visual presentation through charts and figures, as well as a comparison with results found in previous studies.

³ Littlewood, W. (2004). “The task-based approach: some questions and suggestions”. *ELT Journal*. 58(4): 319-326.

CHAPTER I: INVESTIGATION OUTLINE

1.1 Background

The dominant model for classroom lessons has been, for many years, what is referred to as Presentation, Practice, and Production (PPP). The PPP lesson reflects a very structured view of learning, and is closely linked to the structural syllabus. “Language is broken down into small chunks, which are fed to the learner in the Presentation stage usually through dialogue form, digested by the learner in the practice stage and finally regurgitated in the production stage⁴”

This is an essentially “behaviorist view of learning”⁵. As such, “a great deal of teacher talking time (TTT) is inevitable” because the teacher is the dominating authority in class, and “is expected to transmit the knowledge to students”⁶. Thus, one of the biggest problems EFL students face with this approach is the very limited amount of time they actually get to practice speaking in direct interaction.

⁴ Scrivener, J. (1994): “PPP and after. The Teacher Trainer”. In K, Wu (Eds) (1998): *Introducing new knowledge and skills to second language teachers*. TESL Reporter 31: 10 -18.

⁵ Scrivener, J. (1994).

⁶ Scrivener, J. (1994).

In the case of my institution (ICPNA, Cajamarca branch), even though it claims that the main goal is to give students the chance to produce the language as much as possible, I am afraid such a goal is addressed in the wrong way. My experience as a teacher and mentor has given me the sense that students are not getting enough practice of the language they are learning; or if they are, it is done in a very artificial way. Although it is true that ICPNA has adopted an approach that is based on classroom interactions (proposed by Ron Schwartz) still it is largely teacher-centered and closely linked to the PPP approach as well. It mainly consists in the teacher directing everything, from turn-taking to directing students to repeat through hand gestures “like an orchestra director” as Dr. Schwartz himself usually says.

What is more, any approach featuring these types of techniques has encountered a lot of critiques. For instance, according to Seedhouse “when the teacher controls the topic and general discourse by directing turn taking through the use of questions, the talking time for the teacher and students are unequal”⁷.

Disapproval of PPP is particularly severe in the case of Lewis: “For a long time language teaching has gone in diametrically the wrong direction –the PPP paradigm was a travesty for philosophical, psychological, ideological and methodological reasons”⁸.

Further disapproval of PPP is also rooted in four pedagogical factors: “a) the prescriptive nature of the model; b) the tight teacher control of the sequence; c) the lack of efficiency in its application to real-life communication, and d) the learners’ perception of the P3 stage, which does

⁷ Seedhouse, P. (2001): “The case of the missing “no”: the relationship between pedagogy and interaction”. In R. Ellis (Ed.), *Form-focused instruction and second language learning*. Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishers.

⁸ Lewis, M. (1996): “Implications of a lexical view of language”. In D. Willis & J. Willis (Eds.), *Challenge and Change in Language Teaching*. Oxford: Heinemann: 10-16

not necessarily match the teacher's perception or the materials' assumptions"⁹.

However, with the shift towards communicative language teaching, "student-centered classes are encouraged so that learners can acquire the language as the result of communication, interaction, and negotiation of meaning"¹⁰. Therefore, activities which maximize student talking time and interaction are a useful tool in creating the optimum conditions for language learning. Within this new paradigm, excessive amounts of teacher talk time (TTT) are seen to be at the expense of opportunities to promote student interaction and therefore learning.

If it is true that "languages are learned best through authentic acts of communication, interaction, and negotiation of meaning" as Skehan¹¹ has pointed out - and is followed by Richards & Rodgers¹², and Ellis¹³ - then, student talking time must be maximized. Nevertheless, the question is: how do we accomplish this?

1.2 Formulation of the problem

An approach that draws on several principles that have formed part of the Communicative Teaching Movement from the 1980s is called task-based learning which is usually referred to as TBL. "It lays great emphasis on interaction and practical purposes for which language must be used, not on the language itself"¹⁴. Its main aim is to supply learners with a natural

⁹ Criado, R. (2013): "A critical review of the Presentation-Practice- Production Model (PPP) in Foreign Language Teaching". In R. Monroy (Ed.), *Homenaje a Francisco Gutiérrez Díez*. Murcia: 97-115

¹⁰ Lightbown, P. and Spada, N. (1999): *How Languages are learned*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

¹¹ Skehan, P. (1998): *A cognitive approach to language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

¹² Richards, J.C., and Rodgers, T.S. (2001): *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

¹³ Ellis, R. (2003)

¹⁴ Brown, H.D. (2001): *Teaching by Principles – An Interactive Approach to Language*

context for language use in the form of a task, which calls for students to interact in order to achieve an outcome. Hence, in this study I intend to answer the following question: Does the application of a PPP or a TBL teaching approach create a significant difference between the average talking time students get within a lesson?

1.3 Hypotheses

1.3.1 General hypothesis

There is a significant difference between the amount of student talking when applying a traditional approach (PPP) and a more communicative approach (TBL).

1.3.2 Specific hypothesis

The application of Task-based lessons (TBL) in the classroom leads to more student talking time compared to the amount of talking students get when using a PPP approach.

1.4 Delimitation of the objectives

1.4.1 General objective.

To indicate whether or not there is a significant difference between PPP and TBL in relation to student talking time.

1.4.2 Specific objectives.

To examine what effect PPP has on student talking time

To examine what effect TBL has on student talking time

To determine which approach - TBL or PPP - will work best for promoting student talking time.

1.5 Justification of the investigation.

In order for teachers to successfully teach in the classroom, talking to students is natural and inevitable. However, taking into account the restricted amount of time that second-language learners have for oral language practice, the extent to which teachers talk can dominate language lessons is an important issue. It is usually the case that the main place where foreign language learners are exposed to the target language is in the classroom. This is particularly true in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classes, as it is in our case, because students are not benefitting from the chance to live in an English-speaking environment. Therefore, striking the right balance between Teacher Talking Time (TTT) and Student Talking Time (STT) in order to maximize opportunities for student communication is an important consideration.

If the stated hypotheses are proven to be true, this type of methodology could be implemented in my institute and students would benefit from more opportunities for practicing English in the classroom. Therefore, they could learn English faster and more effectively; and students, teachers and parents would experience greater satisfaction. Additionally, variety and change is always good in the classroom. It could break the monotony of using only one approach in every lesson. It could allow both teachers and students to experience new ways of learning. In the end, the prestige of the language institute where I work could improve.

1.6 Limitations of the investigation.

As I did not want to conflict with the norms of the institution, I had quite a number of constraints in developing this work.

First of all, I worked with basic learners though it would have been desirable to work with upper intermediate or advanced learners as such a method is claimed to work better with students who already have knowledge of grammar and lexis but need to take them further, such as use their resources for communication. It was not possible for me because classes at these levels were rather small – there were not enough students for a reliable sample.

Secondly, ideally, I should have chosen tasks based on the students' needs, yet, because I did not want to ignore (nor could I) the syllabus and course-books laid down by the institution, I had no choice but to adapt topics from a textbook into tasks, which was time consuming and often very difficult to do.

Another obstacle I encountered was with the students being used to the ICPNA approach of basically asking and answering questions, personalizing and summarizing each activity. Thus, at first, students thought that completing tasks was too difficult, yet later on they realized that they could actually accomplish them with some help and scaffolding.

Additionally, it has not been possible to gather and analyze observational data from the classroom as extensively or systematically as might have been desirable with the staffing support available. I had to juggle many things by myself. For example I had to adapt a lot activities from the course-book into tasks, record the lessons, replay them and carefully keep count of students' and teacher's utterances. I also had to write some transcriptions of sample lessons, which is a laborious task because it aims to include all recorded sounds and interactional practice.

In order to reconcile this pedagogy with the constraints of my teaching context, I needed to draw support from the resources available. This may have limited the extent and effectiveness of the findings in this study.

1.7 Antecedents of the investigation.

We have been able to find a great number of studies done around the world by English teachers in contexts of English as a foreign language regarding the effect of TBL on different aspects of language learning. We have selected only some of those which, we believe, are somehow related to this study. They are presented in a chronological order as follows.

1.7.1 The effectiveness of task-based instruction in the improvement of learners' speaking skills.

This is a master's thesis carried out by Baris Kasap at Anadolu University School of Foreign Languages, Turkey, 2005.

This thesis explores the effectiveness of task-based instruction (TBI) in improving students' speaking skills as well as student and teacher perceptions of TBI. Control and experimental class data were gathered through questionnaires, interviews and oral tests. Oral pre- and post-tests were administered to both classes comprising 45 students in total. The teacher's perceptions of TBI were explored in pre- and post-treatment interviews, and a post-treatment interview was also conducted with a focus group from the experimental class.

Questionnaires were distributed to the experimental group after each of 11 treatment tasks. Data from the oral pre- and post-tests and questionnaires were analyzed quantitatively while data from the teacher interviews and the focus group discussion were analyzed qualitatively. T-tests were run to compare the improvement between groups and to analyze improvement within groups. The T-tests revealed no significant differences in any of the comparisons.

The study demonstrated, however, that students' general perceptions of task based instruction were positive, and the interview with the study teacher also yielded a positive result. The questionnaire results confirmed that students had neutral or partially positive reactions to the treatment tasks but found these helpful in developing their oral skills.

In conclusion, the results encountered in this dissertation were quite encouraging regarding the benefits of TBL.

1.7.2 Task-based interaction: the interactional and sequential organization of task-as-workplan and task in-process.

This is thesis conducted by Christopher Joseph Jenks at the University of Newcastle-upon-Tyne in 2006.

This thesis for a doctoral degree investigated the interactional properties and sequential organization of tasks. The analysis was framed around the notion that tasks can be investigated from a task-as-workplan or task-in-process perspective. However, past and current interpretations of tasks have been taken primarily from a task-as-workplan perspective. The point of departure for this thesis was not only the emphasis put on task-in-process, but also the reconciliation of both perspectives. That is, this thesis examined whether a task does what it is claimed to do. The difference between what is planned, and what occurs, is at the heart of construct validity. This assumption was investigated by analyzing the relationship between task-as-workplan and turn-taking and repair.

The findings demonstrated that although task-as-workplan can influence interaction, the decision to talk in a particular way or form occurs during task-in-process. Specifically, the participatory structure of tasks, which distributes referential information to task takers, and limits turn-taking and repair opportunities. For example, the ability to initiate and hold the floor in tasks is largely dependent on the amount of information each task taker is provided. Despite this influence, considerable task-in-process variation occurred.

It was later claimed by the author of this work that in order to provide a comprehensive picture of task-based interaction, both perspectives must be taken into consideration. This requires researchers to adopt a more holistic and detailed approach to the investigation of task-based interaction.

1.7.3 The classroom practice of primary and secondary school teachers in Bangladesh.

This study was conducted in 2011 by a team of experts who were members of the English in Action (EIA) program. English in Action is a language education program implemented through a partnership between the UK Government and the Government of Bangladesh.

It was a large-scale quantitative observation study of teaching and language practices among teachers and students participating in the EIA Primary and Secondary programs.

The purpose of this research was to determine the amount of student talk in lessons, as well as the use of the target language by both teachers and students. Thus this study focused upon the use of English by teachers and students, the extent of teacher and student talk time, the nature of the teachers' talk, as well as the nature of the activities that students took part in. One lesson from each of the 350 Primary teachers and 141 of the Secondary teachers were observed.

The results obtained indicated that there existed a significant difference between schools that emphasized communication and interaction activities in the classroom, compared to those which followed a traditional model of teaching.

The results from those schools that had an emphasis on communicative activities are as follows: The data from Primary classroom observations showed that the overall percentage of teacher talk time took up about a third (34%) of the lesson, while the overall percentage of student talk time was only slightly less (27%); unfortunately, the rest of the talking (39%) was reported to be in their native language (Bangla), which means that only 61% of the total talk was in the target language. If we only consider the talk that happened in English it makes an equivalent of 55.7 % of teacher talk and 44.3 % of student talk.

The data from Secondary classroom observations showed that the overall percentage of teacher talk time took up a third (33%) of the lesson, while the overall percentage of student talk time was 23%. The rest of the talking (44%) was also reported to be in their native language. Again if we only take into account the talk that was in the target language which is 56 %, it will come to 59% teacher talk and 41% student talk.

In the case of the schools which followed a very traditional approach there were few occasions when individual students or groups were encouraged to speak in English. The results of the study revealed that the

students got to produce the language orally only from 2% to 4% during observation time.

Although these results might not be so relevant to the institution where this study took place, as it is acquiring a more and more communicative methodology and teachers and students are expected to use only English in the classroom; they might make us think about the reality of public schools in Peru. I think that if this study had taken place in a public school the results might have been very similar to these ones as well.

1.7.4 Presentation, practice and production versus task based learning using form focused tasks.

This is a master's thesis conducted by Belinda Zavala Carrión, among elementary level language learners in Piura, in 2012.

This study investigated the homogeneous development of language skills through Task Based Learning framework, and the Presentation – Practice - Production model.

During this study, there were 23 students using the PPP model and 24 using the TBL framework for a period of two months. Both sample groups were composed of teenagers, young adults and adults. However, teenagers formed a predominant part of both classes. Data were collected through questionnaires and achievement tests.

The teacher's findings showed that there was a difference in the homogeneity of language skills developed under PPP and TBL. It might not have been such a relevant difference, but there was a difference. The participants' average score on listening, reading and writing skills were one point higher in TBL (L=12 / R&W=13) than in the PPP sample (L=11 / R/W=12). However. The participants' average score on speaking was quite similar (14) in both samples TBL and PPP respectively. In the TBL sample, listening and reading and writing differed from speaking in one or two points, whereas in the PPP sample the difference was from two to three points. This lead the researcher to conclude that language learners might develop language skills in a more homogeneous way when teachers

present their classes based on form-focused tasks following the Task Based Learning framework, than when taught through the Presentation – Practice - Production model

I could not agree more with the author of this study when she states that, “the similarity here just shows that it is possible to help our students to develop their language skills evenly using a variety of teaching models”. She continues to assert that, “as teachers, we should dare to vary our classes from the Presentation- Practice- Production model we have been taught from kindergarten to higher education in which students arrive at class and wait for the teacher or professors to teach them something”; fact that gives us teachers a feeling of control and power which actually could be canalized to students if we use an approach in which teachers are not too explicit and therefore encourage students’ L2 use. Changing it to Task Based Learning could be a way to start making our classes more student-centered and get used to our students’ freedom and avoid intervening too much.

1.7.5 Teaching English and task-based method.

This study was led by two teachers, Neda Fatehi Rad Aliye and Mohammad Jafari at the Islamic Azad University Anar Branch, Anar, Iran, in 2013

The present study aimed to evaluate the influence of task based learning strategies on Iranian EFL students’ writing and reading performance by proposing different frameworks. In order to study the influence of task based activities on Iranian EFL students’ writing performance, Willis’ Task Based Learning model was proposed; whereas for assessment of the relationship between task based strategies and reading, Rooney’s (1998) model was applied.

Fifty EFL students who were studying at Kerman Azad University were selected to attend this survey. A combination of qualitative and quantitative surveys were used for data collection and data analysis.

Results of the present study revealed that using task based strategies had a positive influence on EFL students' writing and reading outcomes. In addition, applying task based strategies as a learning method for EFL students helped them to solve some related problems and issues independently during writing and reading tasks. At the same time, task based learning strategies facilitated students to improve their writing and reading competence.

1.7.6 A case study of exploring viability of task-based instruction on college English teaching in big-sized class.

This is a study conducted by Xiangyang Zhang Jiangsu and Ming Chuan among Chinese college students in 2014.

This study, which took about 16 weeks, was undertaken to investigate viability of applying Task-based instruction into big-sized language classrooms. Pre and-post written tests, oral tests, and interviews were administered for data collections. Three main findings from the case study were reported: a) the experimental group was likely to have presented significantly better learning attainments when compared with the control group; b) the experimental group seemed to have shown significantly better oral English performance than the control group; c) the experimental group tended to have presented more active and motivated learning than the control group based on data collected from individual interviews.

As we can notice, all these studies have shed light on the potentials and practicability of the Task-based approach in the classroom in relation to the pupils' learning attainments, oral performance' (which is the main focus of the project we proposed here) and motivation in the context of studying English as a foreign language (EFL).

In addition, it is worthwhile to mention here that some scholars have also done some research in strict relation to the topic of our study: the effect of TBL on STT. (Unfortunately we do not have access to detailed information about such studies). For instance, after a research carried out in traditional classroom settings, Chaudron, concluded that "teacher talk takes up the largest proportion of classroom talk. It represents

approximately two-thirds (66%) of the total discourse in the lesson”¹⁵. In addition, the findings of a study of teacher-student interaction in content-based (grammar and vocabulary) classrooms, conducted by Musumeci (1996) showed that “the teacher talk time occupies about 66% to 72%”¹⁶.

¹⁵ Chaudron, C. (1988): *Second language classrooms: Research on teaching and learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

¹⁶ Musumeci, D. (1996): “Teacher-learner negotiation in content-based instruction: communication at cross-purposes?” In *studies in literature and language* (2010). vol. 1, no. 4: 29-48.

CHAPTER II: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Background

In the early 1980s there were considerable moves within language teaching to embrace the communicative approach. As a result a range of teaching activities gained prominence which emphasized the need for learners to focus on meaning and to convey information to one another rather than focusing only on language structures. These pedagogical developments were widespread, and influenced syllabus design, methodology, assessment, and an early proposal for the use of task-based approaches. However, what might be termed strong and weak forms of a task-based approach to instruction emerged.

Proponents of the “weak” version, which has become more or less standard practice in the last 30 years or so, stress the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes. The “strong” version of communicative teaching, on the other hand, advances the claim that language is acquired through communication alone. The former could be described as “learning to use English”, while the latter entails “using English to learn it”¹⁷.

¹⁷ Howatt, A. (1984): A history of English language teaching. Oxford: oxford University Press.

Since the weak version of communicative approach has been prevalent during the last three decades, Ellis argued that “CLT has traditionally employed a Present-Practice-Produce (PPP) procedure mainly directed at the linguistic forms of the target language¹⁸”. While the “strong” version of CLT would follow a task-based procedure.

2.2 The Presentation, Practice, Production Approach

In the first place, it should be remarked that there are many descriptions of PPP in the FLT literature¹⁹. Some authors such as Skehan refer to this model as a method or an approach. However, others such as Criado refer to it as “a pattern of activity sequencing or as a pedagogical strategy at the teachers’ disposal to teach language items”²⁰.

2.2.1 Definition of PPP

The shortest and clearest definition of this model emerges as, “an approach to teaching language items which follows a sequence of presentation of the item, practice of the item and then production (use) of the item”²¹.

2.2.2 The origins of PPP

The origins of PPP and of the explicit attention to activity sequencing issues can be traced back to the mid-20th century, when PPP became the adopted teaching sequence by the Structural Methods –the North-

¹⁸ Ellis, R. (2003)

¹⁹ For instance, Brumfit, 1979; Byrne, 1986; Gibbons, 1989; Harmer, 1996, 2007; Hedge, 2000; Read, 1985; Sánchez, 2004; Scrivener, 1994; Skehan 1998; Tomlinson, 2011a; D. Willis, 1996a; J. Willis, 1996; Woodward, 1993, 2001; Wu, 1998, etc.

²⁰ Criado, R. (2013: 97-115)

²¹ Tomlinson, B. (2011a): “Glossary”. In B. Tomlinson (Ed.), *Materials Development in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press: ix-xviii

American Audiolingual Method, the British Situational Language Teaching Method and the French Audiovisual Method. The objective of Structural Methods was the acquisition of structures. PPP was very useful to fulfil this objective, since it adapts well to the teaching of structures: aural exposure and teacher modelling in P1; drills or controlled practice in P2; and the transference of the previously studied structures to different situations in P3.

Precisely because of its ascription to Structural Methods, PPP has been and still is disparaged on learning and linguistic grounds. These criticisms are specially launched by Lexical Approach and Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) supporters such as Lewis and D. Willis & J. Willis, among others.

2.2.3 PPP frame

According to Criado a typical PPP lesson would proceed in the following manner:

An initial presentation phase (P1) in which the teacher highly controls the teaching/learning process. The materials in this phase contain all the targeted linguistic items and structures in the unit. This presentation can take a deductive or an inductive mode. In the former, the teacher/textbook models the target structure or lexical items and offers the explanation behind the construction of such structures or the meaning of the words. In the latter, also called “discovery learning”, students themselves are provided by the teacher/materials with sample structures and/or vocabulary contextualized in aural or written texts. Students have to induce the underlying rules and meanings.

A practice phase (P2), which still reflects a high level of teacher control in the sense that he/she checks his/her students’ correct understanding of the items presented in the first stage. These activities are aimed at achieving accuracy of forms so that fluency can be later achieved in production activities. The activities are aimed at achieving the linguistic targets presented in the initial

phase (P1), following the models to which the learners must adjust. “Drills” embody the most common type of practice activities –but by no means the only one.

A production stage (P3), which aims at increasing fluency in linguistic use, precisely through “autonomous and more creative activities”. The strategies for achieving such a goal are based on a freer use of the targeted structures. The kind of activities in the production stage may imply discussions, debates, role-plays, problem-solving activities, opinion and information gaps, etc²².

2.2.4 The problems with PPP

It all sounds quite logical; however, negative criticisms against PPP abound in FLT literature. Criticisms are more obvious in material developers and teachers who favor focus-on-meaning approaches (e.g. the “strong” Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) version, TBLT, the Lexical Approach, etc.). The negative evaluation of PPP is rooted at different levels and factors.

2.2.4.1 Negative criticisms at a linguistic level

Linguistic criticisms point to two different aspects: the use of structures and discrete items. Lewis claims that “PPP is useless because it is focused on a linguistic component which is not the core of communicative use: structures²³”. He states that it is the lexicon (collocations, idioms, multi-word items, etc) that lies at the core of meaning and therefore of linguistic communication.

The second reason for criticism against PPP refers to discrete items. Scrivener and Woodward point out “its atomistic nature, which allows for

²² Criado, R. (2013: 97-115)

²³ Lewis, M. (1996: 10-16).

an easy and disrupting segregation of the whole into isolated and poorly cohesive parts”²⁴, “thus favoring a sentence-level theory of language”²⁵.

2.2.4.2 Negative criticisms at a psychological level

The analytical view of language correlates well with the behavioristic psychological theory apparently behind PPP. According to Willis “this model pursues the student’s automatic response to specific stimuli received from outside”²⁶; that is, the teacher and teaching materials. Such practices lead the students to believe that the language they learn is made out of independent discrete items which can be assimilated and added to previously learned elements.

It is important to point out that this view of learning considers that language items can be learned as isolated elements or chunks, assuming that once they have been learned they do not need further revisiting for consolidation, implying that after the complete PPP sequence there is no need for further practice.

2.2.4.3 Negative criticisms at a psycholinguistic level

Firstly, PPP has been severely criticized for its emphasis on accuracy and correctness, favored by the strict discrete-item based version of PPP. Since risk-taking is an important ingredient of natural learning, the search for perfection and fully-defined linguistic goals does not allow for variety and hence for the selection of elements or structures which deviate from what is already prescribed. According to Willis “optionality is crucial for the development of interlanguage since experience tells us that we often acquire new knowledge without previous practice, or in the absence of explicit explanations”²⁷.

²⁴ Woodward, T. (1993): “Changing the basis of pre-service TEFL training in the U.K.” *IATEFL TT SIG Newsletter*, 13, 3-5.

²⁵ Scrivener, J. (1994). “PPP and after”. *The Teacher Trainer*, 8 (1): 15-16.

²⁶ Willis, D. (1996b): “Accuracy, fluency and conformity”. In D. Willis & J. Willis (Eds.), *Challenge and Change in Language Teaching*. Oxford: Heinemann: 44-51.

²⁷ Willis, J. (1993): “Preaching what we practice - Training what we teach: Task-based language learning as an alternative to P.P.P.” *The Teacher Trainer*, 8 (1): 17-20.

Secondly, the P2 phase has often been associated with mechanical drills, and consequently has also received harsh criticisms. In this respect, in DeKeyser's view, "drilling is rooted in the Audiolingual Method (ALM), which has become almost synonymous with the use and abuse of mechanical drills"²⁸.

Thirdly, in Pienemann's view "the linear and teaching-equals-learning perspective leads to the neglect of three important second language learning principles: readiness to learn, the delayed effect of instruction and the silent period"²⁹.

The main criticism against mechanical drills lies in their lack of resemblance to real-life communication and in the dissociation of form and meaning. "Emphasis on form alone does not favor the association form-meaning, and thus does not go in line with the cognitive parameters of language processing"³⁰.

2.2.4.4 Negative criticisms at a pedagogical level

*Disapproval of PPP is also rooted in four pedagogical factors: a) the prescriptive nature of the model; b) the tight teacher control of the sequence; c) the lack of efficiency in its application to real-life communication, and d) the learners' perception of the P3 stage, which does not necessarily match the teacher's perception or the materials' assumptions*³¹.

Scrivener comments that "this model, confines teachers and learners and it leaves no room for growth or exploration as it sets a limited number of teaching options, all of which can be pre-planned"... "Furthermore, PPP

²⁸ DeKeyser, R. M. (2007): "Introduction: Situating the concept of practice". In R. M. DeKeyser (Ed.): *Practice in a Second Language: Perspectives from Applied Linguistics and Cognitive Psychology*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press: 1-18.

²⁹ Pienemann, M. (2007): "Processability theory". In B. Van Patten & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in Second Language Acquisition*. N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

³⁰ DeKeyser, R. M. (2007)

³¹ Criado, R. (2013)

strengthens teachers' leadership and the prescriptive character of what learners should do"³².

Willis points out that under the PPP model "production is not achieved very often outside the classroom. Learners often fail when communicating (i.e., they do not do it, or they do it but not well) with native speakers"³³. Skehan also argued that "students do not learn what is taught in the same order in which it was taught, so the presentation, practice and production of material do not always line up"³⁴. Ellis summarizes two reasons for this result: First, "research in the field of SLA has demonstrated that learners do not acquire language the same way as it is often taught", which is presentation followed by controlled practice and then production (i.e., the PPP model of instruction); second, "learners take a series of transitional stages not included in PPP to acquire a specific grammatical feature"³⁵.

Richard Frost summarizes the main problems with PPP approach as follows. When using this method:

Students can give the impression that they are comfortable with the new language as they are producing it accurately in the class. Often though a few lessons later, students will either not be able to produce the language correctly or even won't produce it at all.

Students will often produce the language but overuse the target structure so that it sounds completely unnatural.

Students may not produce the target language during the free practice stage because they find they are able to use existing language resources to complete the task³⁶.

³² Scrivener, J. (1994)

³³ Willis, J. (1996): *A framework for task-based learning*. Harlow, UK: Longman: 135

³⁴ Skehan, P. (1996): "Second Language Acquisition research and task-based instruction". In J. Willis, & D. Willis (Ed.). *Challenge and change in language teaching*. Oxford: Heinemann.

³⁵ Ellis, R. (2003)

³⁶ Frost, R. (2014): "A Task-Based Approach". Turkey: *British Council*. April 26, 2004.

If PPP approach has all these drawbacks, then there is the need for a more communicative approach. Many researchers and teachers have claimed that Task-based learning offers an alternative for language teachers as it will help them overcome such learning problems.

2.3 The task-based language teaching approach

“Task-based language learning (TBLL), also known as task-based language teaching (TBLT) or task-based instruction (TBI)³⁷ is defined by Richards and Rodgers³⁸ and Ellis³⁹ as “an approach in which communicative and meaningful tasks play a central role in language learning and in which the process of using language appropriately carries more importance than the mere production of grammatically correct language forms”. Therefore, TBL is viewed as “one model of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in terms of regarding real and meaningful communication as the primary feature of language learning”⁴⁰. In other words, instruction is organized in such a way that students will improve their language ability by focusing on getting something done while using the language, rather than on explicitly practicing language forms, as in more traditional methods of instruction.

Task-based teaching constitutes what Howatt has termed a “strong communicative approach”⁴¹. This is because it aims not just to teach communication as an object (as is the case in the PPP approach) but to engage learners in authentic acts of communication in the classroom. It requires learners to treat the language they are learning as a tool. It gives

Online October 23, 2014. Accessible at: <http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/a-task-based-approach>

³⁷ Task-based language teaching was popularized by N. S. Prabhu (1987) in India; then, promoted by Dave and Jane Willis (2007) in England. Its main advocates today are Nunan, Long, Skehan, Ellis, and Willis.

³⁸ Richards, C. J. and Rodgers, T. S. (2001) *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

³⁹ Ellis, R. (2000). “Task-based research and language pedagogy”. *Language Teaching Research*. 4(3): 193-220.

⁴⁰ Ellis, R. (2000).

⁴¹ Howatt, A. (1984: 297)

primacy to ‘fluency’ over ‘accuracy’ but also claims that learners can achieve grammatical competence as a result of learning to communicate. Interestingly, however, it does not deny that learners need to attend to language form. For acquisition to take place, this has to occur in a context where attention to meaning is primary.

The learning principle underlying the task-based approach is that “learners will learn a language best if they engage in activities that have *interactional authenticity*⁴²”, i.e. require them to use language in ways that closely resemble how language is used naturally outside the classroom.

2.3.1 Defining “task”

If we explore task-based Language teaching literature we can identify numerous definitions of task. Some authors such as Breen would call almost any classroom activity a task; others, such as Prabhu would go to the other extreme to the point of totally excluding from a task anything that has to do with intentional focus on language or form. Thus, in Breen’s view: “A task is assumed to refer to a range of work plans which have the overall purpose of facilitating language learning – from the simple and brief exercise⁴³ type, to more complex and lengthy activities such as group problem solving or simulations and decision making”⁴⁴.

However, in Prabhu’s view “a task is a meaning-focused activity in which “learners are occupied with understanding, extending (e.g. through reasoning), or conveying meaning, and cope with language forms as demanded by that process”⁴⁵. Attention to language forms is thus not

⁴² Bachman, L. (1990): *Fundamental considerations in language testing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

⁴³ Exercises need to be distinguished from tasks. The former require a primary focus on form rather than meaning and typically ask learners to manipulate language given to them rather than to attempt to communicate using their own linguistic and non-linguistic resources.

⁴⁴ Breen, M. (1987): “Learner Contributions to task design”. In J. Willis & D. Willis (Eds) (2007): *Doing task based teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

⁴⁵ Prabhu, N. S. (1987): *Second language Pedagogy*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

intentional but incidental to perceiving, expressing, and organizing meaning.

Nevertheless, there seems to be a broad consensus among researchers and educators with Skehan's viewpoint that in TBLT, a task must be seen as a "workplan"⁴⁶ where:

- *Meaning is primary.*
- *Learners are not restricted in their use of language forms.*
- *Tasks should bear a relationship to real-world activities*⁴⁷.
- *The priority is on achieving the goal of the task.*
- *Tasks are assessed based on their outcome*⁴⁸.

Similarly, Nunan's viewpoint on task is that "it is a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than linguistic structures"⁴⁹.

Long introduced the concept of "focus on form", which entails bringing linguistic elements (e.g., vocabulary, grammatical structures, collocations) to students' attention within the larger context of a meaning-based lesson in order to anticipate or correct problems in comprehension or production of the target language⁵⁰. But form should be

⁴⁶ TBLT seen as workplan includes a sequence of steps or "mini-tasks" towards a goal as distinguished from a simple exercise.

⁴⁷ We need to draw a basic distinction between real-world or target tasks and pedagogical tasks. "Real-world tasks, as the name implies, refer to the uses of language in the world beyond the classroom; pedagogical tasks are those activities that occur in the classroom as the result of processing or understanding language as stated by Richards, et al (1986: 289)

⁴⁸ Skehan, P. (1998): "Task-based instruction". *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* 18: 268–86.

⁴⁹ Nunan, D. (1989): *Designing tasks for the communicative classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press: 49.

⁵⁰ Long, M. (1991): "Focus on form: a design feature in language teaching methodology". In K. de Bot, R. Ginsberg and C. Kramsch (Eds). *Foreign language research in cross-cultural perspective*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins: 39–52.

subordinated to meaning and, for this reason, should come after rather than before a task.

Lightbown and Spada clarified this point by contrasting what they call the “get it right from the beginning” approach and the “get it right in the end” approach. The former is based on the belief that “it is possible to accumulate one grammatical form after another” and tend to follow a PPP sequence of lessons. The latter, however, is based on the belief that “what learners need most of all are exposure to language and opportunities to use language meaningfully”⁵¹. This does not mean that form-focused instruction does not fit into communicative contexts. The challenge is to find the right balance between meaning-based and form-focused activities so that learners acquire both fluency and accuracy skills.

As has been noted, there are different definitions based on everything from the real world to pedagogical perspectives of tasks. However, throughout all definitions, tasks relate to goals reached through the active participation of learners. For a more balanced view on tasks, the definitions from various perspectives are discussed chronologically. (*See table 1*)

⁵¹ Lightbown, P. and Spada N. (2006): “How languages are learned”. Oxford: Oxford University Press. In D. Nunan (2004): *Task-Based Language Teaching*. UK: Cambridge University Press.

Table 1: Chronological definitions of task⁵²

Researchers	Researchers Key Concepts
Long (1985)	What people do in everyday life, at work, at play, and in between.
Breen (1987)	A range of work plans for exercise and activities in language instruction.
Littlejohn (1988)	Any proposal within the materials for action undertaken by the learners to bring up the foreign language learning.
Skehan (1996)	Meaning, task completion, the real-world and outcome are focused.
Willis (1996)	A classroom undertaking for a communicative purpose to achieve an outcome.
Ellis (2003)	A work plan that requires learners to process the target language pragmatically (for a communicative purpose) to achieve an outcome.
Nunan (2005)	A piece of classroom work to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form.

2.3.2 The task elements

Following Nunan's view, the task elements "include the goals, the input data, the activities or procedures, the roles and the settings⁵³. The goals of a learning task are related not only to specific domains of language use, such as the academic, the professional, the social and the commercial skills but to other aspects of the learning process. For that reason "the goals can be classified into socio-cultural, process-oriented or cultural and communicative"⁵⁴. Input data refers to verbal materials, such as spoken or

⁵² Izadpanah, S. (2010): "A study on Task-based Language Teaching: From theory to practice". Iran: Islamic Azad University of Zanzan Branch, *Islamic 45139-76615*. Online November 21, 2014. Accessible at <http://capswriting.pbworks.com/f/Task-based+Language+Teaching.pdf>

⁵³ Nunan, D. (2004: 10)

⁵⁴ Clark, J. (1987). *Curriculum Renewal in School Foreign Language Learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press

written language; or non-verbal materials, such as diagrams, maps, pictures, charts that learners are faced with at the beginning of their task.⁵⁵.

Their difficulty depends on the text genre and the text structure, but generally input data should be appropriate for the characteristics of the learners in order to be able to complete the task. Activities or procedures are the actual tasks in which learners have to engage. Some significant aspects include the distribution of information, the importance of information exchange and the focus of the task's interaction.

The activities are classified according to three basic activity types which include information gap, reasoning gap and opinion gap activities. As far as the roles are concerned, "teachers operate in the background while they have to take two core actions, motivate the language learners and support them with planned or unplanned interventions"⁵⁶. While "learners take the control of the task, since they are responsible for the negotiation of meaning, which may mean correcting each other to complete a task appropriately"⁵⁷.

Setting refers to the teacher and student relation and physical environment. It is evident from research results in classroom settings that most researchers believe in the effectiveness of pair and group work during a task⁵⁸.

⁵⁵ Hover, D. (1986). *Think twice: Teacher's book*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

⁵⁶ Van den Branden, K. (2006): "The role of the teacher in task-based language teaching". *Task-based Language Education: From theory to practice*, 8: 175-196.

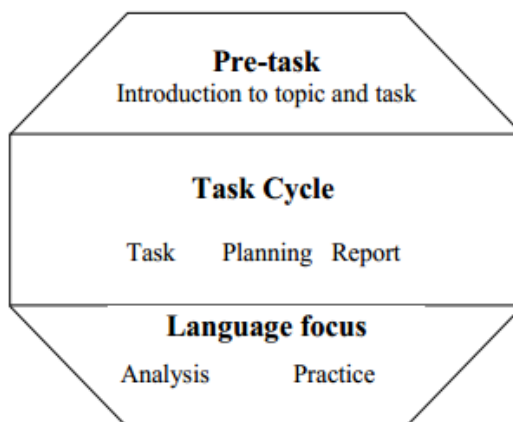
⁵⁷ Sharman, K. (2011). "Task Based Teaching: Using Modals for ESL Learners". *ELT Voices-India*, 45/1.

⁵⁸ Anderson, A. & Lynch. T. (1988): "Listening". In S. Manta (ed.): "The Relationship between PPP and TBLT: Reference to a Specific Task and Ways of Assessment". *American International Journal of Social Science* (2013) Vol. 2 No. 4

2.3.3 The task framework

Jane Willis, in her book “A Framework for Task-Based Learning”, outlines the three stages in a task: “pre-task, task cycle and language focus”⁵⁹.

Table 2: Willis’s framework of TBLT⁶⁰



2.3.3.1 Pre-task

According to Ellis, the purpose of the pre-task phase is to prepare students to perform the task in ways that promote acquisition. Thus, in order to help learners tackle both the cognitive and the linguistic demands of tasks despite the learners’ limited attentional capacity we can resort to four different ways:

(1) supporting learners in performing a task similar to the target task, (2) asking students to observe a model of how to perform a task, (3) engaging learners in non-task activities designed to prepare them to perform the task or (4) strategic planning of the main task performance which refers to giving students enough time to plan how they will perform the task⁶¹.

⁵⁹ Willis, J. (1996): *A Framework for Task-Based Learning*. Essex: Longman.

⁶⁰ Willis, J. (1996: 38)

⁶¹ Ellis, R. (2003: 83)

However, for Willis, this phase serves three main purposes:

*First, the teacher **introduces** and defines the topic. Second, the teacher motivates learners to **identify** topic language and helps students to recall and activate words and phrases that will be useful both during the performance of the main task or outside the classroom. Third, the teacher gives the task **instructions** about what the task involves, what its goals are and what outcome is required after a given time. To ensure all learners understand the teacher could demonstrate the task with a good student, or play an audio or video recording of fluent speakers doing the task⁶².*

Still in Prabhu's view, the term "pre-task" has been mistakenly understood as involving direct teaching. In his view, "the pre-task enables the teacher to assess how difficult or easy the task which is to follow is going to be for the class and, with limits, to adjust its difficulty-level accordingly"⁶³, breaking down the activity into smaller steps and announcing the procedures to be employed.

At this stage, Willis continues by saying that students may get engaged in activities (facilitating "tasks") such as classifying words and phrases, identifying words or phrases that do not fit into a set, matching phrases to pictures either visually or from memory, brainstorming or writing mind maps, thinking of questions to ask, listening to the teacher recount a similar experience, or hearing a recording of others doing a similar task.

This phase will usually be the shortest stage in the framework. It could last between two and twenty minutes, depending on the learners' degree of familiarity with the topic and the type of task as well as the time available.

⁶² Willis, J. (1996: 42),

⁶³ Prabhu, N. S. (1987: 43-55)

2.3.3.2 Task cycle

This cycle includes three sub-stages: the task, planning and report. Here, the learners perform the task in pairs or small groups and the teacher monitors from a distance. Then, they prepare a report for the whole class on how they did the task and what conclusions they reached. Finally they present their findings to the class in spoken or written form.

However, before the task performance, students may be allowed some individual preparation time to plan how to tackle the task, think of what to say and how to say it. Length of preparation time depends on the type of topic and task, from two to ten minutes. The more complex the task and the more unfamiliar the topic, the longer the time allowed.

A **genuine task** must have students focus on meaning rather than on form. Authentic or genuine tasks would typically have students come to an agreement or find the right solution within a given time limit. A genuine task should generate its own language and create an opportunity for language use and acquisition, and students should be free to use any language item they want to achieve the goals of the task. Tasks can take from one minute to ten or more, depending on the type of task and its complexity.

Upon completing the task, the **planning** before the report stage comes. At this point the teacher comments on one or two interesting things he or she has heard while walking around and observing from a distance, and then gives clear explanations about the purpose of the report, what type of audience it is targeted to, the form of the report, the resources at the students' disposal, how long their presentation should be and a set time limit for the planning.

During the planning stage, the teacher's main role is that of language advisor, helping students shape their meanings and express more exactly what they want to say, but it is a good general rule for the teacher to wait until asked before offering help.

Finally, the natural conclusion of the task cycle is the **report** stage. Depending on the level of the class and type of task, a report might last as

little as 20-30 seconds or up to two minutes. During this stage, the main role of the teacher is that of a chairperson, to introduce the presentations, to set a purpose for listening, to nominate who speaks next, and to sum up at the end. Content and language feedback should be done at the end and always in a positive way. Interruptions or corrections during the presentations should be avoided.

2.3.3.3 The language focus stage

At this stage, which could be done immediately after the reports or in the next lesson, the teacher highlights specific language features from the task and the learners **analyze** and **practice** new words, phrases and patterns. During language practice, learners do not necessarily have to produce the language.

Nevertheless, according to Ellis “of all the three phases only the task-cycle is really obligatory in task-based teaching”⁶⁴. Thus minimally, a task-based lesson consists of the students just performing a task. Options selected from the pre-task or post-task phases are non-obligatory but can serve a crucial role in ensuring that the task performance is maximally effective for language development.

2.3.4 The task features

The last element of a task according to TBLT theory refers to the task features that describe the attributes that need to exist for a task to be considered applicable and purposeful. “A task should be a ‘workplan’ that pays attention to meaning rather than form and comprises real processes of language use where any of the four language skills (listening, speaking, writing, and reading) can be involved”⁶⁵. In a task the communicative outcome holds a very important position, as efficiency has priority over correctness.

⁶⁴ Ellis, R. (2003:80)

⁶⁵ Ellis, R. (2003)

According to Ellis, a task has four main characteristics:

1. *A task involves a primary focus on (pragmatic) meaning.*
2. *A task has some kind of “gap”.*
3. *The participants choose the linguistic resources needed to complete the task.*
4. *A task has a clearly defined, non-linguistic outcome*⁶⁶.

Additionally, the emphasis on creation rather than reproduction allows many times more classroom and group work, so that the students can exchange opinions and learn from each other⁶⁷.

2.3.5 Types of tasks

According to N. S. Prabhu, “there are three main categories of tasks: information-gap, reasoning-gap, and opinion-gap”⁶⁸. Several second language acquisition (SLA) researchers have claimed that these three types of tasks are the most likely to promote negotiation, oral interaction and thus more student talk⁶⁹. However, more recent language acquisition researchers and teachers also make reference to another type of task, the form-focused task⁷⁰.

2.3.5.1 Information-gap tasks

These involve a transfer of given information from one person to another – or from one form to another, or from one place to another – generally calling for the decoding of information from or into language. One example is pair work in which each member of the

⁶⁶ Ellis, R. (2003)

⁶⁷ Ellis, R. (2003).

⁶⁸ Prabhu N. S. (1987: 40-47)

⁶⁹ Doughty, C. and Pica, T. (1986): “Information Gap Tasks: Do They Facilitate Second Language Acquisition?”. *TESOL Quarterly* 20 (2): 305–325.

⁷⁰ These three types of tasks were considered as the target tasks during this study. However, some of the “tasks” proposed by Dave Willis and Jane Willis (2007) such as listing and/or brainstorming, ordering and sorting, matching, comparing and contrasting were considered as “facilitating tasks” in that their function was to help learners to carry out the target tasks.

pair has a part of the total information (for example an incomplete picture) and attempts to convey it verbally to another. Another example is completing a tabular representation with information available in a given piece of text. The activity often involves selection of relevant information as well, and learners may have to meet criteria of completeness and correctness in making the transfer⁷¹.

2.3.5.2 Reasoning-gap tasks

These involve deriving some new information from given information through processes of inference, deduction, practical reasoning, or a perception of relationships or patterns. One example is working out a teacher's timetable on the basis of a given class timetable. Another is deciding what course of action is best (for example cheapest or quickest) for a given purpose and within given constraints. (Still another example can be trying to solve a mysterious event, for example, trying to find out who was the author of a murder). The activity necessarily involves comprehending and conveying information, as an information-gap activity, but the information to be conveyed is not identical with that initially comprehended. There is a piece of reasoning which connects the two⁷².

2.3.5.3 Opinion-gap tasks

These involve identifying and articulating a personal preference, feeling or attitude in response to a given situation. One example is a story completion, another is taking part in the discussion of a social issue. The activity may involve using factual information and formulating arguments to justify one's opinion, but there is no objective procedure for demonstrating outcomes as right or wrong,

⁷¹ Prabhu N. S. (1987: 46)

⁷² Prabhu N. S. (1987: 46)

*and no reason to expect the same outcome from different individuals or on different occasions*⁷³.

2.3.5.4 Form-focused “tasks”

Even though language is now generally seen as a dynamic resource for the creation of meaning, it also seems to be widely accepted that there is a value in classroom tasks which require learners to focus on form. In this regard, Willis points out that “too much emphasis on small group communication without any call for accuracy may result in some learners' grammar fossilizing combined with the risk of developing fluency at the expense of accuracy”⁷⁴. Spada has also suggested that explicit teaching of form can have beneficial effects on L2 learning⁷⁵.

2.3.6 Separating meaning-focused from form-focused tasks

For the purpose of our research, we only collected data from meaning-focused tasks. This by no means implies that form-focused tasks are not important. Actually, we also had some form-focused lessons because they play an important role in developing accuracy. But they were considered as separate tasks and took place only after communicative tasks. This decision was backed up by two hypotheses.

2.3.6.1 The “limited capacity processing” hypothesis

Proponents of this hypothesis claim that one of the problems with PPP model of teaching is that learners do not necessarily produce what they have practiced. One reason for this model's failure may be the implicit view of the mind as capable of assimilating the meaning, form and phonological features of linguistic items simultaneously.

⁷³ Prabhu N. S. (1987: 47)

⁷⁴ Willis, D. and Willis, J. (2007): *Doing Task-based teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

⁷⁵ Spada, N. (1997): *Form-focused instruction and second language acquisition: A review of classroom and laboratory research*. Canada: McGill University.

Van Patten suggests that learners cannot process data consciously for meaning and form simultaneously: “given the limited capacity for processing involved in conscious attention, and that conscious processing during learning in general is serial and effortful in nature, it is doubtful that learners in the early and intermediate stages of acquisition pay conscious attention to form in the input”⁷⁶.

Additionally, after carrying out a series of experiments with a group of English speaking university students of Spanish, Van Patten concluded that: “conscious attention to form in the input competes with conscious attention to meaning, and by extension, that only when input is easily understood can learners attend to form as part of the intake process”⁷⁷.

Skehan too agrees with this conclusion and describes learners’ capacity as follows: “one chooses to attend to some things at the expense of others, and the choice of attentional direction, as well as the use of attentional resources themselves, have costs as far as the processing of potential forgone material is concerned”⁷⁸

2.3.6.2 The “noticing the gap” hypothesis

This hypothesis claims that input does not become intake for language learning unless it is noticed, that is, consciously registered. Ellis puts the case for this type of practice as part of his justification of the structural syllabus. Ellis’s argument was that, while the structural syllabus may be unrealistic in terms of what it expects students to produce, “it may well serve as a means of raising students’ consciousness about grammar and thus enable them to notice the gap between the current state of their own interlanguage and the input”⁷⁹. However, he suggests that when learners have their attention focused on linguistic items they should not be required to produce them. The teaching of grammar thus becomes a

⁷⁶ Van Patten, B. (1990): “Attending to Form and content in the input: An Experiment in Consciousness”. *Studies in Second language Acquisition*: 287-302.

⁷⁷ Van Patten, B (1990: 196)

⁷⁸ Skehan, P. (1996: 45)

⁷⁹ Ellis, R. (2003)

consciousness awareness process, “the aim of which is to instill an understanding of the formal and functional properties of these features by helping the learners develop a cognitive representation of them rather than using those structures for communicative purposes”⁸⁰

Schmidt and Frota pointed out that “one of the advantages of conscious notice-the-gap principles is that it provides a way to include a role for correction” and thus prevent fossilization. Consequently, they suggested that for correction to have any effect, learners must become aware that they are being corrected⁸¹.

“Task demands are a powerful determinant of what is noticed, and provide one of the basic arguments that what is learned is what is noticed. It really does not matter whether someone intends to learn or not, what matters is how the task forces the material to be processed”⁸². In the simplest terms, people learn about the things that they pay attention to and do not learn much about the things to which they do not attend.

2.3.7 Advantages of task-based teaching

According to Jon Larsson, in considering problem-based learning for language learning, i.e. task-based language learning:

...one of the main virtues of PBL is that it displays a significant advantage over traditional methods in how the communicative skills of the students are improved. The general ability of social interaction is also positively affected. These are, most will agree, two central factors in language learning. By building a language course around assignments that require students to act, interact and communicate it is hopefully possible to mimic some of the aspects of learning a language “on site”, i.e. in a country where it is actually spoken. Seeing how learning a language in such an environment is

⁸⁰ Ellis (1993): *The Structural Syllabus in Second language Acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press: 109.

⁸¹ Schmidt and Frota (1986:312)

⁸² Schmidt, R. (2001): Attention. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Cognition and second language instruction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press: 3-32.

*generally much more effective than teaching the language exclusively as a foreign language, this is something that would hopefully be beneficial*⁸³.

Other researchers have also claimed that TBLT is an approach to language teaching that “can be manipulated and adapted by teachers in terms of the characteristics and the needs of the learners”. In this particular approach, “tasks constitute the central mean of instruction, since they determine the classroom activities, the curriculum and the syllabus and the ways of assessment”⁸⁴.

In task-based lessons the teacher doesn't pre-determine what language will be studied. “The lesson is based around the completion of a central task and the language studied is determined by what happens as the students complete it”⁸⁵.

Task-based activities, are ‘convergent’ in nature since learners are required to use the target language as a means to reach a specific outcome or consensus. This outcome may be open-ended, however, with no single “right” answer. “During the activity, there is more emphasis on learners through expressing the meaning by using all the target language to ensure comprehension, rather than using particular linguistic features or conversing on a specific topic”⁸⁶.

Richard Frost summarizes some advantages of task-based as follows:

Unlike a PPP approach, the students are free of language control.

⁸³ Larsson, J. (2001): *Problem-Based Learning: A possible approach to language education?*. Polonia Institute: Jagiellonian University. Online, January 10, 2015. Accessible at: <http://www.nada.kth.se/~jla/docs/PBL.pdf>

⁸⁴ Samuda, V. and Bygate, M. (2008): *Tasks in Second Language Learning*. Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan

⁸⁵ Willis, J. (1996: 35)

⁸⁶ Duff, P. (1986): “Another look at inter-language talk: taking task to task”. In R. Day (Ed.), *Talking to learn: Conversation in second language acquisition*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

In all three stages they must use all their language resources rather than just practicing one pre-selected item.

A natural context is developed from the students' experiences with the language that is personalized and relevant to them. With PPP it is necessary to create contexts in which to present the language and sometimes they can be very unnatural.

The students will have a much more varied exposure to language with TBL. They will be exposed to a whole range of lexical phrases, collocations and patterns as well as language forms.

The language explored arises from the students' needs. This need dictates what will be covered in the lesson rather than a decision made by the teacher or the course book.

It is a strong communicative approach where students spend a lot of time communicating. PPP lessons seem very teacher-centered by comparison⁸⁷.

In conclusion, researchers and educators agree that even though PPP is an approach more easily adopted by the teacher due to its clear structure and objectives, we cannot overcome the fact that TBLT addresses more effectively the demands of a modern classroom, of the modern learners who seem to look for an educational concept that is more student-centered and allows an efficient amount of communication during the teaching and learning process. These demands follow the general turn of the society towards communicative teaching and learning, since people need to use the second language in terms of the modern multicultural society.

2.3.8 The importance of pair and group work in tasks

Many researchers assert that practice is most beneficial when carried out in collaboration with small groups or peers rather than with the teacher or in a whole-class setting. Thus, the teacher should frequently use pair work to maximize each learner's opportunity to speak and reduce his or

⁸⁷ Frost, R. (2014)

her dominance in the classroom. In this form of interaction, the teacher plays a role as a monitor and learners are the main participants.

Several scholars such as Harmer proposed that pair work increases the amount of talking time available to every learner in the classroom⁸⁸. According to Sullivan “pair or group work is considered the most interactive way”⁸⁹. This view sounds quite logical if we picture a real lesson in the classroom. Naturally, when the teacher directs turn taking and calls on students to participate one by one during a lesson, the total student talking time is going to be much less than if we design activities that allow students to work in pairs or small groups.

2.4 Differences between PPP and TBLT in the classroom

Ellis contrasts two sets of classroom processes. The first set corresponds to the classroom behaviors that are typical of traditional form-focused pedagogy where the language is treated as an object and the students are required to act as “learners”. The second set reflects the behaviors that characterize a task-based pedagogy, where language is treated as a tool for communicating and the teacher and students function primarily as language users.(See table 3)

⁸⁸ Harmer, J. (2001): *Mistakes and Feedback? The Practice of English Language Teaching*. Essex, UK: Pearson Education Limited.

⁸⁹ Sullivan, P. (2000). “Playfulness as Mediation Communicative Language Teaching in a Vietnamese Classroom”. In J. P. Landtolf (Ed.). *Sociocultural Theory and Second Language Learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Table 3: Stereotypical classroom processes in traditional form-focused pedagogy and task-based pedagogy⁹⁰.

Traditional form-focused pedagogy	Task-based pedagogy
<p>Rigid discourse structure of IRF (initiate-respond-feedback) exchanges.</p> <p>Teacher controls topic development.</p> <p>Turn-taking is regulated by the teacher.</p> <p>Use of display questions (e.g. the teacher already knows the answer).</p> <p>Students are placed in a responding role and consequently perform a limited range of language functions.</p> <p>Little need or opportunity to negotiate meaning.</p> <p>Scaffolding directed primarily at enabling students to produce correct sentences.</p> <p>Form-focused feedback.</p> <p>Echoing (e.g. the teacher repeats what the student has said for the benefit of the whole class).</p>	<p>Loose discourse structure consisting of adjacency pairs.</p> <p>Students are able to control topic development.</p> <p>Turn-taking is regulated by the same rules that govern everyday conversation.</p> <p>Use of referential questions (e.g. the teacher does not know what the answer is).</p> <p>Students function in both initiating and responding roles and thus perform a wide range of language functions.</p> <p>Opportunities to negotiate meaning when communication problems arise.</p> <p>Scaffolding directed primarily at enabling students to say what they want to say.</p> <p>Content-focused feedback</p> <p>Repetition (e.g. a student elects to repeat something another student or the teacher has said as private speech or to establish intersubjectivity-interpersonal relationship).</p>

⁹⁰ Ellis, R. (2001): "The methodology of Task-based teaching". In R. Ellis (2003): Task-based language learning and teaching. Oxford: Oxford University press: 88

Despite these clear differences, it should be noted that PPP has been transformed, even if the supporters of TBLT do not acknowledge it. The revised PPP approach has left in the past some of the characteristics that were negatively criticized by researchers. Particularly, the notions of mechanical, automatized knowledge and accuracy-based learning as well as form- and teacher-centeredness have been reviewed according to the principles of a more communicative approach. In the revised approach of PPP we find a preference towards meaningful learning and learners' practice on actual use of the second language through more communicative activities. This means that the procedures to be followed now in PPP are more similar to those of TBLT. As a consequence, their distinction is based on the area of providing implicit or explicit knowledge, meaning that the gap between the two approaches is becoming smaller.

2.5 Theoretical foundations of Task-based language teaching

According to Ellis "there are two main theories that account for Task-based teaching: the psycholinguistic perspective and the socio-cultural theory"⁹¹.

The former draws on a computational model of second language (L2) acquisition. According to this perspective, "tasks are viewed as devices that provide learners with the data they need for learning"⁹². The design of a task is seen as potentially determining the kind of language use and opportunities for learning that arise. Thus, in this view, acquisition is seen as the product of processing input and output.

The latter is premised on the claim that participants co-construct the 'activity' they engage in when performing a task, in accordance with their own socio-history and locally determined goals, and that, therefore, it is difficult to make reliable predictions regarding the kinds of language use and opportunities for learning that will arise. The socio-cultural theory

⁹¹ Ellis, R. (2000: 193–220)

⁹² Lantolf, J. (1996): "Second language acquisition theory-building: 'Letting all the flowers bloom'. *Language Learning* 46: 713–749

emphasizes the dialogic processes (such as ‘scaffolding’) that arise in a task performance and how these shape language use and learning.

Both theories afford insights that are of value to Task-based pedagogy. The psycholinguistic approach provides information that is of importance for **planning** task-based teaching and learning. The socio-cultural approach illuminates the kinds of **improvisation** that teachers and learners need to engage in during task-based activity to promote communicative efficiency and L2 acquisition.

2.5.1 The psycholinguistic theory

This theory chiefly draws on two hypotheses: interaction hypothesis and the output hypothesis.

2.5.1.1 The interaction hypothesis

The interaction hypothesis itself is most clearly associated with the work of Michael Long. This hypothesis states that “the development of language proficiency is promoted by face-to-face interaction and communication in the classroom”⁹³.

The Cambridge International Dictionary of English defines the verb ‘to interact’ as ‘to communicate with or react to (each other)’⁹⁴. Therefore interaction is more than action followed by reaction. It includes acting reciprocally, acting upon each other. Brown relates interaction to communication, saying, “...interaction is, in fact, the heart of communication: it is what communication is all about”⁹⁵.

⁹³ Long, M. H. (1996): “The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition”. In C. William; T. Ritchie and K. Bhatia (eds.): *Handbook of second language acquisition*. New York: Academic Press: 413-468.

⁹⁴ Cambridge International Dictionary of English on CD-ROM (2000): Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

⁹⁵ Brown, D. H. (2001): *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to language Pedagogy*. White Plains. NY: Pearson Education-Longman: 165.

Therefore, “classroom interaction is a key of second language acquisition and exists as the central feature. It describes the interpersonal activity taking place during face-to-face communication”⁹⁶. The interaction influencing second language acquisition in the classroom occurs between teacher and learners and learners and learners, and outside the classroom it usually occurs between non-native speakers and native speakers of a second language.

In interaction, “students can use all they possess of the language – all they have learned or casually absorbed in real life exchanges ...”⁹⁷. According to Ellis “interaction is considered as the discourse which is jointly constructed by learners and their interlocutors and output is the result of interaction”⁹⁸. It facilitates language learning, engages students in language-learning activities and makes more outputs of the language. This implies that for interaction to occur, pair or group work is essential.

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages describes interaction as follows:

*In interaction at least two individuals participate in an oral and/ or written exchange in which production and reception alternate and may in fact overlap in oral communication, where not only may two interlocutors be speaking and yet listening to each other simultaneously. Even where turn-taking is strictly respected, the listener is generally already forecasting the remainder of the speaker’s message and preparing a response. Learning to interact thus involves more than listening to receive and to produce utterances*⁹⁹.

⁹⁶ Ellis, R. (1999): *Learning a second language through interaction*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

⁹⁷ Rivers, W. M. (Ed.). (1987): *Interactive language teaching*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

⁹⁸ Ellis, R. (1985): *Understanding second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

⁹⁹ Council of Europe (2004). The common European framework of reference for languages: learning, teaching, assessment. Online, October 25, 2014. Accessible at: http://www.coe.int/T/DG4/Linguistic/Source/Framework_EN.pdf

According to Angelo “classroom interaction comprises teacher-learner and learner-learner interaction, which is one of ten principles of effective teaching”¹⁰⁰. This implies that all the agents of learning in the classroom should have active roles but preference given to those who are learning a new language, the students.

2.5.1.2 The output hypothesis

The output hypothesis is typically associated with the work of Swain, who asserts that output is the result of interaction. Learners can improve their language level through producing output – in written or spoken forms. Swain concludes the role of output in three points.

Firstly, the need to produce output in the process of negotiating precise, coherent and appropriate meaning encourages learners to develop the necessary grammatical resources. Secondly, output provides learners with opportunities to try out hypotheses to see if they work. Thirdly, production helps to force learners to move from semantic to syntactic processing¹⁰¹.

As Swain has pointed out, output can have two forms: written or spoken. Spoken or oral output is strictly related to student talk. Thus, at the simplest level, student talk time (STT) refers to how much the students talk during a lesson in contrast to teacher talk time (TTT). Student’s talk includes all student utterances directed to the teacher and peers as they perform a task. Oral exchange is necessary to carry out the task, as Gass proposes, as is collaboration in order to produce an outcome¹⁰².

¹⁰⁰ Angelo, T.A. (1993): “A Teacher’s Dozen: Fourteen General, Research-based Principles for Improving Higher Learning in Our Classrooms”. *AAHE Bulletin*, 45(8).

¹⁰¹ Swain, M. (1985): “Communicative competence: some roles of comprehensible output in its development”. In S. Gass and C. Maddern (Eds.): *Input in second language acquisition*. Cambridge, MA: Newberry House Publishers: 235-253.

¹⁰² Gass, S. M. (Ed.). (1997): *Input, Interaction, and the Second Language Learners*. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

2.5.2 The socio-cultural theory

The second view is socio-cultural in orientation, drawing on the work of Vygotsky¹⁰³ and Leont'ev¹⁰⁴ among others. This approach views language learning as socially constructed through interaction of one kind or another and, thus, treats 'tasks' as work-plans that are enacted in accordance with the personal dispositions and goals of individual learners in particular settings, making it difficult to predict the nature of the activity that arises out of a task.

One of the central claims of socio-cultural theory is that "participants always co-construct the activity they engage in"¹⁰⁵, in accordance with their own socio-history and locally-determined goals. As Appel and Lantolf point out, "performance depends crucially on the interaction of individuals and task rather than on the inherent properties of the task itself"¹⁰⁶. In order to perform a task, the learners have to interpret it. This is reflected in the effort that learners put into orientating to the task and establishing their goals for performing it.

Another important claim is that "learning arises not through interaction but in interaction"¹⁰⁷. Learners first succeed in performing a new function with the assistance of another person and then internalize this function so that they can perform it unassisted. In this way, social interaction facilitates scaffolding by the participants.

Scaffolding is the term given to the provision of appropriate assistance to students in order that they may achieve what alone would have been too difficult for them. Visual scaffolding is support that includes images and words that can be seen as well as heard. Visual scaffolding is an excellent way to provide comprehensible input to ESL students so that

¹⁰³ Vygotsky, L. (1986): *Thought and language*. Cambridge: MIT Press

¹⁰⁴ Leont'ev, A. (1981): *Psychology and the language learning process*. Oxford: Pergamon.

¹⁰⁵ Vygotsky, L. (1986)

¹⁰⁶ Lantolf, J. and Appel, G. (Eds) (1994): *Vygotskian approaches to second language research*. NJ: Ablex.

¹⁰⁷ Lantolf, J. and Appel, G. (1994)

they will not only learn the essential subject content but also make progress in their acquisition of English.

Jerome Bruner, researcher in cognitive and educational psychology, coined the term scaffolding as a description for the kind of assistance given by the teacher or more knowledgeable peer in providing comprehensible input (a notion devised by Stephen Krashen) and moving the learner into the zone of proximal development (ZPD), a concept introduced by Lev Vygotsky, a Russian psychologist, which is the notional gap between a.) the learner's current developmental level as determined by independent problem-solving ability and b.) the learner's potential level of development as determined by the ability to solve problems under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers.

According to Wood, Bruner and Ross:

*Scaffolding can involve recruiting interest in the task, simplifying the task as necessary, maintaining pursuit of the goal of the task, marking critical features and discrepancies between what has been produced and the ideal solution, controlling frustration during problem solving and demonstrating an idealized version of the act to be performed*¹⁰⁸.

Experience tells us that scaffolding is essentially important at beginner levels. Later on, as learners acquire more language and task performance abilities, they might be able to perform tasks with little support from the teacher or peer.

¹⁰⁸ Wood, D., Bruner, J. and Ross, G. (1976): "The role of tutoring in problem solving". *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry* 17: 89–100.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY OF THE INVESTIGATION

3.1 Investigation type

This study is of a quasi-experimental kind. The design is quasi-experimental. It is based on the measurement and comparison of the answer variable (student talk) before and after (pretest and posttest) the students have been exposed to the experiment. We worked with two groups, the control group and the experimental group with the implementation of TBLT as the intervention in the experimental group. In addition, this is a quasi-experiment because an independent variable (TBL) was manipulated while another variable (PPP) was controlled to see effects on the dependent variable (student talk), but since this is action research in the classroom it was impossible to exercise complete control over many other variables that may have had a significant effect on student talking time, such as those proposed by Fawzia, according to whom, there are many factors influencing classroom interaction:

Factors are divided into three categories: student factors, social factors and educational factors. Student factors contain student's perception, attitudes, language factors, learning styles, background of students and personal affective factors. Social factors include the gender of students in class and natural

*community feelings in a group. The lecturer, the course and the topic are all related to pedagogical factors*¹⁰⁹.

3.2 Design of the investigation.

In order to measure the variability of student talking time, an independent group design was arranged where one worked as the control group and the other as the experimental group with a pretest and posttest design. The control group was used for measuring the effect of the method being used at ICPNA: the Classroom Interactions (CIs) which is linked to PPP approach, on student talk time; while, with the experimental group TBL classes were imparted.

For each test we gathered repeated measures from ten different lessons at various points in time. Then, such measures were averaged. This decision was made on the belief that one single observation would not reveal as much information as ten. Desirably it would have been better to get data from more lessons and over a longer period of time but the time we had available was our biggest constraint.

3.3 Population and study sample.

As this is classroom research it was impossible to have a random assignment of individuals to each sample; thus, already-existing groups were used as the samples. However, in order to make up for the lack of randomness, it was necessary to find two groups with very similar characteristics. The main criterion taken into account was the students' level of English. Initially we planned to work with advanced classes. However, as the number of students per class was not big enough for a reliable sample, we found two groups in basic level instead. These students have been studying English for about a year.

¹⁰⁹ Fawzia Al-Seyabi. (2002): "Factors Affecting Students' Oral Participation in University Level Academic Classes within the Omani Context". In S. Ali, and M. Abdalla (2014): *Adopting blended learning instruction to promote learners' oral competence* Vol.2.Issue.4.

Therefore, a random sampling was possible as we had two groups of students at the same level. Then, a class of 23 students was selected to work as the control group with the institution's approach, and a class of 24 to work as the experimental group with the TBL approach.

Table 4. Characteristics common to both sample groups.

SAMPLE 1 = PPP	SAMPLE 2 = TBL
Number of students: 23 Level: Basic Class: Regular 7 Text: Top Notch 2 Units: 5-10 Age: 12-16 Occupation: High school students Type of term: Regular Duration of study: 16 weeks Class Length: 1 hour every day Schedule: 5-6-p.m	Number of students: 24 Level: Basic Class: Regular 7 Text: Top Notch 2 Units: 5-10 Age: 12-16 Occupation: High school students Type of term: Regular Duration of study: <i>16 weeks (See appendix 6 for a detailed plan)</i> Class Length: 1 hour every day Schedule: 7-8-p.m

Comments: Table 4 gives an overview of the different characteristics shared by both the control and experimental group. The most relevant features are that both groups are exactly at the same level and at the same age. (For more detailed information about each sample, *see appendices 1.1 and 1.2*)

As the aim of the present research was to find out the effect of both PPP and TBL on student talking time, the independent variables were the PPP and the TBL approach, while the dependent variable was student talking time. This means, the variables that could be manipulated were the PPP and the TBL approach in order to see what change they produced in the amount of student talking time.

As already mentioned, the PPP approach was used with the control group and the TBL model was used with the experimental group and student talk was the effect each teaching model produced.

3.4 Techniques and instruments used for gathering of data.

For collecting data repeated measurements of independent group samples were observed before and during the experiment, making a total of 20 lessons for each group (*for lesson plan samples see appendix 2*)

As students belonging to both samples were exactly at the same level, the same topics were covered in class. The control group received classes following the ICPNA approach and the activities in the book. The experimental group, however, was taught following a task-based framework. The same form was used to record participation in both groups.

The following instruments and procedures were used:

Systematic observation form (*see appendix 3*)

Lessons' video-recordings (*See appendix 4*)

Lesson transcripts (*see appendices 7.1 and 7.2*)

The observation form was adapted from already existing forms such as Ron Schwartz's observation form, and English in Action (EIA) in Dhaka, Bangladesh for recording talking time in the classroom of both the teacher and students.

At each minute of a lesson, the observer recorded two things: what the students were doing (answering questions, asking questions, personalizing, summarizing, or repeating), and what the teacher was doing (presenting, giving instructions, asking questions, answering questions, giving feedback, or modeling). In addition, the results recorded the number of minutes students worked in pairs. Each minute was counted as one utterance even though we know that in each pair-work there were many utterances, but because we did not know exactly how many, we just counted as one.

The instrument was piloted during classroom observations by two other mentors before its application in order to make sure it captured all types of participations both from the teacher and students; then necessary adaptations were made before it was ready to be used in the study.

It is crucial to highlight here two main points. First, the observation form was a combination of both Ron Schwartz's observation form for recording students' utterances and English in Action Program for recording the teacher's interventions. Ron Schwartz is an emeritus professor from the University of Maryland, and external evaluator at ICPNA- Chiclayo, who has been using this form in different countries for several years to collect information to assess English programs. English in Action is a language education program implemented through a partnership between the UK Government and the Government of Bangladesh. Second, the mentors who piloted the observation form have been trained to use this form when observing teachers for the mentoring program at the different branches of ICPNA- Chiclayo.

Following is a detailed description of each variable included in the observation form.

3.4.1 Students types of utterances

QC: Comprehension question. This refers to the students asking their classmates for understanding of what they heard, saw, read, said or did but after the teacher or another classmate modeled the question.

QG: General question - Students asked questions generating original language in asking, without the help of anyone in the class.

AC: Comprehension answer - Students answered comprehension check questions by recalling or feeding back basic information of what the teacher, the audio, a reading or a classmate said. A good example of this could be when the teacher checked for understanding of the instructions before an activity.

AG: General answer - Student answered a general question. Students created/produced original language in answering.

S: Summarizing – Students gave a shortened version of something that had been said, done, listened to, or read- connecting the main ideas or stating the main points logically and sequentially, presented the results after a pair or group discussion, reported their classmates ideas sequentially, etc.

P: Personalizing - Students reacted to, gave examples, expressed personal opinion, explained, told a personal experience, expanded on, etc.

PW: Pair work - Students talked/discussed in pairs, solved a problem, completed a task, etc. Sometimes students worked in small groups yet this was also counted as pair work for the sake of not having too many variables.

R: Repetition – Students repeated what the teacher or the audio said for language practice (pronunciation, grammar, etc.) without any communicative purpose but in a full sentence. Single-word utterances were not counted.

3.4.2 Teacher types of interventions

P: Presenting -The teacher was providing input to the students. He or she was describing, explaining or narrating, whether from the textbook, his or her own knowledge, or from any other source. Examples may include: ‘In this lesson we are going to talk about healthy and unhealthy foods. Eating too much fast food can cause health problems, etc.’

I: Giving instructions -The teacher was telling the students what to do, setting the task, saying what is next. If the teacher was asking a question with the purpose of organizing e. g. ‘Could you please work in pairs and complete this activity?’ is also counted as instruction.

Examples may include: ‘Could you please read the instructions?’ If the teacher repeated the instructions it was marked twice.

Q: Asking questions - The teacher was asking questions or eliciting information through questions. It was marked as a question only if it demanded an answer from the student to whom the question was directed. e.g. ‘Percy, how many people are in your family?’ If the teacher asked a question with the purpose of organizing e. g. ‘Pedro, could you please ask José to summarize’, it was counted as giving instructions.

A: Answering questions: The teacher responded to the students’ questions.

F: Giving feedback -The teacher was evaluating or commenting on something students have said or done, echoing, or clarifying something.

M: Modeling – The teacher was modeling what the students were expected to do or to correct errors. For example, the teacher modeled a wrong sentence to provide students with the right version. Or the teacher showed the students what they were expected to do.

G: Generic – When the teacher spoke but the observers were not really sure what kind of utterance it was, e. g. ‘Let’s talk about that later.’

3.5 Data management

The unities of statistical analysis were not individual students but whole classes where a group of students participated, thus the kind of data was not individual but aggregated. We collected information from ten different lessons for each test. In the end, we had 40 lessons 20 of which belonged to the control group and the other 20 were part of the experimental group.

Each utterance was carefully recorded following each minute of the lesson. Only complete sentences articulated in English were

counted. Single-word utterances were not counted. If anything was happening in the classroom for at least one minute which did not fit into any category, that minute was left in blank and not counted. Although in some lessons the amount of observation time varied a little, all lessons were prorated to 60 minutes.

Most classes were video-recorded then replayed again at home with the purpose of carefully passing each utterance into the observation form. Next, the number of each type of participation was added up and written on the same form.

After that, a data set was developed in SPSS for data storage and analysis of each test and group. The datasets were developed based on the types of participation in each lesson of both students and teacher. Next, the average of 10 lessons from each test was considered as the data for statistical analysis.

3.6 Data analysis

For the data analysis, mostly descriptive statistics, frequencies, and averages were used to measure the teacher vs. student talk time in the classroom and the amount of student talk encountered in the pretest and posttest of both the control group and experimental group.

In order to ensure the rigorousness of the analysis, the data were analyzed by a highly-qualified statistician.

The hypothesis testing was performed using independent sample t-test of the difference between the pretest and posttest of both control and experimental group. Null and alternative hypotheses were formulated during the testing with the purpose of proving whether the intervention caused a significant difference and if our research hypothesis was assumed to be valid.

CHAPTER IV: PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

The major focus of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of both PPP and TBL approaches in promoting student talk time. That is, to indicate whether there is or there is not a significant difference in student talk time when using each teaching model. Additionally, we aimed to verify which teaching model produced more student talking time in each lesson.

To start investigating this, the following question was formulated: Does the application of the PPP or TBL teaching approach create a significant difference between the average talking time students get within a lesson?

The study was conducted with two groups of basic level English learners which received a pretest and posttest. One was the control group and the other the experimental group. The control group followed their current syllabus and teaching methodology- the ICPNA approach, which is linked to PPP. With this group lessons from a book called Top Notch 2, were followed; while the experimental group had lessons based on task-based instruction with task-based exercises adapted by the researcher. (*See appendix 5* for samples of tasks).

The collection of data was carried out through video-recording of lessons and observation of mentors who used the form and recorded information in actual time. From the video-recordings, each utterance was carefully identified and passed onto a form. In addition, some lessons were scripted (*see appendices 7.1 and 7.2*) in order to help us present the information in a more varied and reliable manner.

4.2 Presentation of results

The data presented here belong to the talking time of both teacher and students. Ten lessons from each test and group (40 in total) were observed and then the final results of the ten lessons were averaged.

Ten lessons were chosen from each test and group due to several reasons. We wanted to get equal amount of data to compare results. It was the appropriate number of lessons we could get information from based on the available time we had. They helped us collect information at different points during the study and thus gave us a wider perspective of how our treatment worked.

The analysis of the data was done in SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) (Version 22). To find out the effect of the experimental training program on the student talk variable, an independent variable t-test analysis for the equality of variances was done for difference between the pre and posttest of both control and experimental group.

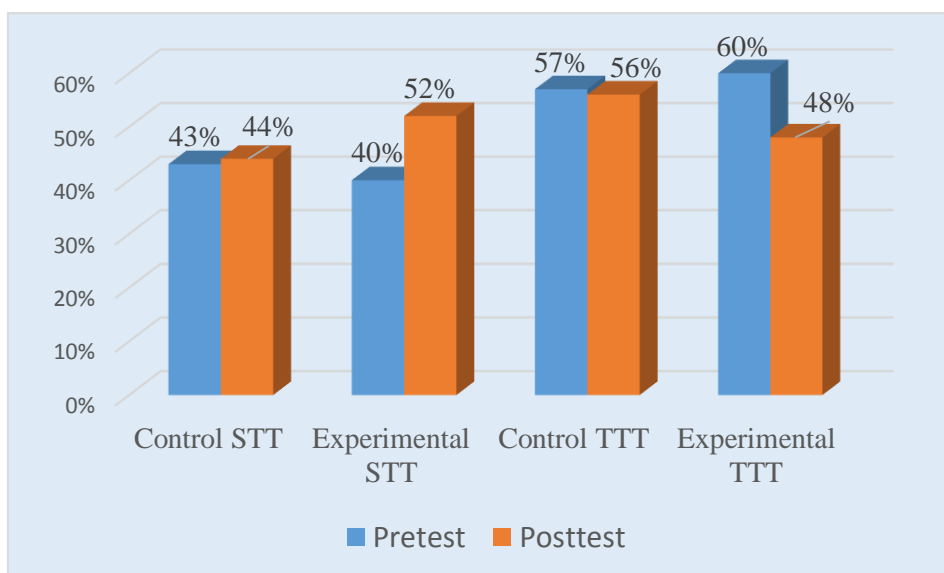
The results are presented in three sections. In the first section we can find tables and figures containing the general means and percentages of the pre and posttest of both control and experimental group which reveal the talking time of students and teacher. In the next section the results are shown per categories of utterances and talk of both teacher and students, which was done with the purpose of demonstrating where the biggest difference lay. Finally, the hypothesis testing procedure is presented which illustrates whether or not there is a significant mean difference between the pretest and posttest of both groups, thus allowing us to verify if our treatment was effective.

4.2.1 General results of pretest and posttest of both control and experimental group.

Table 5: Pre and posttest utterances of the experimental and control group.

Groups	N	Pretest		Posttest	
		Mean	Percentage	Mean	Percentage
Control STT	10	80	43%	87	44%
Experimental STT	10	76	40%	146	52%
Control TTT	10	103	57%	113	56%
Experimental TTT	10	112	60%	137	48%

Figure 1: Percentage of utterances of the pre and posttest of the experimental and control group.



Comments: Figure 1 illustrates the exact percentage of talking time of both the teacher and students in all the tests. It can be observed that in the pretest of the control group students talked less than the teacher with 43% compared to 57% of the teacher talking time; similarly, in the posttest of the same group, the students talked 44% of the times and the teacher 56% of the times. In both tests the teacher talked more than the students did.

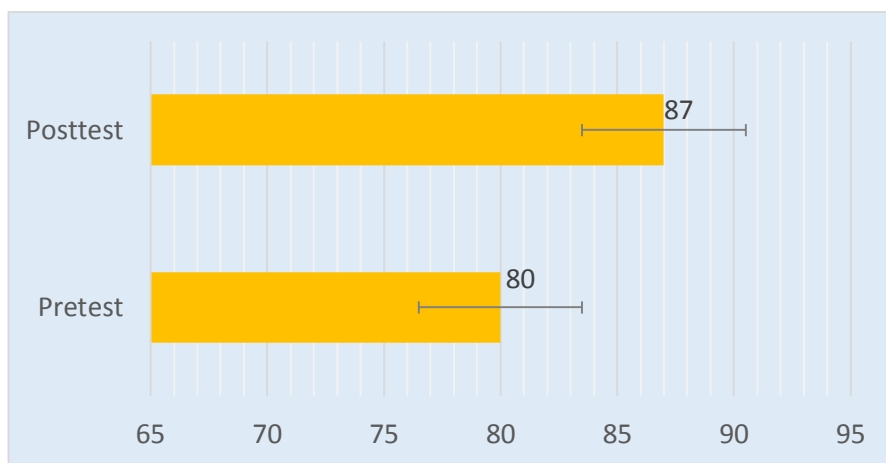
Figure 1 also shows that in the experimental group students talked 44% and the teacher 56% in the pretest; while in the posttest, the students talked 52% and the teacher 48% evidencing that here there was more balance between students and teacher talk time when compared to the results in the control group.

4.2.1.1 Pretest vs. posttest student talk in the control group.

Table 6: Pre and posttest number of utterances in the control group

Class	Pretest utterances	Posttest utterances	Difference
1	51	86	35
2	67	102	35
3	78	91	13
4	73	101	28
5	83	87	4
6	90	68	-22
7	100	100	0
8	88	94	6
9	81	65	-16
10	86	80	-6
Mean	80	87	7

Figure 2: Means of student utterances of the control group



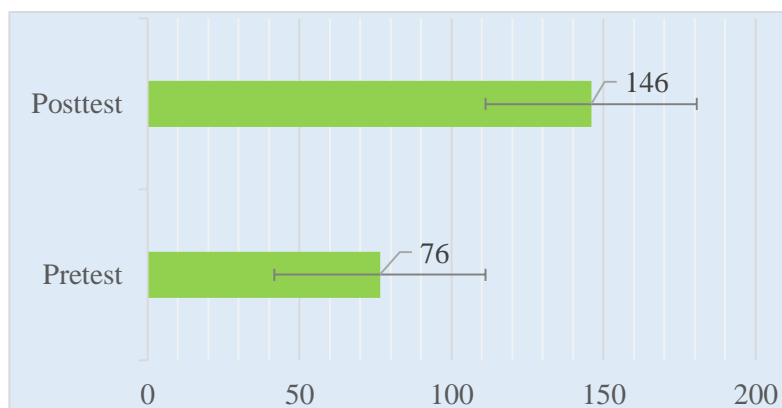
Comments: Table 6 gives information about the average number of times the students talked in the control group with 80 times in the pretest, and 87 times in the posttest. The mean difference of the control group's student talking times was 7 which is quite a small difference.

4.2.1.2 Pretest vs. posttest student talk of the experimental group.

Table 7: Number of student utterances of the pretest and posttest of the experimental group

Class	Pretest	Posttest	Difference
1	83	135	52
2	65	145	80
3	71	151	80
4	70	156	86
5	73	146	73
6	89	137	48
7	83	153	70
8	59	156	97
9	85	142	57
10	87	139	52
Mean	76	146	70

Figure 3: Means of student utterances of the experimental group



Comments: Table 7, whose data is illustrated in Figure 3, outlines the number of times the students in the experimental group talked in each class. Over all, it can be seen that the average number of the ten classes was 76 times in the pretest but 146 times in the posttest. An important feature here is that the students talked a lot more in the posttest than in the pretest.

4.2.2 Specific results per category of the pretest and posttest of both control and experimental group.

Table 8: Number of student utterances per category of the pre and posttest of both control and experimental group.

Types of student talk	N	Pretest		Posttest	
		Cont.	Exp.	Cont.	Exp.
Comprehension questions	10	19	19	25	14
General questions	10	6	6	7	38
Comprehension answers	10	20	21	18	16
General answers	10	5	8	8	23
Personalization	10	7	7	9	19
Summary	10	8	7	6	16
Pair work	10	8	3	5	15
Repetition	10	7	5	9	5
TOTAL		80	76	87	146

Comments: Table 8 gives a breakdown of the number of participations per category in both control group and experimental group in the pretest and posttest. The biggest change lies in the number of general questions (38) in the posttest of the experimental group compared to the others. Another striking feature is the similarity in number of comprehension questions and comprehension answers in both tests and groups.

4.2.2.1 Pretest vs. posttest student talk of control group per category.

Figure 4: Number of utterances of the control group pretest vs. posttest.

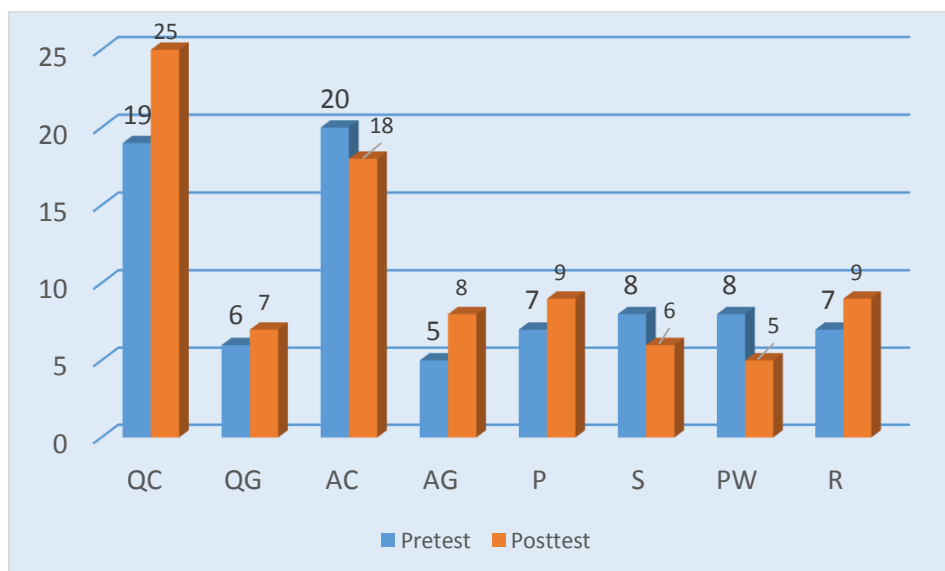


Figure 5: Percentage of utterances per category of the control group in the pretest.

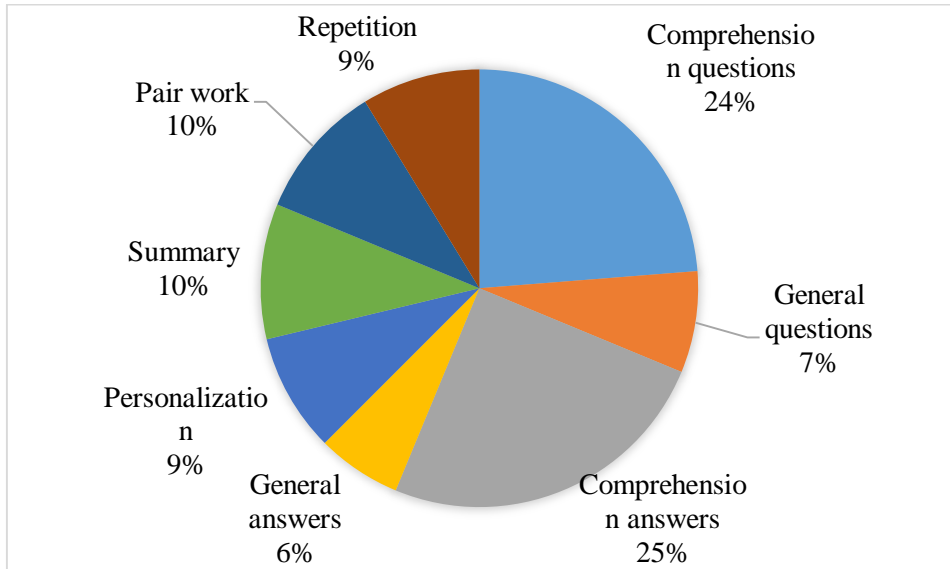
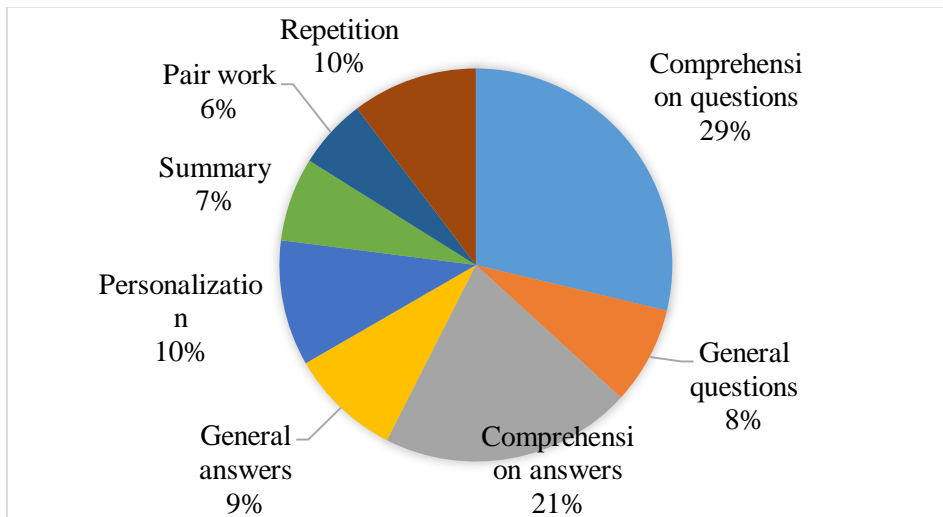


Figure 6: Percentage of utterances per category of the control group in the posttest



Comments: Figure 4 gives a breakdown of the different categories of student talk in the pretest and posttest of the control group. By far the most common types of participation are comprehension questions and comprehension answers in both pretest and posttest. All the other types of participation have a very similar percentage, ranging from 6% to 10% in each test as illustrated in figures 5 and 6.

4.2.2.2 Pretest vs. posttest of the experimental group per category.

Figure 7: Number of utterances per category of the experimental group pretest vs. posttest.

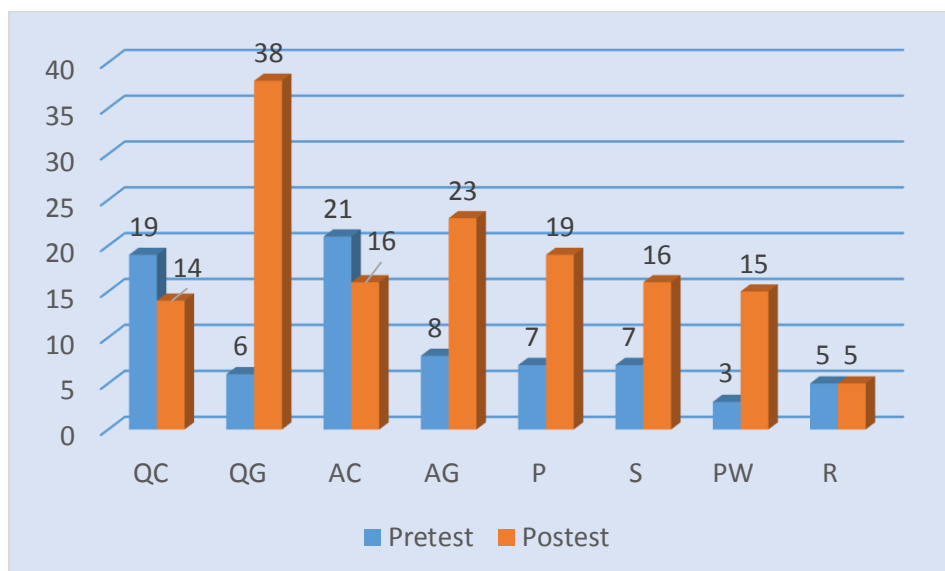


Figure 8: Percentage of utterances per category of the experimental group in the pretest

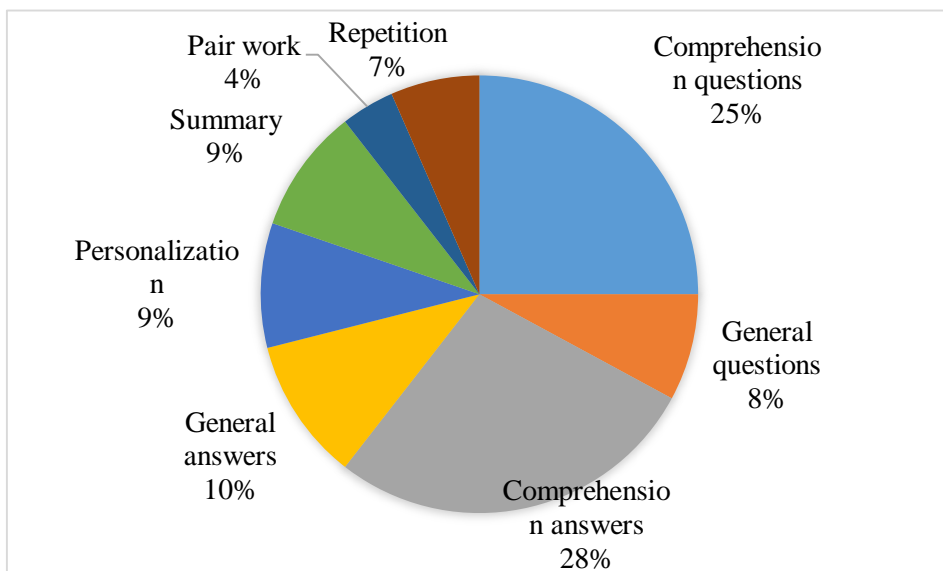
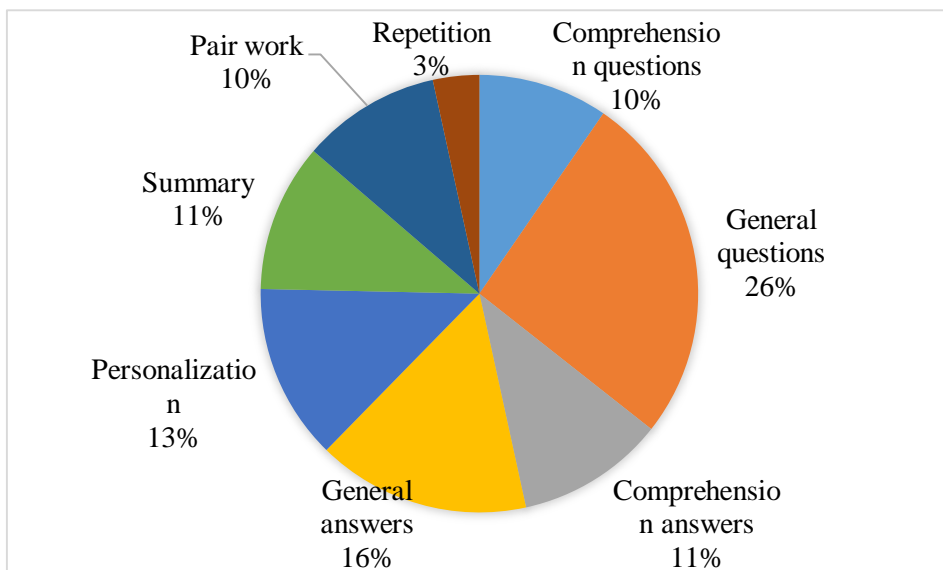


Figure 9: Percentage of utterances per category of the experimental group in the posttest



Comments: Figure 7 gives an overview of the number of utterances students talked in both the pretest and posttest of the experimental group. Figures 8 and 9 illustrate the changes in both tests. The most striking feature is that there was a substantial increase in the students' asking general questions and a significant decrease in comprehension questions in the posttest compared to the pretest. Likewise, in the posttest there was a slight increase in general answers and a sharp decrease in comprehension answers.

4.2.3 Hypothesis testing

Since our purpose here was to increase student talking time, a pretest was carried out before the treatment in both control and experimental group. Then, the treatment was administered to the experimental group with task-based exercises and data were collected from 10 lessons. Next, the means of each test were found (*see table 9*). Finally, to actually test whether there was an increase in student talking time the mean differences from the pretest and the posttest of both groups were compared and it was verified if such differences were significant through an independent sample t-test. (*See tables 10 and 11*)

Table 9: Group Statistics								
		N	Range	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Control group	pretest	10	49	51	100	79.70	13.630	185.789
Control group	posttest	10	37	65	102	87.40	13.117	172.044
Experimental group	pretest	10	30	50	89	76.50	10.255	105.167
Experimental group	posttest	10	21	135	156	146.00	7.760	60.222

Comments: Table 9 displays the means of each test in each group where in the control group a very small difference between the mean of the pretest (80) and the posttest (87) can be observed. However, in the experimental group a big difference between the mean of the pretest (77) and the posttest (146) can be appreciated.

Table 10: Pretest vs. posttest mean difference between groups

Tests	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Difference Between pretest and posttest	Control group	10	7.70	20.106	6.358
	Experimental group	10	69.50	16.642	5.263

Comments: Table 10 gives information about the mean difference between the pretest and posttest in each group. By simply looking at each mean difference we can notice that the difference in the experimental group is much larger than that in the control group. However, before drawing any conclusion about our hypothesis we should test if there is a statistical difference.

4.2.4 Null hypothesis

Ho= There is no significant difference between the mean difference of student talking times of the control group and the mean difference of student talking times of the experimental group.

4.2.5 Alternative hypothesis

H1= There is a significant difference between the mean difference of student talking times of the control group and the mean difference of student talking times of the experimental group.

Table 11: Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Difference Between pretest and posttest of both groups	Equal variances assumed	.273	.608	-7.488	18	.000	-61.800	8.253	-79.140	-44.460
	Equal variances not assumed			-7.488	17.393	.000	-61.800	8.253	-79.183	-44.417

Interpreting the results

Student talking time is significantly different between the two groups under the following conditions:

CI = 95%

$\alpha \leq 0.05$

$t = -7.488$

The P-value (2-tailed) for this t-test is .000

Because $.000 < 0.05$ we can reject the null hypothesis. Therefore, we can conclude that there is significant evidence to support our research proposal that using PPP or TBL approach does affect significantly the amount of talking time students get within a lesson. Consequently, we have enough evidence to state categorically that when we use a TBL teaching model in a lesson we are going to get more student talking time than when we use a PPP approach.

4.3 Discussion of results

Is there a major difference between the amount of oral output students produce when taught under a traditional-PPP approach and the total student talk when we apply a more communicative-TBL approach? This study enabled us to gather evidence to see to what extent each model helps students to produce the language orally. Some researchers have criticized the TBL model as focusing too much on fluency at the expense of accuracy; however, our data revealed that this model is very effective in promoting an increase in student talking time (*see figure 3*).

This evidence was verified in three different circumstances. First, the results we obtained with the experimental group were compared with those from the control group through descriptive statistics (*see figure 1*). Secondly, they were compared and corroborated with the results obtained in the control group but this time by category or type of participation (*see table 8*). Third, a hypothesis testing to verify the mean difference between the pretest and posttest of both the control and experimental group was conducted, obtaining very similar results to the other two and allowing us to reject the null hypothesis and confirming that the mean difference of the pretest and posttest of each group was in fact significant (*see tables 10 & 11*).

On the grounds of these results, we could conclude that generally speaking our intervention was positive and effective because we were able to accomplish our goal of increasing student talk time even beyond the accomplishment of the institution through the Classroom Interactions approach (closely related to PPP approach because it follows the same sequence). In addition, although the students who took part in this study were in basic level, they had a much higher amount of talk compared to that of the amount obtained in the control group. It did not have to do much with the students' level of English in order to be able to use the language more, but the nature of the "tasks" played an important role. In this regard, it could be stated that when we apply a task-based approach with appropriate tasks for each level in the classroom, students are very likely to get more talk than when we base our lessons on more traditional approaches of language teaching such as PPP.

Some teachers might argue that the quality of utterances under TBL are poor in terms of accuracy, and this actually tended to be so during this research. The truth is the utterances under the PPP approach only appear to be better because of the teacher's explicit help, but in reality not only were they also poor but fewer. Others might claim that under such methodology a lot of utterances are not heard by everyone in the class, nor everyone can be listening to one single student speak, which is also admissible. Yet it does not mean students are not producing the language. What is more, during the completion of a task in this experiment students had the opportunity to interact one to one, and actually they had many more utterances than just one per minute as we counted during the study.

There was a substantial increase in student talk during the experiment with TBL. The number raised from 76 utterances in the pretest to 146 utterances in the posttest during a prorated 60-minute lesson. What's even better, the percentage of student talk vs. teacher talk was also improved and more balanced. On the other hand, in the control group, even though the number of student utterances also had a slight increase from the pretest (80) to the posttest (87) the percentage of student talk vs. teacher talk stayed almost the same. The students talked 43% in the pretest and 44% in the posttest. Evidently, this means that TBL is much more effective in promoting balance between student talk and teacher talk.

When we used the ICPNA approach with the control group, not only was it difficult to maintain balance between student and teacher talk but it was almost impossible to have students interact without the direct intervention of the teacher. In addition, this teaching model seemed very teacher-centered because the teacher's intervention was necessary for the students to participate. Thus, if the teacher was not actively encouraging students to participate, they did not take the initiative by themselves. Therefore, under the Classroom Interactions framework, the more the teacher wanted students to produce the language, the more he had to intervene and talk. (*See table 5*)

However, it does seem that TBL naturally led students to take the initiative in asking more general questions (*see figure 7*) regarding what and how to express something during the completion of a task, and the teacher to

reply to those questions rather than ask questions to the students. Our findings proved that TBL allows students to have a more active role in the classroom and limits the teacher's role to that of a moderator. Interestingly, under TBL instruction, the students' interventions were not only more frequent compared to those of the teacher's but also longer than the teacher's utterances, especially in the presentation stage (*see appendix 4*). However, with PPP the teacher had to intervene all the time in order to lead students to speak.

Going back to the introduction of this report, Brown claims that "teacher talk should not occupy the major proportion of a class hour. It should occupy only around 30% of the total talk in class; otherwise, you are probably not giving students enough opportunity to talk." However, some classroom researchers have claimed that in traditional classrooms the opposite just happens. For instance, as mentioned in the antecedents section of this study, Chaudron (1988) has revealed that in traditional classroom settings, the teacher talked approximately two-thirds (66%) of the total discourse in the lesson, meaning that the students were able to produce the language only 34%. Furthermore, Chaudron's results are also similar to the findings of a study of teacher-student interaction in content-based classrooms (grammar and vocabulary), conducted by Musumeci (1996) who found that "the teacher talk time occupies about 66% to 72%"¹¹⁰ (and student talk 34% to 28%)

Our results with the ICPNA approach, which is in accordance with PPP approach, are not too distant from these findings, although with some important improvements. When we used the ICPNA approach, we obtained about 40% to 44% of student talk. (*See figures 1, 2 and 4*). We might have gotten better results with the ICPNA approach than the findings reported by Chaudron and Musumeci due to the fact that ICPNA is trying to make its approach more and more communicative.

Nonetheless, even though our results (40% to 44% of STT) with PPP are very similar to those reported by English in Action in Bangladesh, 2011, who reported that in high schools where communication and interaction activities were emphasized, the students talked about 41% to 44% of the total

¹¹⁰ For a full reference to this source see the antecedents section in this study or check the bibliography.

talking time in English that happened in the classroom, the results we found in terms of TBL (*see figure 3*) are more pronounced. During the implementation of TBL we obtained 52% of STT and 48% of TTT. Even though these findings are still distant from what Brown (2001) desires, at least they are closer compared to other results.

Unfortunately we did not have specific details about how these previous studies were conducted regarding the size of the sample, the conditions, the level of the students, the setting, and other factors. We do know, though, that the study conducted in Bangladesh, was not specifically under a TBL sequence but under communicative and interactive activities in general, which might be very similar to the ICPNA approach in terms of the sequence it follows: Presentation, Practice and Production. This might be the reason why the students still did not get an equal proportion of talking time to the teacher.

Finally, as this was a quasi-experimental design, there are some threats to internal validity due to several reasons. For instance, the samples for this study were not assigned randomly, but already-existing groups were used. In addition, we could not have a high degree of control over other variables such as attendance of students, learning ability, or language skills. However, in order to make up for the lack of randomization we had groups that were at exactly the same age and level of English, and other important shared characteristics were considered. (*See table 4*)

CONCLUSIONS

Despite the goal of ICPNA, Cajamarca branch, to give students as many chances to produce the language as possible and their claim of using a communicative approach -Classroom Interactions Approach- which is actually in close relationship with the PPP approach, the main goal of this study was to attempt to increase the amount students get to produce the language orally within each lesson by implementing a set of task-based lessons. After conducting the descriptive statistics and the hypothesis testing we obtained positive results which are presented in this section.

1. After averaging the students' utterances during ten lessons, which lasted 60 minutes each, the experimental group in the posttest obtained 146 interventions, 59 more times than the students in the control group, which only obtained 87 utterances. This result proves the research hypothesis: There is a significant difference between the amount of student talking when applying a traditional approach (PPP) and a more communicative approach (TBL). However, we had to verify if this difference was statically significant and came to a definite conclusion that there is a significant difference in student talking time when using a TBL or a PPP teaching model.

2. In terms of achieving balance between students talking time and teacher talking our results also were encouraging. In the experimental group we obtained 52% of student talking time and 48% of teacher talk; while in the control group there was 44% of STT against 56% of TTT. This evidence can help us to assert that when we want to achieve a balance between teacher and student talk time TBL is definitely a good option. It could be stated that the

Classroom Interactions Framework at ICPNA does promote student talking time but since the teacher has to be part of almost every student utterance apart from his or her personal interventions, it is inevitable for the teacher to end up having far more talking time than students do.

3. Our results also demonstrated that the main difference between the control group and the experimental group in the posttest was in the students asking more general questions (26%) and giving general answers (16%) in the experimental group in contrast to the students asking more comprehension questions (29%) and giving comprehension answers (21%) in the control group. These results indicate that TBL leads students to ask questions more naturally. As they are focused on completing a task, they feel the pressure of time and the need to ask for help either from their peers or the teacher in order to complete a task in the time assigned.

4. Additionally, while working under TBL approach we had some important findings that might be of importance to mention here. For instance, students were not only more active and participated more in the progress of the lesson, but there was also a change of the learning routine which increased students' motivation. Besides, tasks gave students the chance to practice language that might not have been linguistically accurate but socio-linguistically appropriate, appropriate to the setting, topic, and their English level. Finally, as students worked in pairs, or small groups, the teacher moved around to help them acting as an advisor or facilitator instead of just as a director, thus allowing communicative skills to develop naturally.

5. However, some drawbacks during the implementation of TBL were also found. For example, tasks were sometimes very difficult and time-consuming to prepare. Another disadvantage is that as it was a monolingual class it was sometimes complicated to have students discuss and interact only in the target language. While working on the completion of tasks students had the tendency to use their native language. In addition, this lesson structure seemed to be unsuitable for some types of students who liked to be directed by the teacher; however, learners' confidence grew when they realized that they could do something without the teacher's direct support. Moreover, TBL did not guarantee balance among individual student talking time nor among types of participation, although neither does the ICPNA approach (*see appendix 8*) because turn taking was determined by the task, and those more confident students tended to dominate during the completion of a task.

RECOMMENDATIONS

As the internal and external validity of this study may be affected by different factors already mentioned, we could not generalize them and start following them to the letter. In case there is willingness of the higher authorities of my institution to integrate TBL in the program, further research must be carried out first. Questions like the following must be addressed:

What are the students' perceptions of task-based instruction in speaking classes at ICPNA, Cajamarca branch?

What are the attitudes of the teachers toward using task-based instruction in their speaking classes at ICPNA, Cajamarca branch?

In addition, taking task-based teaching approaches to an extreme will also have its dangers. What could work best for instructors and learners in the institution where this study took place would be a balance of both PPP and TBL lesson sequencing models. The former could be used to develop accuracy among learners while the latter can be applied to develop fluency. The only issue would be whether we want our students to develop accuracy or fluency first. I am quite sure that a good dose of both approaches would be of great benefit to the program.

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LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

Questionnaire to identify the samples characteristics

Directions: I am working on a thesis and I have chosen you as a sample for my experiment. Please I would like you to help me complete this short survey about you by answering the following questions.

1. Are you a boy or a girl?

2. How old are you?

3. Do you like English or not?

4. Do you live in the city or the country?

5. Do you study at a public or private school?

6. Do you have English classes at school?

1.1. PPP sample characteristics

Characteristic		Number of students	Percent %	Cumulative Percent %
Gender	girl	12	52%	52%
	boy	11	48%	100%
	Total	23	100%	
Age	12	2	9%	9%
	13	1	4%	13%
	14	7	30%	43%
	15	8	35%	78%
	16	5	22%	100%
	Total	23	100%	
Self-reported attitude towards English.	like	23	100	100
Location of residence	rural	2	9%	9%
	urban	21	91%	100%
	Total	23	100	
School/ university type	public	13	57%	57%
	private	10	43%	100%
	Total	23	100%	
Additional English classes apart from ICPNA	No	8	35%	35%
	Yes	15	65%	100%
	Total	23	100%	

1.2.TBL sample characteristics.

Characteristic		Number of students	Percent %	Cumulative Percent %
Gender	girl	10	42%	42%
	boy	14	58%	100%
	Total	24	100%	
Age	12	7	29%	29%
	13	3	13%	42%
	14	7	29%	71%
	15	5	21%	92%
	16	2	8%	100%
	Total	24	100%	
Self-reported attitude towards English.	like	24	100	100
Location of Residence	rural	2	8%	8%
	urban	22	92%	100%
	Total	24	100%	
School/ university type	public	12	50%	50%
	private	12	50%	100%
	Total	24	100%	
Additional English classes apart from ICPNA	no	5	21%	21%
	yes	19	79%	100%
	Total	24	100%	

APPENDIX 2

LESSON PLAN SAMPLES

Lesson plan N° 1

PPP	TBL
Objective: SWBAT: Describe local dishes	Objective: SWBAT come to an agreement about what is the best dish in Peru.
Presentation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Write objective on the board • Ask a comprehension check about the objective • Have students open their books to page 70 and take a look at the food descriptions • Play the audio and have them repeat the pronunciation • Clarify any vocabulary 	Pre-task : Helping students to get ready for the task <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Write the goal for the class on the board • Put students in pairs and hand them a set of questions to discuss (students in the same pair have different questions). • After students finish discussing ask three to four students from different pairs to summarize what they discussed. • Have students change pairs and do a ranking activity. • Allow them time to discuss their reasons • Have them share their answers with another pair. • Ask a student to summarize the activity
Practice <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tell them to work in pairs and use the vocabulary to describe three different foods they know. 	Task-cycle: Discuss and agree on which of the dishes in the list is the best in Peru. Task <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Divide the class into groups of four

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Have them listen to six food descriptions and complete a multiple choice exercise on page 70. • Tell them to work with a different partner and discuss which foods from the listening they would like to try and which not and explain why 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Give each member of the group a different dish. • Tell them they need to convince the others about their dish being the best. • Make sure students stick to the following procedure: first, they need to say one positive thing about their own dish. Then, the others should react making negative comments about it. Next, each student should defend his/her point of view by adding at least two more positive comments. • Tell them, they have only ten minutes to complete the task. • If some groups are having hard time getting started I will work as a coach. • I will go around and observe as they work • Be ready in case some of them need my help • When eight minutes have passed, tell them they have two more minutes to finish. <p>Planning</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tell them to get ready to present their conclusions to the class. • Tell them they should do it in a way of summary. Was it easy or difficult to come to an agreement? Who said what? How did the other respond? How did you come to an agreement? • They should add two more reasons (5 in total) to support their conclusion.
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	<p>Reporting</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allow them to choose one from each group to present their results in front of the class. • After the first person presents ask another group who has a different conclusion to continue. • After all have finished, make a positive comment on the completion of the task and the content of their ideas. • Then, have all groups to stand up and come to a final agreement on only one dish.
<p>Production</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tell them to individually choose three local dishes that they would like to recommend a visitor to Peru and write notes about them. • Then, have them work in pairs and role-play a conversation in which one of them is a visitor to Peru and asks questions about the dishes. The other is a Peruvian who describes the dishes. • Point them to the language box, at the bottom of page 71, that they can use in their conversations. 	<p>Language focus (next class)</p> <p>Ask learners to make a list of all social langue phrases they used to express an opinion.</p> <p>I think.... I believe... My opinion is that.....because..... I am afraid I don't agree with you... I disagree with you on that..... .</p>

Lesson plan N° 2

PPP	TBL
Objective: SWBAT: Discuss the impact of the internet.	Objective: SWBAT discuss the social impact of the internet
<p>Presentation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Write the goal on the board • Have them open their books to page 106 and ask them to match the words to their meaning. <p>A hacker A computer virus A criminal Junk e-mail An anti-virus program A cyberbully</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Have them listen to the pronunciation and repeat after me. 	<p>Pre-task :</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Divide the class in groups of three • Hand each group a set of expressions for both agreeing and disagreeing (the expressions are cut individually) <p style="text-align: center;">Agreeing</p> <p style="padding-left: 40px;">I agree with you on that one. I couldn't have said it better myself. That's exactly what I think. I couldn't agree more.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Disagreeing</p> <p style="padding-left: 40px;">Really? I have to disagree with you there. Do you think so? I'm not sure I agree. Well, I am afraid I don't agree. No offense, but I just can't agree. That may be true, but ... I see what you mean, but ... Well, on the one hand ... But on the other hand ... That's one way to look at it, but ...</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ask students to classify the expressions in two groups, then compare with other groups. • If they are not sure about the meaning of any of the expressions explain to them.

<p>Practice</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Put them in pairs and tell them to answer the question: What kind of problems have you had with the Internet? • Show them a pictures of a big virus • Try to elicit what they are going to read about • Divide the class in groups of three • Assign each group a different story about problems with the internet • Tell them they have two minutes to read their stories then tell the problem to two other groups in one sentence. • Next, have them change partners and read the story again. • Tell them that this time they need to include more details and tell the story in four sentences. 	<p>Task-cycle: debating the pros and cons of the Internet</p> <p>Task</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tell them that they will be debating the pros and cons of the internet. • Ask to get two groups together. One group will be in favor of the internet and the other against it. • Tell them to think about information, work, communication, shopping, etc, and support their opinion with examples. • Give them 10 minutes to debate • Remind them that they can use the phrases from the previous activities to disagree. <p>Planning</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tell them that they are going to report to the class at least five pros and five cons of the internet. • The group that was in favor will report what the opposing group said and vice versa. • A member of each group will be chosen to present by rolling a die. <p>Reporting</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Role the die again to see which group goes first. • Ask another group that has different ideas to continue.
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<p>Production</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tell them to carry out a survey on what problem with the Internet the others think is the most serious and explain why. • Have two students to share their findings 	<p>Language focus</p> <p>.</p>
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Lesson plan N° 3

PPP	TBL
<p>Objective: SWBAT: ask about someone's vacation using the simple past of irregular verbs.</p>	<p>Objective: SWBAT create and tell a story</p>
<p>Presentation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Have students open their books to page 78. • Point at the difference between the present and the past • Play the audio and have students repeat the pronunciation. • Clarify meaning of some verbs. • Have students identify the irregular verbs in the simple past tense in the photo story on page 75. 	<p>Pre-task : speculating about the story Tell learners that this lesson is based on a true story which was reported in The Guardian newspaper a few years ago.</p> <p>Write on the board The Characters: A shopkeeper Her two children A young man An eight-year-old boy The police</p> <p>The Setting: A corner shop in Ashton-under-Lyme, Manchester.</p> <p>The Props (things used in the story): A balaclava A packet of Smarties A plastic bag A gun</p> <p>Some phrases from the story: A young man came in to buy a newspaper He pointed a gun at her and told her to fill up the bag I pretended to reach for some money They are taking the case very seriously, like all cases which involve a firearm, fake or not</p>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Have students discuss the meaning of the words and phrases in pairs. • If necessary, explain some of the words and phrases which might cause difficulties. A balaclava is like a ski mask. It covers someone's face so only their eyes can be seen. Smarties are small brightly colored sweets with chocolate covered in a thin layer of sugar. A fake is something which is imitation, which is not real. • Ask learners what they think happened in the story, but do not tell them if their guesses are right or wrong.
<p>Practice</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ask students to complete Joan's postcard on page 78 with the past form of the verbs. • Tell them to write five questions about Loan's vacation, using the simple past tense. • Tell ss to imagine they just got from one of the vacations on page 74 and write at least five sentences describing what they did. 	<p>Task-cycle: make up their own stories to fit the clues.</p> <p>Task</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ask them to create a story using as many of the ideas on the board as they can. • Tell them that they do not need to write anything. • Have students work in groups of three • Tell them I am going to ask some of them to tell their stories to the class. • Give them some time to prepare their stories. • Go around and listen as they work.

	<p>Planning</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When they have had enough time to prepare their stories appoint a spokesperson for each group. • Ask the groups to work with the spokesperson to prepare the final version of their story. <p>Reporting</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ask one of them to tell the story. Try to choose someone who thinks the young man is the robber. • Ask the others if their stories are the same or different. Choose someone who has a different story and ask them to tell it. Try to choose someone who thinks the eight-year-old is the robber. • Engage the class in a discussion as to whose story is the most likely. • Hand out the story for them to read. • Ask them to compare their stories and share with the class how they were different.
<p>Production</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduce the conversation model • Clarify any unfamiliar word • Have student repeat the conversation model. • Tell student to work in pairs and change the conversation model. • Two or three pairs role-play their conversations. 	<p>Language focus</p> <p>Ask learners to underline all verbs in the past.</p> <p>To be done in the next class.</p>

Lesson plan N° 4

PPP	TBL
Objective: SWBAT discuss acts of kindness and honesty using modal verbs	Objective: SWBAT solve a puzzle and explain how they did it: The men with the three hats
<p style="text-align: center;">Presentation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Have students look at the headlines of three news stories • Ask them in what way they think the stories will be similar 	<p>Pre-task : Setting the context of the story</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Divide the students in small groups of three and give a copy of the mixed up riddle to them. • Have them discuss the meaning of phrases they do not know, if no one in the class knows they can ask me. • Remind them to use English during their discussion. <p><u>Mixed Up Puzzle</u></p> <p>So the King sent them to jail. Next, the king put hats on their heads. Here is the riddle: At least one hat is white. Each of you has a hat on your head. You must keep standing in this line. Finally, he told them that if they answer a riddle, they could go free. You cannot turn around. There are only black hats and white hats. At least one hat is black. First, he made them stand in a line. Mike, Tim, and Sam were caught stealing. Here are my only three hints:</p>

	<p>But the king decided to give them a chance.</p> <p>If one of you can guess the color of the hat on your head, I will let you free.</p>
<p>Practice</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Divide the class into three groups • Ask each group to read a different story and get ready to tell it so someone else • Then tell them that they should make groups of three with one from each of the previous groups and summarize their story 	<p>Task-cycle: putting the riddle together and solving it</p> <p>Task</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ask them to sort the riddle out • If students have problems sorting the riddle out, give them a clue. Tell them that the text is the utterances of two people: the king and the narrator. • Tell them to first classify the phrases under who says what. Then, to organize the riddle logically. • Once they sort the riddle out, tell them to go around and compare with other groups. • After the students have ordered the riddle, give them the story sheet. Ask them to go over the story and compare their own stories. • Ask them to solve the riddles with their group <p>Planning</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • After they have solved the riddle, they should think about how to explain it. • They will need to use a few logical expressions to present their answers. Language such as if, so, because, therefore, and but might be needed. I will walk around and help them with that.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tell them that I will choose anyone from each group to present the answer. <p>Reporting</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ask them to choose one name each from the riddle: Mike, Tim or Sam. Choose Tim to present. • Ask the others to listen carefully to see if they have the same answer. • A correct sample answer might be like this one <p>Tim knew the answer because Sam didn't say anything after one minute. If Tim and Mike's hat were both the same color, then Sam would know what color his hat was. But Sam didn't know. So Tim knew that Mike's hat was a different color than his. Since Mike's hat was black, Tim knew his hat was white.</p>
<p>Production</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Put students in pairs • Ask them to think of a similar story they know and tell each other 	<p>Language focus</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ask learners to underline all verbs in the past. • To be done in the next class.

Lesson plan N° 5

PPP	TBL
Objective: SWBAT: ask about and describe objects using the passive voice	Objective: SWBAT: exchange information about famous artists and works.
<p>Presentation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Show students labeled pictures about materials and objects on page 90. • Introduce the grammar about the passive voice. • Explain the form, meaning and use. • Have ss listen and repeat the words to practice pronunciation 	<p>Pre-task: Getting familiar with the vocabulary about the topic.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Write names of materials and objects on the board: glass, silver, figure, gold, plate, cloth, bag, bowl, stone, wood, ceramic, vase, necklace, and bracelet. • Have students close their books and discuss the meaning of the words in pairs. • Tell them that they must get ready to explain the meaning of the words by using a simple definition, an example, a situation, a synonym or antonym but they cannot use Spanish. • If necessary clarify the meaning of some difficult words. • Show students pictures and have them label the pictures using the words. • Ask them to classify the words in two groups as objects and as materials
<p>Practice</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Have students complete the questions in an interview on page 91, using the passive voice. <p>Ask ss to complete the conversations, writing information questions in the passive voice.</p>	<p>Task-cycle: exchange information about famous artists and their work</p> <p>Task</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Put students in pairs sitting side by side but facing different directions. Make sure one strong and a weaker students are paired up. • One student has Sheet A while the other has Sheet B. (each worksheet has

	<p>a dialogue to guide the students along in their conversation).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Both students have all the titles of the works of art, but are missing information about certain pieces. Student A has whatever information that Student B is missing, and vice versa. • Student A asks a question to Student B in order to gain information that Sheet A is missing. • e.g. Student A: Who sculpted “The Thinker”? • Student B answers in a complete sentence and then asks Student A for information that Sheet B is missing. e.g. Student B: Rodin sculpted “The Thinker”. What was David sculpted from? • Students converse back and forth until their sheets are filled in. • The teacher observes from a distance and helps students who ask for help. <p>Planning</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When they have finished ask them to choose two paintings from their worksheets and prepare a presentation about them, using all the information they have. • Tell them to use simple but complete sentences about it. E.g. Mona Lisa was painted by Da Vinci. • Tell them that I will decide who is going to report.
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	<p>Reporting</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I will ask the taller student to report. • Tell students to pay attention and take notes if necessary because any of them will be asked to summarize each presentation. • Ask another pair who have chosen different works of art to present. • Make a comment on how clear the information they presented was.
<p>Production</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tell students to work in pairs and tell each other about their favorite objects at home. • Play the conversation model. • Clarify some vocabulary • Have students repeat the conversation. • Ask students to change the conversation model in pairs and practice it. • Have students change partners. One students describes an object in his or her home and the other asks questions. E.g. what is it made of? Who was it painted by? 	<p>Language focus</p> <p>Next class work on the grammar: the passive voice.</p>

Lesson plan N° 6

PPP	TBL
Objective: SWBAT make an excuse to decline food	Objective: SWBAT get the ingredients for a recipe and write a recipe
Presentation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Write the objective on the board • Tell students to open their books to page 66 • Have them listen and repeat excuses for not eating something • Clarify any expression if necessary • Have them work in pairs and practice the pronunciation of the excuses taking turns. • Introduce the grammar about negative questions and why don't ...? • Explain the form, use and meaning of the grammar. 	Pre-task: Helping with language and brainstorming possible questions to ask. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Write the key vocabulary on the board <div style="margin-left: 40px;"> Cheese Eggs Milk Flour Water </div> • Ask students to discuss the meaning in pairs • Have them explain the meaning of these words <p><u>Possible questions:</u> Do you have two eggs? I need a litter of water. Do you have it? Can I have the carton of milk, please?</p>
Practice <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Have them complete a negative yes/no question exercise on page 67. • Have them ask each other yes/questions using the vocabulary e. g. Aren't you on a diet? • Ask them to listen to a conversation and do a matching exercise 	Task-cycle: getting the ingredients for a recipe Task <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Divide the class in groups of three • Hand each group a set of five ingredients in pictures. • Set the rules: no Spanish, ask for specific amounts, only one student at a time from each group should go to ask for the ingredient in another group.

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ask them to change pairs and talk about foods or drinks they avoid 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tell them the group that completes all the five ingredients first wins. • Next, tell them to think about a recipe with a least five ingredients to write about in their groups. • Allow 10 minutes for writing the preparation procedure. • Once they are finished, ask members of other groups to go around and ask about the different dishes. • They need to describe the dish in terms of presentation, smell, taste, cost and in what restaurants in Cajamarca we can get them. <p>Planning</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Each student should get ready to tell the class about which dish he/she liked best and why. • Allow them two more minutes to check back with the groups in case they need to remember some information <p>Reporting</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ask three to four students to share their preferences.
<p>Production</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduce the conversation model • Clarify any unfamiliar word • Ask them to repeat some possible variations of expressions • Have them listen to the model and repeat 	<p>Language focus</p>

- | | |
|---|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Tell them to work in pairs and change the conversation model to role-play a dinner conversation• Point them to the language they can use• Ask two to three pairs to role-play their conversation in front of the class. | |
|---|--|

MIN	Times Students Talked								Times Teacher Talked								Number			Percent %	
	QC	QG	AC	AG	P	S	PW	R	P	I	Q	A	F	M	G	SIT	TIT	TOTAL	SIT	TIT	
#																					
%																					

DIRECTIONS: Every minute, identify what is happening at this precise moment of time, and put a check (✓) in the corresponding box. More than one check in each box is possible. If anything is happening in the classroom for at least one minute which does not fit into the categories below leave it blank. Do not count single word utterances.

School: ICPNA - Cajamarca Branch

Observer:

Method: PPP/TBL

Begin:

Total Time: 6

Teacher:

Class:

Date:

End:

Time ¹ Minute	Students are speaking								Teacher is speaking							
	QC	QG	AC	AG	P	S	PW	R	P	I	Q	A	F	M	G	
1		✓		✓	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
2		✓		✓					✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
3			✓	✓					✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
4				✓					✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
5				✓					✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
6	✓		✓	✓		✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
7			✓	✓		✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
8			✓	✓					✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
9		✓	✓	✓					✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓
10		✓	✓	✓			✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
11		✓	✓	✓			✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
12	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
13		✓	✓	✓			✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
14		✓	✓	✓			✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
15		✓	✓	✓			✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
16		✓	✓	✓			✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
17		✓	✓	✓			✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
18				✓			✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
19				✓			✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
20	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
21	✓	✓	✓	✓				✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
22	✓	✓	✓	✓				✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
23	✓	✓	✓	✓				✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
24	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
25	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
26							✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
27							✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
28							✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
29							✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
30		✓					✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
Total	5	13	10	19	5	4	13	2	4	26	13	19	7	4	3	

Time Minute	Students are speaking								Teacher is speaking							
	QC	QG	AC	AG	P	S	PW	R	P	I	Q	A	F	M	G	
31		✓		✓							✓	✓	✓	✓		
32		✓		✓							✓	✓	✓	✓		
33		✓		✓							✓	✓	✓	✓		
34		✓		✓							✓	✓	✓	✓		
35		✓		✓			✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		
36		✓		✓			✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		
37		✓		✓			✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		
38		✓	✓	✓			✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		
39		✓		✓			✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		
40		✓		✓			✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		
41		✓	✓	✓			✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		
42		✓		✓			✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		
43		✓		✓			✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		
44		✓		✓			✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		
45				✓			✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		
46		✓		✓			✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		
47				✓			✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		
48				✓			✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		
49		✓		✓			✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		
50				✓			✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		
51				✓			✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		
52				✓			✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		
53				✓			✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		
54		✓		✓			✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		
55				✓			✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		
56				✓			✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		
57				✓			✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		
58				✓			✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		
59				✓			✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		
60				✓			✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		
Total	0	25	3	34	16	12	7	0	0	16	35	14	15	1	2	

MIN	Times Students Talked								Times Teacher Talked								Number		Percent %		
	QC	QG	AC	AG	P	S	PW	R	P	I	Q	A	F	M	G		STT	TTT	TOTAL	STT	TTT
#	5	40	13	53	21	16	20	2	4	42	48	23	22	5	5						
%																					

what about monitoring and commenting?

DIRECTIONS: Every minute, identify what is happening at this precise moment of time, and put a check (✓) in the corresponding box. More than one check in each box is possible. If anything is happening in the classroom for at least one minute which does not fit into the categories below leave it blank. Do not count single word utterances.

School: ICPNA – Cajamarca Branch

Observer:

Method: PPP(TBL)

Begin:

Total Time:

Teacher:

Class:

Date:

End:

Time ¹	Students are speaking								Teacher is speaking						
Minute	QC	QG	AC	AG	P	S	PW	R	P	I	Q	A	F	M	G
1			✓	✓						✓	✓		✓		
2	✓		✓	✓						✓	✓		✓		
3			✓	✓						✓	✓				
4	✓		✓	✓						✓	✓				
5	✓	✓	✓							✓	✓		✓		
6			✓	✓		✓			✓	✓	✓		✓		
7		✓	✓			✓				✓	✓				
8	✓	✓	✓				✓			✓	✓	✓	✓		
9		✓	✓	✓			✓			✓	✓	✓	✓		
10		✓	✓	✓			✓			✓	✓	✓	✓		✓
11	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓			✓	✓	✓	✓		
12		✓	✓	✓			✓			✓	✓	✓	✓		
13	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓			✓	✓	✓	✓		
14			✓	✓		✓	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
15			✓	✓			✓			✓	✓	✓	✓		✓
16			✓	✓						✓	✓	✓	✓		
17	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		
18	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		
19		✓	✓	✓						✓	✓	✓	✓		
20	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		✓
21			✓	✓	✓					✓	✓	✓	✓		
22			✓				✓			✓	✓	✓	✓		
23							✓			✓	✓	✓	✓		
24		✓	✓	✓			✓			✓	✓	✓	✓		
25		✓	✓	✓			✓			✓	✓	✓	✓		
26	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓			✓	✓	✓	✓		
27		✓	✓	✓						✓	✓	✓	✓		
28		✓	✓	✓						✓	✓	✓	✓		
29		✓	✓	✓		✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		
30		✓	✓	✓	✓					✓	✓	✓	✓		
Total										✓	✓		✓		

[illegible]

MIN	Times Students Talked								Times Teacher Talked								Number			Percent %	
	QC	QG	AC	AG	P	S	PW	R	P	I	Q	A	F	M	G	STT	TTT	TOTAL	STT	TTT	
#																					
%																					

3.2 PPP sample observation forms

DIRECTIONS: Every minute, identify what is happening at this precise moment of time, and put a check (✓) in the corresponding box. More than one check in each box is possible. If anything is happening in the classroom for at least one minute which does not fit into the categories below leave it blank. Do not count single word utterances.

School: ICPNA – Cajamarca Branch

Observer:

Method: PPP/TBL

Begin:

Total Time:

Teacher:

Class:

Date:

End:

Time ¹ Minute	Students are speaking								Teacher is speaking							
	QC	QG	AC	AG	P	S	PW	R	P	I	Q	A	F	M	G	
1																
2	✓									✓	✓			✓		
3		✓								✓	✓					
4		✓								✓	✓					
5	✓									✓	✓					
6										✓	✓			✓		
7	✓									✓	✓			✓		
8										✓	✓			✓		
9	✓									✓	✓					
10	✓	✓								✓	✓					
11	✓									✓	✓			✓		
12	✓									✓	✓					
13	✓									✓	✓			✓		
14	✓									✓	✓					
15	✓									✓	✓					
16										✓	✓			✓		
17	✓	✓								✓	✓			✓		
18	✓									✓	✓			✓		
19	✓									✓	✓			✓		
20	✓									✓	✓			✓		
21										✓	✓			✓		
22										✓	✓			✓		
23		✓								✓	✓			✓		
24										✓	✓			✓		
25	✓									✓	✓			✓		
26	✓	✓								✓	✓			✓		
27	✓									✓	✓			✓		
28										✓	✓			✓		
29										✓	✓			✓		
30										✓	✓			✓		
Total																

Time Minute	Students are speaking								Teacher is speaking							
	QC	QG	AC	AG	P	S	PW	R	P	I	Q	A	F	M	G	
31																
32		✓														
33		✓														
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35		✓														
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54		✓														
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56																
57	✓															
58																
59																
60	✓															
Total																

MIN	Times Students Talked								Times Teacher Talked								Number		Percent %		
	QC	QG	AC	AG	P	S	PW	R	P	I	Q	A	F	M	G		STT	TTT	TOTAL	STT	TTT
#																					
%																					

DIRECTIONS: Every minute, identify what is happening at this precise moment of time, and put a check (✓) in the corresponding box. More than one check in each box is possible. If anything is happening in the classroom for at least one minute which does not fit into the categories below leave it blank. Do not count single word utterances.

School: ICPNA – Cajamarca Branch

Observer:

Method: PPP/TBL

Readers:

Total Time:

Teacher:

Class:

Index
NotesBegin
End:

Time	Students are speaking								Teacher is speaking						
Minute	QC	QG	AC	AG	P	S	PW	R	P	I	Q	A	F	M	G
1															
2	✓								✓	✓	✓				
3		✓							✓	✓	✓				
4	✓		✓						✓	✓	✓				
5			✓						✓	✓	✓				
6	✓		✓						✓	✓	✓				
7	✓			✓		✓			✓	✓	✓				
8	✓								✓	✓	✓				
9		✓	✓												
10			✓	✓											
11	✓		✓	✓					✓	✓	✓		✓		
12			✓	✓	✓					✓	✓		✓		
13				✓	✓					✓	✓				
14	✓			✓	✓	✓				✓	✓		✓		
15				✓	✓	✓				✓	✓			✓	
16	✓			✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	
17				✓	✓	✓			✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	
18				✓		✓			✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	
19						✓		✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	
20	✓	✓	✓			✓			✓	✓	✓		✓		
21	✓		✓						✓	✓	✓				
22			✓						✓	✓	✓				
23		✓	✓						✓	✓	✓		✓		✓
24			✓						✓	✓	✓		✓		
25			✓					✓	✓	✓	✓		✓		
26	✓				✓				✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	
27								✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	
28									✓	✓	✓			✓	
29		✓							✓	✓	✓		✓		
30		✓										✓			
Total							✓					✓			

[illegible]

MIN	Times Students Talked								Times Teacher Talked							Number			Percent %	
	QC	QG	AC	AG	P	S	PW	R	P	I	Q	A	F	M	G	STT	TTT	TOTAL	STJ	TTJ
#																				
%																				

DIRECTIONS: Every minute, identify what is happening at this precise moment of time, and put a check (✓) in the corresponding box. More than one check in each box is possible. If anything is happening in the classroom for at least one minute which does not fit into the categories below, leave it blank. Do not count single word utterances.

School: ICPNA – Cajamarca Branch

Observer:

Method: PPP/TBL

Begin:

Total Time:

Teacher:

Class:

Date:

End:

Time	Students are speaking								Teacher is speaking							
Minute	QC	QG	AC	AG	P	S	PW	R	P	I	Q	A	F	M	G	
1																
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27																
28																
29																
30																
Total																

Time	Students are speaking								Teacher is speaking							
Minute	QC	QG	AC	AG	P	S	PW	R	P	I	Q	A	F	M	G	
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60																
Total																

MIN	Times Students Talked								Times Teacher Talked								Number		Percent %		
	QC	QG	AC	AG	P	S	PW	R	P	I	Q	A	F	M	G	STT	TTT	TOTAL	STT	TTT	
#																					
%																					

3.3. OBSERVATION INSTRUMENT AND GUIDANCE NOTES FOR THE FACILITATORS.

The aim of this observation is simply to find out exactly what the teacher and students are doing each minute of the lesson. The main aim is to find out how much speaking and interaction is going on in the classroom in order to help me complete my thesis. It is not to test the teacher or the students in any way. Please remember that all you need to do is tick the appropriate column. Nothing else. Ideally, your presence in the classroom should be felt as little as possible - the lesson should proceed as if you were not there at all.

DIRECTIONS

Every minute, identify what is happening at this precise moment of time, and put a check (✓) in the corresponding box. More than one check in each box is possible. If a type of participation expands for over a minute, mark the next minute (E.g. the teacher might keep presenting for over a minute). However, if anything is happening in the classroom for at least one minute which does not fit into the categories below leave it blank. Do not count single word utterances.

Note: Ideally, you should be able to identify every type of participation and mark them separately and in the corresponding minute; thus ticks need to be regular so try not to let your attention wander. (For example: Do you have any questions? No questions? OK, then let's move to the next activity. Please open your books to page 98) Here there is at least one Q and two Is.

STUDENTS ARE SPEAKING

Code

QC: Comprehension question - S asked their classmates for understanding of what they have heard, seen, read, said or done but after the teacher modeled the question.

QG: General question - S asked questions generating original language in asking

AC: Comprehension answer - S answered comprehension check questions (SS recall or feedback basic info.)

AG: General answer - S answered a general question (SS create/ produce orig. lang. in answering)

S: Summarizing - S summarized (students give a shortened version of something that has been said, done, listened to, or read- connecting the main ideas or stating the main points logically and sequentially, presented the results after a pair or group discussion)

P: Personalizing - S reacted to, gave example, expressed opinion, explained, told a personal experience, expanded on, etc.

PW: Pair work - Students talked/discussed in pairs.

R: Repetition - Students repeated what the teacher or the audio said for language practice (pronunciation, grammar, etc.) but without any communicative purpose.

TEACHER IS SPEAKING

Code

P: Presenting -The teacher is providing input to the students. He may be describing, explaining or narrating, whether from the textbook, his own knowledge, or from any other source.

I: Giving instructions -The teacher is telling the students what to do, setting the task, saying what is next, closing an activity, etc. If the teacher repeats the instructions mark it twice.

Q: Asking questions - The teacher is asking questions or eliciting information. Mark as a **question** only if it demands an answer e.g. Percy, how many people are in your family? (Mark as **instruction** if the teacher asks a question with the purpose of organizing e. g. Pedro, could you please ask José to summarize)

A: Answering questions: The teacher is responding to the students' questions.

F: Giving feedback -The teacher is evaluating or commenting on something students have said or done, echoing, or clarifying something.

M: Modeling - The teacher is modeling what the students are expected to do or to correct errors. (Actions or content)

G: Generic - When the teacher spoke but you are not really sure what kind of utterance it is, e. g. let's do the first example together.

APPENDIX 4

LESSON VIDEO RECORDING LINKS

1. Planning a trip for which we need a rental car
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=KcMqork7x3o>
2. Describing a local dish
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JpCrqmr4mRw>
3. Writing a recipe about a typical dish
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=8b8Ntbj1YXU>
4. Discussing how our food passions have changed
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1vynItsA92g>
5. Discussing how our lifestyles have changed
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bSZPdGi59aA>
6. Identifying ingredients for a recipe
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5CbYVUmrSr4>
7. Describing pieces of Peruvian art
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=oqgwiMjC7kk>

APPENDIX 5

SAMPLE MATERIALS USED IN SOME TASKS

5.1 INFORMATION GAP TASK

FAMOUS: ARTISTS STUDENT A SHEET

Who painted/sculpted ____?	It was painted/sculpted by ____?
When was it painted/sculpted ____?	It was painted sculpted in ____?
What was it painted with/sculpted from?	It was painted with/sculpted from ____?
Let me get this straight: It was painted/sculpted by ____ in ____ with/from ____.	That's right/correct.



Name: **Sunflowers**
 Artist:
 Date:
 Materials:



Name: **The Thinker**
 Artist: Rodin
 Date: 1882
 Materials: Bronze



Name: **The Ox**
 Artist:
 Date:
 Materials:



Name: **The Scream**
 Artist: Munch
 Date: 1893
 Materials: Oil Paints



Name: **David**
 Artist:
 Date:
 Materials:



Name: **Mona Lisa**
 Artist: Da Vinci
 Date: 1503-1506
 Materials: Oil



Name: **Guernica**
 Artist:
 Date:
 Materials:



Name: **Möbius Strip**
 Artist: Escher
Date: 1963
 Materials: Woodcut

FAMOUS ARTISTS: STUDENT B SHEET

Who painted/sculpted ____?	It was painted/sculpted by ____?
When was it painted/sculpted ____?	It was painted sculpted in ____?
What was it painted with/sculpted from?	It was painted with/sculpted from ____?
Let me get this straight: It was painted by ____ in ____ With/from ____	That's right/correct.



Name: **Sunflowers**
 Artist: Van Gogh
 Date: 1889
 Materials: Oil Paints



Name: **The Thinker**
 Artist:
 Date:
 Materials:



Name: **The Ox**
 Artist: Joong-sup Lee
Date: In the 1950s
 Materials: Oil paints



Name: **The Scream**
 Artist:
 Date:
 Materials:



Name: **David**
 Artist: Michelangelo
 Date: 1501-1504
Materials: marble



Name: **Mona Lisa**
 Artist:
 Date:
 Materials:



Name: **Guernica**
 Artist: Picasso
 Date: 1937
 Materials: Oil Paints



Name: **Möbius Strip**
 Artist:
 Date:
 Materials:

5.2 PROBLEM-SOLVING TASK MATERIALS

Mixed up puzzle to be cut and handed to each group

So the King sent them to jail.

Next, the king put hats on their heads.

Here is the riddle:

At least one hat is white.

Each of you has a hat on your head.

You must keep standing in this line.

Finally, he told them that if they answer a riddle, they could go free.

You cannot turn around.

There are only black hats and white hats.

At least one hat is black.

First, he made them stand in a line.

Mike, Tim, and Sam were caught stealing.

Here are my only three hints:

But the king decided to give them a chance.

If one of you can guess the color of the hat on your head, I will let you free.

5.3 OPINION-GIVING TASK MATERIALS

AGREE ON WHICH DISH IN PERU IS THE BEST

1. FOOD DISCUSSION

STUDENT A's QUESTIONS (Do not show these to student B)

- a) What did you think when you heard the goal for today?
- b) What springs to mind when you hear the word 'Peruvian food'?
- c) What do you think of Peruvian food?
- d) What famous Peruvian dishes do you know?
- e) What do you think of raw fish and raw meat?
- f) How important is it to present food artistically?
- g) Is food that is artistic tastier?
- h) Which is better, ceviche or beef?

STUDENT B's QUESTIONS (Do not show these to student A)

- a) Do you like eating Peruvian food? Why/not?
- b) Is Peruvian food healthy or unhealthy?
- c) What food do people usually eat for important occasions?
- d) What is your favorite food?
- e) What's your favorite restaurant (and why)?
- f) How proud are you of Peru's cuisine?
- g) What special food do you eat at the New Year?
- h) Do you know how to cook/ prepare Peruvian food?

2. EATING OUT: Rank the following factors. One being the most important and six the least important when you choose a restaurant. Then share your answers with another pair.

	Best points	Why?
Taste		
Presentation		
Healthiness		
Cost		
Balance		
Smell		

3. DISCUSSION. Work in groups of four. Try to convince the others why your dish is the best. Use real examples and facts to support your opinion. You can use vocabulary from exercise two. In the end your group should agree on only one dish to be the best and provide enough details to support your decision.

Role A – Green soup

You think green soup is the best in Peru. Tell the others three reasons why. Tell them things that are wrong with their dishes.

Role B – Guinea Pig with mashed potatoes

You think Guinea pig with mashed potatoes is the best in Peru. Tell the others three reasons why. Tell them things that are wrong with their dishes.

Role C – Ceviche

You think Ceviche is the best dish in Peru. Tell the others three reasons why. Tell them things that are wrong with their dishes

Role D – stuffed peppers

You think stuffed peppers is the best dish in Peru. Tell the others three reasons why. Tell them things that are wrong with their dishes.

4. BEFORE WE PRESENT. Get ready to present your conclusion to the class. Do it in a way of summary. Was it easy or difficult to come to an agreement? Who said what? How did the other respond? How did you come to an agreement?

APPENDIX 6

PLAN OF ACTION FOR THE EXPERIMENT

Prepared by: Reynulfo Fonseca

For the period: December, 2014 – March, 2015

Objectives	Tasks	Resources	Date completed
Collect data for the pretest of both groups	Teach ten classes to each group and ask a mentor to come in and observe, if they don't have time ask a friend to record the class	Observation form And mentors	December, 2014
Conduct the experiment	Adapt lessons from the textbook into tasks, teach the lessons, ask a mentor to observe or record the classes.	Textbook, Top Notch 2 Observation form Camcorder	January, 2015-March, 2015
Task 1	Planning a trip for which we need a rental car	Projector Slides with instructions	January 8, 2015
Task 2	Agreeing on which dish in Peru is the best	Handout	January 13, 2015
Task 3	Describing a local dish	Blank paper	January, 23
Task 4	Discuss the social impact of the internet	Word cards	February, 4
Task 5	Create and tell a story on given clues	Board, Markers Story on paper	February 9, 2015
Task 6	The men with the three hats puzzle	Word cards with clues	February 19, 2015
Task 7	Exchange information about famous artists and works.	Work sheets with pictures	February 23, 2015
Task 8	Get the ingredients for a recipe and write a recipe	Pictures Written recipes	March 4, 2015
Task 9	Discussing how our lifestyles have changed	Notebooks	March 9, 2015
Task 10	Describing pieces of Peruvian art	Pictures of pieces of art	March 16, 2015

APPENDIX 7

SAMPLE LESSON TRANSCRIPTS

7.1 TRANSCRIPT OF A CONTROL GROUP LESSON

HOW A TYPICAL ICPNA APPROACH LESSON LOOKED LIKE (PPP)

Teacher. OK let's start the class .So, please Christian, could you ask Roger about the goal?

Christian: Roger, what are we going to do today in class?

Roger: Plan a trip for which we need a rental car.

(A student arrives late)

Teacher: what do you say when you are late?

Student: I am sorry for being late, may I come in?

Teacher: OK, come in, but find a chair please.

Teacher: Lizbeth, can you ask Bryan about the goal again, please?

Lizbeth: Bryan, what is the goal for today?

Bryan: the goal for today is plan a trip for which we need a rental car.

Teacher: please everyone go to page 44.

Teacher. Elsa, what page is the lesson for today on?

Elsa: forty four.

Teacher: complete sentence please.

Elsa: the lesson for today is on page forty four.

Teacher: now listen to the instructions (plays the audio)...Luis, please ask Nataly about the activity.

Luis: Nataly, what is the activity?

Nataly: what?

Luis: what, what are... we going to do?

Nataly: Can you repeat the questions please?

Luis. what are you...what are we going to do in this activity?

Nataly: in this activity listen to the four conversations, write a check.

Teacher: Can you please use your own words? OK. Don't read.

Nataly: In this activity, we rrr... listen the conversation, and...and...read the message on the line?

(a students raises his hand)

Teacher: Go ahead, Fabian.

Fabian: we are gonna listen to four conversations, we are gonna write if the caller rent a car or not, and we are going to explain why.

Teacher: right, it says write a check if the person rents a car, so you check the box. Then listen again and write?

Melissa: The reason?

Teacher: Right. Write the reason.

Teacher: the reason for what Thalia?

Thalia: The reason for rent a car.

Teacher: The reason why the person rents a car. Or the reason why the person did not rent a car?

Thalia: the reason the person did not rent a car.

Teacher: OK. So let's see. Please Angy, what are you going to do in this activity?

Johana: listen the conversation and write a check if the person rent a car, then write a reason.

(teacher plays the audio)

Teacher: OK? Do you need to listen again?

Students: Yes.

Teacher: alright I am going to stop after the specific reason so you get the specific information...OK, Jonathan. What are you going to do now?

Jonathan: we are going to listen again the conversation that...that didn't ask for...that didn't rent a car...and we are going to write the reason.

Teacher: O.K.

(the teacher plays the first conversation and stops the audio)

Teacher: So just as an example. Christian, does she rent a car

Christian: Yes she does.

Teacher: Could you give us some information about her rental car?

Christian: It is a... she need a car because she...rr. I don't know teacher.

Teacher: OK; Angy. What type of car?

Students: SUV

Teacher: complete sentence

Roger: she needs a car of the type SUV

Teacher: OK, Jonathan, where is she going?

Jonathan: she is going to the airport.

Teacher: where, in which country?

Students: em..em.. Bolivia

Teacher: alright, something like that. You need to give some extra information. So listen to next one.

Teacher: (plays one more conversation and stops the audio again). OK, Liliana, could you ask please Viviana?

Liliana: Viviana, will he rent a car?

Viviana: because he....

Teacher: yes or no first...

Viviana: oh, noo noo...

Teacher: complete answer please.

Viviana: she doesn't rent a car...he...because he needs specific type of car but the rental car doesn't have.

Teacher: OK, let's see, do you agree with that, Jorge?

Jorge: Excuse me!

Teacher: do you agree with Viviana's answer?

Jorge: yes.

Teacher: who disagrees with Viviana's answer?

Roger: I disagree.

Teacher: please explain.

Roger: because the caller has a problem

Teacher: what type of problem?

Liliana: the caller didn't know the number.

Thalia: the caller have the wrong number.

Teacher: Yes, he called a spa, and this is a rentals car agency. Do you know what a spa is? What is a spa?... What is a spa?

Nataly: People need to cut their hair.

Teacher: OK, there you go. What is a spa?

Fabian: it is where people need relaxing.

Teacher: Ok, it is where people relax, right. Where they get massages... now let's write it. It was the wrong number. Number three

(the teacher plays conv. three and stops again)

Teacher: OK. Please Elsa, can you ask Bryan?

Elsa: what is the answer of number three

Bryan: she rent a car.

Teacher: give us some information

Bryan: she rent a compact car, at the airport, in Miami.

Teacher: OK, good, number four.

(plays conv. four)

Teacher: Jonathan: can you ask Luis.

Jonathan: what's your answer number four?

Luis: she didn't rent a car.

Teacher: why?

Luis: because she is "menor de edad"? ... teacher, how do you say menor de edad?

Teacher: under eighteen, but is he under eighteen?

Jorge: No, he is too young to rent a car

Teacher: right, he is too young to rent a car. Why?

Anghy: Because the agency only rent a car to people who have...who is...who are twenty one years old.

Teacher: Yes. Do you agree, Melissa:

Melissa: Yes.

Teacher: good, now let's summarize.

Teacher: Fabian, could you ask Christian to summarize the activity?

Fabian: Christian, what did we do in this activity?

Christian: in this activity we listen to the phone conversations about people who want to rent a car and check the answers.

Teacher: only that?

Christian: yes.

Teacher: OK. Can you ask please Liliana to summarize again?

Christian: what did we do in this activity?

Liliana: in this activity we listen the conversations. Then we completed the answers in the book. Finally compared the answers with my classmates.

Teacher: alright, thank you. That is all for today. Please review the lesson for tomorrow.

7.2 TRANSCRIPT OF AN EXPERIMENTAL GROUP LESSON

HOW A TYPICAL TASK- BASED LESSON LOOKED LIKE

BEFORE THE TASK

Teacher: In this class you are going to plan a trip were you will need a rental car. Brigit. What are you going to do in this class?

Bridget: We are going to plan a trip and rent a car

Teacher: Fine. Now listen. You are going to work in pairs. You will need a blank piece of paper or you can use your notebooks. Please read and follow the steps on the board.

(after the student read) how many steps do you have to complete?
David.

David: five steps

Teacher: how many people are you going to work together, Ximena?

Ximena: two.

Teacher: complete answer please

Ximena: we are going to be two.

Teacher: what do you need, Sandra?

Sandra: AH? .., a piece of paper.

Teacher: you have ten minutes to complete the first part.

Miguel: we write only answer?

Teacher: yes, only the answer.How much time do you have David?

David: ten minutes.

DURING THE TASK

Lucia: teacher, what we do?

Teacher: first answer all the questions on the screen

Ana: Teacher, how do you say “nos vamos a quedar una semana”?

Teacher: we are going to stay one week.

Ana: thank you!

Teacher: you´re welcome

José Carlos: teacher; are we going to rent a car for the city or for the country.

Teacher: you decide, maybe for both.

Sandra: teacher, how do you say “camioneta 4X4”?

Teacher: It is an SUV

Miguel: teacher, can you....can you... how do you say bajar?

Teacher: Oh, scroll down

Lucero: teacher, how do you say “tales como”?

Teacher: Such as...

Ximena: teacher...can I speak Spanish?

Teacher: sorry, you can't. try to express your ideas in English, I am going to help you.

Ximena: How do you say, “el carro que yo rente tiene que ser cómodo para mí”?

Teacher: it has to be comfortable to me.

José Carlos: teacher, is OK to say, we are going to visit different places in the city?

Teacher: yes, of course.

Walter: teacher, we finish... this step. Can we do the step two?

Teacher: not yet. Please get ready to tell the class about the first part

Brigit: teacher, how do you say, “vamos a llegar el sábado”?

Teacher: we are arriving on Saturday.

Jesus. Teacher, if I stay in my house, I need to describe the hotel?

Teacher: imagine you are going to stay at a hotel, so that you use the vocabulary we have learned in this unit.

Jesus: oh, OK.

Emily: teacher, we need specific date?

Teacher: yes, please.

Lucero: we finished, teacher.

Teacher: just a second please.

Gabriel: teacher can we include the hotel services we need?

Teacher: of course.

Sandra: teacher; I am sorry, we have to leave now.

Teacher: oh, yes you told me that. You can go.

José Carlos: teacher, do you know any good hotel in Lima?

Teacher: Sheraton is a famous and expensive hotel.

José Carlos: OK.

Walter: teacher, we finished.

Teacher: alright, now, let's report what you have done up to now.

Luis: teacher, how do you say, “es tu turno”?

Teacher: it is your turn.

Emily: teacher, one moment, please. We don't finish yet.

Teacher: don't worry, you can report only what you did. So, Johana, Can you ask Miguel to summarize what they have done up to now?

Johana: Miguel, can you summarize your work?

Miguel: First, we completed the questions in step one and write the answers in a paper. Then, we discussed our answers.

Teacher: Ok, Fabian, ask Ximena, about what they discussed.

Fabian: Ximena; what did you discuss?

Ximena: We talked about to go to Cusco, I said yes, and he said yes. We agreed to go to Cusco.

Teacher: OK, that's fine. Now, we are going to continue with the next step. Luis, please ask Andrea to read the next step.

Luis: Andrea, Can you read the next step?

Andrea: practice with your classmate before you present. Who is going to start first? What are you going to say? How are you going to finish?

Teacher: so get ready, please, you have four minutes. How much time do you have Emily?

Emily: four minutes.

WHILE THE STUDENTS WERE GETTING READY TO PRESENT

Lucia: teacher how can we start?

Teacher: Hello, everyone, we are going to talk about.....

Lucia: uh, Ok. Thank you, teacher.

David: Teacher, how do you say, "yo voy a hablar sobre el carro, y mi compañero sobre las actividades que vamos a hacer"?

Teacher: I am going to talk about the rental car, and my classmate is going to tell you about the activities we are going to do.

Miguel: can I use present here?

Teacher: let me see. Sorry, you can't. you should say, we are going to the beach.

(everyone asked questions at this point that the teacher was unable to keep up with answers to everyone)

Teacher: now I am going to pass by each pair to see if you are discussing and getting ready.

Luis and Johana

Teacher: so how are you going to start?

Luis: we are going to start saying. Good afternoon teacher and friends. In this moment present with my trip. We are going to Tumbes with my friends. We are swim in the beach. We are eat a fish...

Teacher: you are doing nice job. Just get ready with the rest. Ok.

Jose Carlos and Walter

Teacher: what about you?

José Carlos: well, we are going to buy video games, do a lot of shop, go to the beach and surf.

Ana and Gabriel

Gabriel: teacher what... what say first? What are we say first?

Teacher: first you can say: good afternoon classmates. Now we are...

Ana: explain...

Teacher: going to explain our trip plan for our next vacation.

Gabriel: can you repeat please? (he writes down the teacher's prompt)

Ana: our is you and I?

Teacher: yes, you and me.

Lucero and Emily

Teacher: I need to check if you are ready to present.

Lucero: teacher, in English?

Teacher: yes of course.

Lucero: OK. Good afternoon, teacher. Now we are going explain about our vacation. We are going to different places.

Teacher: that's fine. Just get ready.

Emily: what is the answer for the final question?

Teacher: You can say. Thank you very much for listening to us.

Lucia and Jesus

Lucia: teacher what we say first to the class?

Teacher: you can start like this: In this occasion we are going to tell you about our vacation plan.

Lucia: and then?

Teacher: next you could say, my classmate is going to explain to you the rest.

Jesus: and finally?

Teacher: finally, you could say; thank you so much for paying attention.

Lucia: first my classmate or me?

Teacher: you decide.

Lucia: oh, OK.

DURING THE PRESENTATION STAGE

Teacher: now it is time to present. Please read the instructions on the board. (after they read in silence) Ana, can you ask Sergio to summarize the instructions?

Ana: Sergio can you say the summarize?

Teacher: repeat together. Can you please summarize the instructions?

Students: can you please summarize the instructions?

Ana: can you summarize the instructions?

Sergio: we are going to go to the front of the classroom and present our work to the class. The rest of us are going to take...take notes...take notes. We can ask points that interest us....uh, we can ask someone to summarize our presentation.

Teacher: Luis please go first.

Luis: teacher we present?

Teacher: yes please.

Luis: Good afternoon teacher, good afternoon friends. We are going to present with my ..my trip. We are going to Tumbes with my friends. We stay two weeks. We are going to swim in the pool, eat fish, visit my friends. Continue please.

Johana: well, we are going to rent a convertible car. Pick up...pick it up.... The pick up is January first, and drop off January 14. We are going to stay in a hotel near to the beach. The hotel services is a pool and room minibar. Thanks for listening our trip.
(Everyone claps)

Teacher: nice job. Next please. Ximena, is your group ready?

Ximena: Sure.

Fabian: Good afternoon. We are going to Piura with my friends. Continue please.

Ximena: we are going to drive an SUV. We are going to stay in a hotel near to the beach... You next...

Jorge: we are going to travel with some friends more. We are going to pick the car in February second. And drop it off in.... when?

Ximena: sixteen.

Jorge: oh... in...in February 16th.

Ximena: we are going to need room service, free internet and laundry service.

Jorge: we are going to need an SUV because we are going to travel many...many... many people and rrr...we are going to... rrr... we are going to have a lot of luggage.

Fabian: we are going to Piura because is beautiful and we want to visit.

Teacher: how can you finish your presentation?

Jorge: well, that is our plan for our vacations. Now who wants to tell us our plan? José Carlos, summarize please.

José Carlos: what can I do?

Teacher: you can ask questions. For example you can say why are you going to need room service?

José Carlos: I do not remember the name of the city and I want to ask for the city.

Teacher: Oh! Ok, go ahead then.

José Carlos: What city are you going?

Gabriel: we are going to Piura.

José Carlos: why do you need room service?

Ximena: because we do not have time to go to a restaurant.

Teacher: why are you going to that place and not to another?

Gabriel: because we want to go to the beach and that place have a beautiful beach.

Teacher: nice job (student clap). Now Miguel could you please summarize the two conversations?

Miguel: I only remember the last, not the first.

Teacher: alright. Then summarize this conversation, please.

Miguel: well they are going to Piura. They are going to rent an SUV because they have a lot of luggage. And, uh, rrr... they need room service...

Teacher: alright, that is fine. Now, please you two continue.

Emily: ooh! We are not ready. ...it is time to go.

Teacher: not yet. We still have some minutes. Come on hurry up. (students clap so they decide to go in front)

Lucero: good afternoon classmates. Good afternoon teacher. Now we are going to explain about the vacation...our vacation. We are going to Lima for one month, visit different places such as “Parque de las aguas”.

Emily: I rent a car...a minivan because we are many people..em...em...the service in the hotel is...we need..em... make up the room...em...do the laundry...em..eat there.

Teacher. Good. Now finish your presentation.

Lucero: thank you very much. (students laugh and clap)

Teacher: finally, please you two continue.

Miguel: teacher it is time.

Teacher. We listen to them and finish.

Lucia: good afternoon teacher. Good afternoon classmates. We go to Lima one month ... rrr... We stay in Lima in hotel Sheraton.... em...and we need some services.

Jesus: I going to stay in a hotel...go to the shopping mall...to the zoo...to the park of the center. We are going to stay for one month.

Teacher: are you going alone or together? So what do you say I am going or we are going?

Jesus: we are going.

Teacher: good job. Now let's summarize and we go home. Fabian; please ask Ana to summarize.

Fabian: Can you summarize please?

Ana: No teacher; I was not pay attention. I was thinking something else.

Teacher: Repeat please: I wasn't paying attention.

Students: I wasn't paying attention

Teacher: then, ask Ximena to help you.

Ana: Ximena, please help me.

Ximena: teacher, I don't remember all the information.

Teacher: what do you remember?

Ximena: well, they are going to Lima: they are going to rent a minivan. They are going to stay one month in Lima.

Teacher: thank you very much. That's all for today.

APPENDIX 8

WEAKNESSES AND STRENGTHS ACCORDING TO RON'S EVALUATION OF 2015

Dear Dalton, Rey and Eva, I have sent a similar document to the mentors in Chiclayo. Please pay close

Attention to the **Ns**, and then to the **Bs**.

Site averages	6	7	3	2	4	5	5	4	3	7	10	5	7	5	3	2	4	2	6	8	5	5
S - B - N	B	S	B	N	S	S	S	S	B	S	B	S	S	B	B	N	S	N	N	S	S	S
Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22

(For a description of each item see the chart on next page)

THE 22 COMPONENTS BEING EVALUATED	Pts
1. T corrects the Ss' speaking & reading errors	10
2. Ss repeat for practice after T or audio models	10
3. Quality of the T models & recasts	5
4. T uses pair/group work	5
5. T and/or Ss use the board	5
6. T's use of technology	5
7. T allows all Ss to answer chorally	5
8. T allows Ss to speak/talk in one-word sentences	5
9. T helps and/or encourages Ss to ask for help	5
10. T's pace (rate of speed) in teaching the lesson	10
11. Delivery of the lesson	15
12. Classroom management	5
13. T's English fluency during the class	10
14. Ss' use of English when speaking in class	10
15. Balance between <u>QC/QG</u> and AC/AG, S, & P	5
16. Balance between <u>AC/AG</u> and QC/QG, S, & P	5
17. Balance between <u>S</u> and QC/QG, AC/AG & P	5
18. Balance between <u>P</u> and QC/QG, AC/AG & S	5
19. T calls on all Ss equally during the class	15
20. Total S talk	10
21. Teaching reading	5
22. Teaching writing	5