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DEPARTEMENT OF ARTS AND ENGLISH**

**A Comparison between the Impact of The Tasks  
Rhetorical Argumentation and Narrating Stories on  
Fluency and Accuracy. A Case Study of Second Year  
Students at the University of Constantine.**

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**By: Abderrahim Bouderbane**

**Supervisor: Dr. Riad Belouahem**

**Board of Examiners:**

<b>Chairman:</b>	<b>Prof. Zahri Harouni</b>	<b>Prof. University of Constantine</b>
<b>Supervisor:</b>	<b>Prof. Riad Belouahem</b>	<b>Prof. University of Constantine</b>
<b>Member:</b>	<b>Prof. Nacif Labeled</b>	<b>Prof. University of Constantine</b>
<b>Member:</b>	<b>Dr. Saliha Chelli</b>	<b>Dr. University of Biskra</b>
<b>Member:</b>	<b>Dr. Nadir Kaouli</b>	<b>Dr. University of Batna</b>

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## **Dedication**

To my parents: My father who did not live long to see this work accomplished. My mother 'Badia' who pushed me forward during the making of this work, without her, this would be impossible.

To my nephews Nasseralah, Abdessetar, Lina and Nedjla together with their father Athman.

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## **Abstract**

The present study is a comparison between the impact of rhetorical argumentation and narrating stories on students' fluency and accuracy in communicative competence. We aimed at evaluating the usefulness and suitability of these tasks, and their efficiency when it comes to teaching fluency and accuracy by analysing the direct effects of the tasks on the indices of fluency and accuracy. The problematic issue in this research investigates the effects of the task rhetorical argumentation, and whether it is an important task that teachers should rely on it in teaching speaking in academic contexts. The research hypotheses are used to probe the aims and they are: 1) - If students are taught how to organize information rhetorically, then they will master fluency and accuracy. 2) - If rhetorical argumentation is used as a communicative task in the classroom, then the students' level of fluency and accuracy will improve. 3) - Teachers should be made aware that rhetorical argumentation is more suitable than narrating stories for teaching fluency and accuracy in academic contexts. In this research, we worked with second year students at the University of Frères Mentouri, Constantine. The sample is composed of 65 students which are divided in between 30 students in the control group and 35 students in experimental group. The data was collected by two research methods: a classroom observation and an experiment. The former is used to evaluate three main areas which are: classroom interaction, topic knowledge and language knowledge. The latter is developed with a pre-test and a post-test to validate or invalidate the research hypotheses by calculating the coefficient correlation ( $r$ ), t-test and the standard deviation. The results of the experiment show that there are two types of fluency which are procedural and automatic, rhetorical argumentation can be used to develop procedural fluency, and not automatic since the task is considered as difficult and students were not familiar with it. While the task of narrating stories strengthens students automatic fluency since the task was familiar to them and they already possess schema knowledge.

## **List of Abbreviations**

A-Level: Alpha Level

BMD: Bachelor, Master, Doctorate

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching/Testing

CI: Classroom Interaction

DF: Degree of Freedom

ESL: English as a Second Language

FL: Fluency

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

LA: Language knowledge.

LMD: License, Master, Doctorat.

M: Motivation

P: Participation

PO: Planning and Organization

PS: Presentation Skills

RF: Rhetorical Functions

S: Seriousness

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

SD: Standard Deviation

TK: Topic Knowledge.

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## **Introduction**

The speaker's responsibility during speaking is multidimensional. Indeed, it encompasses the linguistic sphere to reach pragmatic, discourse and strategic competences. At the moment students finish their studies and obtain their degrees, the least we expect from them is to use the language they have learnt naturally and in different contexts. This suggests that at the end of their academic careers they would be deemed to possess the required knowledge and competencies to use the language as effectively as possible.

Acquiring the required knowledge and competencies is, nevertheless, not as simple as it may be assumed. Any learnt language is divided into components which make up that language, and those components need specific tasks in specific contexts. Therefore, any lack of practising those tasks, may result in inaccuracy of speech production. The fact is that, no matter how good foreign language learners are, processing knowledge of the foreign language of and schema knowledge is always problematic specifically when it comes to expressing ideas to listeners on a given subject matter.

In addition, designing specific tasks for students in the classroom is considered intriguing and misleading. Teachers are always confused between choosing appropriate topics, tasks, and the students' proficiency level. Likewise, subjecting appropriate tasks according to the students' language proficiency is a compulsory course in foreign language teaching which requires careful consideration in foreign language learning classrooms.

### **1- Aim of The Study**

This research seeks to investigate the relation between the implementation of different tasks in the classroom, with the components fluency and accuracy. To be more specific, the term task in this research refers to the communicative purposes and the rhetorical functions shaped in a form of a classroom work or practice. What is so specific about these tasks is that, they are intended to develop the students' performances in the classroom, and to assimilate

the practice of language in everyday life situations (Nunan 1984). Selecting the appropriate tasks is problematic especially when we consider a number of aspects including: the knowledge required (language knowledge and topic knowledge) and the number of competencies, choosing what to teach and how to teach it. Some tasks do not meet the students' needs if they are to learn grammar or vocabulary. A dialogue, for example, would be very appropriate for sentence structure, but not for vocabulary. Hence, since language is learnt in different contexts, task variation is compulsory to make learning sound real, but if we assume the various kinds of tasks, teachers are confronted with another problematic issue which was raised by many researchers in the domain of second language teaching and learning. Robinson (2001) and Fulcher (2003) discussed the issue of task difficulty and its consequences on both learning and teaching. They indicated that the difficulty of the task is due to a number of reasons:

- The application of the task in a wrong situation where it does not fit the context appropriately.
- When the task is new to the students and they do not receive too many instructions about it.
- When the purposes of the task do not meet the purposes of the aspects intended in learning.
- When the task is demanding and the students cannot cope up with it.

The second assumption we hold, in here, is that these so called tasks are designed to improve language skills like reading, writing, listening and speaking. Speaking is divided into two important components: which are mainly fluency and accuracy (in some other times complexity is included). Accuracy and fluency as components of speaking are considered as macro-components since each one underlies or branches off other different micro-components. Accuracy, for example, underlies grammar, syntax, vocabulary and phonology.

Fluency; however, underlies many indices: like speed of delivery, planning what to say next, how to say it, and hesitation phenomena (including pauses, hesitations and false starts etc...).

The third assumption we hold in this research explains the extent to which task difficulty and task familiarity affect language knowledge and topic knowledge. The language we produce during speaking a foreign language relies on how much vocabulary we possess, how much command we undertake in grammar rules, and how fast we generate ideas and transfer them to listeners. Meanwhile, language is not produced haphazardly. It is context bound and the context we refer to in language learning is almost always the classroom context. Learning a foreign language in a classroom context is based on tasks, and tasks are activities the purpose of which is to assimilate the use of language in everyday life.

Tasks in a foreign language classroom require practice through using the tools of the real world. Unfortunately, foreign language learners find it very difficult to undertake some tasks in speaking, specifically those which advocate a number of communicative functions. This difficulty is either traced to language or ideas, since processing information is generating, planning, and contextualizing speaking. If these processes are not quickly done, the speaker produces more pauses and hesitations because of the lack of both language knowledge and topic knowledge. In addition, when the tasks are not suitable for the speaking skill, the performance of the learners is influenced negatively.

Accordingly, the main aim of this research is to investigate the effects of the task rhetorical argumentation on the components of speaking fluency and accuracy. To check whether it is a difficult or easy task as it is compared to the task narrating stories, to realize how each task is taught and used in the classroom, and to detect the function and implementation of them in the classroom, and in different contexts to enhance fluency and accuracy.

## **2- Research Questions**

Diving in the aims of this research, we brought about three equally important research questions:

- 1-What is the effect of rhetorical argumentation on fluency and accuracy in communicative competence?
- 2- Is rhetorical argumentation an important task in the process of speaking fluently and accurately?
- 3- Do teachers focus on rhetorical argumentation as an important factor in academic contexts?

## **3-Hypotheses**

Hence, we assumed these three hypotheses:

The first plausible hypothesis suggests that if students are taught how to organize information rhetorically, then they will master fluency and accuracy. This hypothesis was made general as a prerequisite for validating the importance of learning through rhetorics, and the effects of information organization on the speaking product.

The second hypothesis is more specific as it covers directly the intended variable of the research, and it states that, if rhetorical argumentation is used as a communicative task in the classroom, then the students' level of fluency and accuracy will improve. This hypothesis considers rhetorical argumentation as an important task in learning speaking in foreign language contexts.

Finally, the third hypothesis assumes the difference between rhetorical argumentation and narrating stories as classroom tasks. It assumes, otherwise, that teachers should be made aware that rhetorical argumentation is more suitable than narrating stories for teaching fluency and accuracy.



## **4. Methodology**

### **4.1 Research Tools**

#### **4.1.1 The Sample**

In this research, we have chosen to work with second year students at the University of Frères Mentouri Constantine. Our population of interest is composed of 470 students divided into 14 groups, and each group contains around 30 to 35 students. We have chosen to work with second year students since they have studied English for a whole year (as first year), and they are preparing for graduation year afterwards. The sample of this research encompasses two groups (1 and 3). The researcher has undertaken the responsibility of teaching them during the academic year 2012/2011. This will help the teacher-researcher to come to know more about their abilities and language skills. The opportunity of teaching the sample allowed easy and accessible administration of both formulation and administration of the classroom observation, and the experiment was integrated as part of the teaching process.

##### **4.1.2.1 Classroom Observation**

In the pilot study, we will conduct a classroom observation to monitor the learner's behaviours and to obtain a general evaluation of their classroom performances. This classroom observation was done in a period of a 5 weeks and this equals 20 sessions, if we consider four sessions each week (that is 2 sessions per group every week). The activity throughout the observation process was the same, and the students together with the teacher-researcher discussed a variety of topics.

The topics discussed with both groups were varied in terms of their communicative purposes; hence, the topics discussed with the experimental group were argumentative (debatable), while the topics discussed with the control group were descriptive and narrative.

The reason is that, we intended to make the topics different to assign different tasks for the groups, to set the communicative purposes for each group, to use different rhetorical function, and to compare the effects of these tasks on communicative strategies. As a result, we will be able to observe appropriately the students' behaviours, and determine their level of proficiency before the experiment. The teacher prepared in advance a checklist for both the experimental group and the control group. This checklist was the same every single session and it covers three main components: language knowledge, topic knowledge, and classroom interaction.

#### **4.1.2.1 The Experiment**

The experiment is the main part for data collection and it is divided into two parts. In the first part of the experiment, students are divided into groups of three in both the experimental group and the control group. Those of the experimental group discussed topics with an argumentative nature, while students of the control group were engaged in the task of narrating stories, book reviews, and summarizing short stories. These steps are done to see how students advocate the tasks, to compare the effects of task difficulty and task familiarity on communicative strategies.

In the second part of the experiment, the students were recorded speaking in the examination context. The reasons behind choosing the opportunity of the second semester examinations to record the students while speaking is to make things formal, and to avoid lack of motivation during participation. None of the groups in this research was given time for preparation before the examination. After that, the control group set themselves again for the task of narrating stories, and the experimental group set themselves for the task of rhetorical argumentation. The data obtained is analyzed in terms of the number of pauses and hesitations committed and the number of mistakes of accuracy in syntax, phonology and

grammar. The analysis is based on the Pearson's correlation coefficient as part of the statistical measures to calculate the T-Test, the standard deviation and the Alpha level together with the level of significance to prove the validity or invalidity of the second and third hypotheses. Besides, at the end of the experiment, the communicative strategies adopted by students are compared in both groups to unveil the mistakes when they attempt to keep communication going and reduce pauses and hesitations.

## **5. Structure of the Study**

This study is divided into seven chapters which focus on investigating the aims of the topic in a funnel-like development by treating the information from general to specific. Accordingly, the first chapter is an investigation in communicative language teaching and testing. Communicative language teaching has become the core subject in teaching a foreign language. In this chapter, the focus is on some issues related to communicative language teaching among which: communicative competence, pragmatic competence, and strategic competence. In addition, an overview is discussed about the role of communicative teaching and some communicative teaching strategies and techniques employed in the classroom. After that, since testing speaking is a procedural method in this research, we thought it would be inappropriate not to discuss the criterion used by previous researchers to validate the process of testing speaking, and the appropriate procedures followed during the process of testing speaking.

In the second chapter, communicative competence is divided into two main important components which are fluency and accuracy. More importantly, accuracy is also divided into indices which are grammar, syntax, and phonology. The characterization of these axes is multi-faceted depending mainly on the use of each one. Consequently, the chapter ends up with the teaching of accuracy and the implementation of relevant tasks to foster learners'

accuracy including: Echoing, repeating and denial. Furthermore, in the same chapter, fluency and its indices are discussed as well, together with some other related issues to fluency like hesitation phenomena (pauses and hesitations), speed of delivery and planning what to say next.

The third theoretical chapter embraces the functionality of the tasks rhetorical argumentation and narrating stories as part of the classroom activities. In addition, a detailed clarification about the roles of these tasks on learners' fluency and accuracy is discussed, with concrete examples from task-based teaching. These attributions will also show the difficulty of the tasks amended when teaching fluency and accuracy. Eventually, we finish the discussion of the tasks of rhetorical functions and narrating stories by referring to the effects of task difficulty and task familiarity on fluency and accuracy.

Chapter number four explains the processes of data collection and data analysis thoroughly. First, we start the discussion of data analysis by explaining the procedures followed in the classroom observation and in the experiment as well. Second, all statistical measures applied in the experiment are explained in this chapter before they are applied in the experiment.

Chapter five is the second practical chapter, and it is devoted to the pilot study or the classroom observation. In the classroom observation, the analysis is realized on three levels: language knowledge, topic knowledge, and classroom interaction. The observation of these speaking categories is done at the same time, together with a checklist for each student and this checklist encompasses the value of the performance in all these levels.

The third practical chapter is the experiment of this research and it comprises the pre-test, and the post test. The pre-test is part of the same task which includes presenting topics orally. The scores obtained by the students when presenting the topics are the pre-test scores,

together with those obtained by the students interacting in classroom interaction. In The post-test, the students' speech production is analyzed during the examination to compare their final achievements concerning fluency, accuracy and the tasks applied throughout the research to compare task difficulty and task familiarity in using communicative strategies.

In the fourth practical chapter, some pedagogical recommendations are concluded from this study, and some topics are suggested for further future research which can be generated either from this research or from other researches reviewed in the theoretical part. Nevertheless, overviewing the limitations of the study is a compulsory stage to alert readers and examiners of this research about the efforts and barriers confronted specifically during data collection and data analysis.

# Chapter One: Teaching and Assessing Speaking

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Conclusion

## **Introduction**

The act of speaking a foreign language is an important aspect in learning it. Unlike writing, where learners have plenty of time to plan their ideas and transform them into coherent messages, the act of speaking is done very quickly. Learners barely find time to plan what they say, or how to say it appropriately, efficiently and correctly. More than that, communicating in a foreign language does not only involve planning what to say next only, but a variety of other preconceived components namely: setting objectives, negotiating the meaning, and being understood. Hence, speaking is a very complicated process which takes time and deserves practice, a lot of practice to develop competence in it.

The speaking skill is not only difficult to learn, but it is also difficult to assess. If we take a close look at the speaking skill we find so many competencies: grammatical competence, pragmatic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. Under these competencies, a number of other components emerge like fluency and accuracy. These two aspects influence each other in one way or another. When a learner is focusing on producing good grammatical sentences, or correct syntax; this may disrupt the flow of ideas creating more pauses and leading to less fluency.

Recently, the focus of teachers and researchers shifted to find out the relationship between fluency and accuracy, what are the best methods to teach them both, and how can they build the students' awareness on these components in the speaking skill. The present chapter is an attempt to investigate methods of teaching speaking in foreign language classroom contexts, and in this chapter we will investigate communicative language teaching and testing as they are considered to be the most important features in teaching speaking.



## **1. Language Teaching Methods**

When we speak about language teaching methods, we always remember activities in the classroom, or interaction between teachers and learners. The fact is that, there is always disagreement between what is an approach? What is a method? And what is a technique?

In general, an approach is a certain way of teaching, which is used in the classroom to meet the learners' needs, and motivate them to learn better. Norland (2006) viewed an approach as learning theories approached in a certain way; while a method is recognized as a lucid number of procedures or activities used to teach a language either in the same context or different contexts. Meanwhile, a technique is a pre-planned activity or procedure, it is said to be short and effective, but it does not fit all teaching contexts especially when learners are in the course of achieving long term objectives. In this research, the focus is on methods and approaches, as it is believed that techniques become approaches in second or foreign language learning and teaching contexts. Hence, the best teaching approaches are those which suit learners and correspond with their attainable goals in the process of learning, and here are a number of teaching methods which are employed in language classes.

### **1.1 The Grammar-Translation Method**

It is apparent that this method deals with grammar, language rules, and the translation of the grammatical rules within a targeted context. The context is comprehension and the method is a comparison between the mother tongue and the second or foreign language. This was the first method used in teaching a language; some researchers like Patel and Jain (2008) named this method as the general teaching method (GTM).

Teaching is done through a comparison between the mother tongue and the targeted language, the emphasis is on giving instructions about the structure and grammar of the

mother tongue, to compare it with the learnt language. Corder (1973) disagrees with this method of teaching. The sameness and difference between two languages do not imply easiness or difficulty of learning. The more the language is new, the easier it is and vice versa. There are a number of characteristics and activities involved in the grammar-translation method:

- 1- It views language as a way of memorizing grammar rules to manipulate the language in a native-like way.
- 2- The major focus is on reading and writing at the expense of listening and speaking.
- 3- Accuracy is important since the devotion is grammar; hence, the sentence is the basic unit in the lecture, and the mother tongue is the medium of transforming the instructions to learners in the classroom.
- 4- The choice of words depends on the texts studied in class, and basically the meaning of these words is compared with its meaning in the mother tongue (Richard and Rodgers 1986).

## **1.2 The Direct Method**

The direct method is a reflection of using the language in everyday life. The lecture is taught around dialogues and conversations that occur in everyday life. The teacher may express the meaning of what is said or what is heard through pictures, which are also used to express the lesson or to introduce new words and new things like objects for the first time. In the direct method, the attempt is to teach the language directly like learning the first language, the realization of learning involves the demonstration and presentation of meaning, mainly the meaning of everyday language use. There is no interference of the mother tongue; hence, the focus is on the target language. Gurrey (1996:52) commented the following:

*Essentially it is a principle, not a teaching method, a system that operates through many methods, a way of handling the new language and of presenting to the class. It demands a direct bond that is direct association between word and thing and between sentence and idea, between experience and expression instead of an indirect one through the mother tongue.*

The principle which is demonstrated by Gurrey is that, the teaching of a second language is based on observing actions and activities used when teaching the mother tongue, to create a similar learning environment. Lessons focus around questions and answers in a form of dialogues portrayed by pictures to make the meaning clear (Norland and Pruett-said 2006). Printed language and text must be kept away until the learner grasps a good command of the spoken language. Students are the passive recipients of information in the classroom to develop enough input about language through demonstration, imitation and repetition (Westwood 2008).

### **1.3 The Silent Way**

Gattengo is the pioneer who started using and applying the silent way as a teaching method through a very famous series he called “Words and Colours.” He teaches kids the initial step of reading with some coded messages based primarily on colours. In the silent way, the production of language in the classroom is presumed by the student. He receives intensive learner-centred activities, while the teacher is recommended to stay as silent as possible. He is required to guide and correct students whenever possible (Richards and Rodgers 1986). During a Spanish class, Stevick (1972) was really astonished when he observed how much energy students produce to cope with the learning environment, in an attempt to control language and to exert more creativity in learning. Stevick did not like the silent way as a teaching method, but since it subordinates teaching with learning, he agrees that teaching is not a drill where imitation was the target in language learning. In addition to imitation, the silent way collaborates another aspect which is the social force in the classroom that is how learning is affected by the social factors, and the environment. Learning for

Gattengo is built around being responsible and developing personal responsibility when learning especially with classmates to figure out meaning.

#### **1.4 The Audio-Lingual Method**

This method started in the Second World War; soldiers were obliged to learn language of the enemies and allies as well to facilitate communication. The lesson in this method starts generally by a dialogue in which new vocabulary is introduced. The language is controlled and repeated in different statements to emphasize the meaning and to put it in context. After that, students write the dialogues and practise them with each other in a role play activity to establish the meaning of what is said. The teacher's job is to guide, help, and correct (like pronunciation) when learners make mistakes. The teacher may ask the students to repeat the expressions from the dialogues. In the end, learners receive what Cook (2008) called "exploitation activities" or "consolidation activities"; where learners create similar dialogues with the same controlled language and vocabulary. The audio-lingual method is based on teaching the four skills in sequence. It divides them into two types: speaking and writing which are active skills since they involve language production, while listening and reading are passive since they involve language reception. Harmer (2001) claimed that the audio-lingual method banishes all forms of language processing which help students to sort out new language forms in their minds.

#### **1.5 The Natural Method**

The natural method has come to represent the direct method in its new form, but unlike the direct method, the emphasis is on exposure or input rather than practice. The comprehension of input is prolonged with emotions and learning preparation. The more emotionally prepared learners are, the more input they receive. Terrel and Krashen (1983) classified this method among the communicative methods which are employed nowadays.

They rejected other teaching methods like the audio-lingual method. They believe that they are developed on the structure of language, and not on language learning theories.

### **1.6 Total Physical Response**

The total physical response was developed by Asher in the 1960's. It is based on the reinforcement of words and expressions through action in the classroom. Action is represented in motor activity; learners' associate learning with real classroom activities to stay interested and to memorize what is learnt very effectively (Richards and Rodgers 1986).

Total physical response (TPR) is based on the trace theory of memory. The retrieval of information in this theory functions basically when tracing the memory with actions; the more learning is traced, the more the information is recalled in the learners' memory. The best example of this learning can be applied by commands in the classroom where the teacher gives commands to learners like "open the door" or "stand up and sit down" if learners complete the actions successfully, they understand the actions, and their learning is reinforced by the actions performed in the commands. The total physical response has so many disadvantages. It cannot be used to teach an advanced level since it is not a process. Further, it does not process the information in the learner's mind and it relies heavily on the listening skill. Although, Krashen and Terrell (1983) believe that all good teaching methods focus on "comprehensible input" to decode messages from the target language.

### **1.7 Suggestopedia**

The most prominent structure of suggestopedia is that the language we learn is tied to the unconsciousness and state of mind of the learner. The obstacles encountered during learning are mainly psychological; consequently, to teach the learner is to reach his

unconsciousness in order to make him relax and feel better, and to prepare him psychologically to take in knowledge via the appropriate learning environment.

Lozanov (1978) outlined a number of relaxing and comfortable positions for learners like: background music where learners listen to a relaxing music when the teacher reads a story for example. They receive comfortable armchairs and good classroom decoration, they can even change their names if they like to, and the teacher's behaviour is adjusted to fit the appropriate circumstances. These positions influence the learning process indirectly if they are present in the classroom. This theory received much criticism because it is not possible to ensure that all learners will have good teachers and well furniture in their classrooms. Besides, some learners may feel bothered and cannot concentrate when music is played during the lesson.

## **2.1 Communicative Language Teaching**

The previously mentioned methods of teaching were heavily criticized and adapted to fit new teaching contexts. The fact is that, these teaching methods correlates grammar with the teaching of foreign languages. The notion of grammar is used to translate the idea that is to find equivalent versions of the mother tongue in the foreign language, or to give instructions about language and its rules. Communicative language teaching (CLT) emerged with Hymes's idea of communicative competence in 1972, since then teaching methods experienced revolutionary adaptation, and language is taught in its context with comprehensive curricula to take account of both means and ends and addresses both content and processes.

In communicative language teaching classes, activities and tasks are built to help learners achieve communicative purposes in different contexts. The realization of these purposes through varieties of activities divides the language into four aspects, each of which

represents part of the whole language system and they are: grammatical competence, communicative competence, pragmatic and discourse competence, and strategic competence.

### **2.1.1 Grammatical Competence**

Grammatical competence is generally associated with the term competence introduced by Chomsky (1965:4) to refer to ‘the speaker-hearer’s knowledge of his language.’ Chomsky’s view is deeply grammatical with knowledge of the language and its rules. The idea of competence is represented by means of a shared knowledge for the ideal speaker-listener set in a completely homogenous speech community. This knowledge enables native speakers to produce and understand an infinite number of sentences. Performance, however, is the application of language knowledge, which is done perfectly with native speakers except in some circumstances, like memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest (Ibid).

### **2.1.2 Communicative Competence**

It has been defined by Dell Hymes (1972:277) as an “integral with attitudes, values, and motivations concerning language.” Hymes criticized Chomsky’s idea of communicative competence. Competence is not only grammar rules, but also rules of usage like appropriateness and acceptability, without which grammar rules would be useless. The evidence is that the transformational theory deals with the internal aspects of language, neglecting the external functions like language functions, social relevance, and correctness (Hymes, 1972; Littlewood, 1981). On the other hand, Widdowson (1978) referred to communicative competence as encompassing two important notions which are “significance” the meaning of sentences in isolation, and “value” the meaning which sentences take when they are used to communicate. Communication involves understanding both the deep structure and the surface structure of the utterances when they are said in a given context.

### **2.1.3 Pragmatic and Discourse Competence**

Pragmatic and discourse competence refer to communicating above the sentence level. In pragmatic and discourse competence, the speaker's proficiency is judged when the ability of transforming the intended meaning is successful. We can say something and we mean something else (Byrnes, 1984; Brown and Yule, 1984).

Hymes (1972) talked about the correctness and feasibility as distinct parts in the socio-cultural dimension of communication. The attention in pragmatic and discourse shifted to the use of language and grammar to achieve communicative purposes, such as making requests, giving advice, making suggestions and so on. Communicating competently includes what to say and how to say it according to the situation, the participants, their roles and intentions. Bachman and Palmer (1982) have a different view about pragmatic and discourse competence, where vocabulary, cohesion and organization are cooperated to achieve communicative purposes. The focus is on cohesion, the smooth movement between ideas, and organization to plan what to say and how to say it.

### **2.1.4 Strategic Competence**

Canale and Swain (1980) defined strategic competence as a set of strategies used to overcome the breakdown of communication to achieve cohesion. Such strategies may include: avoidance strategies, like avoiding saying something when the speaker is unsure about it, interactional strategies like asking and answering questions. These strategies can explain the relationship between language knowledge and language use.

## **2.2 Bachman and Palmer's Model of Communication**

The Bachman and Palmer (1996) model of communication is mainly originated from Bachman's (1990) model with much emphasis, and expansion on strategic competence. The



model is a description of language ability and provides good insights of what communication is, and what constitutes communication by breaking down the process of communication into different components namely: language knowledge, topic knowledge, personal characteristics, and strategic competence. Munby (1978) explained language knowledge as ‘linguistic encoding’ that is the realization of language use as verbal forms only. It covers: grammatical knowledge, contextual knowledge, pragmatic knowledge, and socio-cultural knowledge.

### **2.2.1 Topic Knowledge**

It is related to language use, to shape the ideas required to accomplish the intended message. It is also called schema knowledge since it represents the ability to master cultural knowledge and to apply it (i.e. use it correctly in different contexts). Affective schema together with other personal characteristics can determine to a large extent the ability of learners to cope with the test task and the characteristics of the task required during communication.

### **2.2.2. Personal Characteristics**

Personal characteristics are those admitted to affect the learner’s performance during the test task, but they are not part of the language ability. Cohen (1994:74) suggested a number of personal characteristics including: “...age, foreign language, aptitude, socio-psychological factors, personality, cognitive style, ethno-linguistic factors, and multi-lingual ability.” Therefore, the test maker may produce a list of the test taker’s personal characteristics, to collect personal information, and to design useful tests according to the learners’ needs.

### **2.2.3 Strategic Competence**

In this model, Bachman and Palmer try to separate between two dimensions: “the linguistic dimension” is language knowledge and “the non-linguistic dimension” which is strategic competence. Strategic competence in this model is not only about the ability to keep communication flowing through avoiding breakdowns, but also a variety of other cognitive processes which are: assessing the situation, setting goals, and planning what to say next.

Goal setting involves the ability to select a given task through which the intended message is based (like arguing, or describing). The assessment of the situation functions at two different levels: assessing the language use in different situations, and the appropriateness of the response towards the task while the aspect of planning functions through:

- 1- To retrieve the ideas (items) from the linguistic and topical knowledge.
- 2- To form one or more plans to respond to the task.
- 3- To select one plan to implement in the response.

Van Dijk (1977) considered planning as an aspect in rhetorical organization, the structure of the text, and the effects of organization on this user.

### **2.2.4 Bygate’s Model of Communication**

Bygate (1987) considers speaking in his model as a process with more individual orientation rather than social. Speaking is a connection of three components namely: planning, selection, and production. These aspects result from two important conditions: processing, and reciprocity. Bygate identifies processing as “the words which are being

spoken as they are being decided and as they are being understood.” (11) While reciprocity is the interaction with the listener.

When speaking a distinction is ought to be made between knowledge and skill. Knowledge is what makes the speaker able to speak. Knowledge is operated through three main stages:

**Planning:** Deals with the information and the interaction routines in a given situation. Learners need to know these in their minds and should be able to operate them in different contexts. Bygate focuses on the term information routines which refer to planning strategies used in communication; learners use them to predict what might be said next and plan their utterances. Management interaction skills are divided into “context focused agenda” management and “interaction focused turn-taking.”

**The Selection Stage:** At this stage, learners use their knowledge of lexis and syntax to negotiate the meaning with the others. Explicitness in skills is to choose the right expressions and procedural skills is to ensure that understanding is done through a number of conventions like repetition, emphasis, requests, description or clarification.

**The Production Stage:** It is based on grammatical, contextual, discourse and pragmatic rules to form new knowledge with the help of two important strategies: facilitation and compensation strategies. Facilitation strategies may include paraphrasing and avoiding complexity, while compensation strategies include explaining, word coinage, and code switching.

Facilitation strategies are used to make communication easier, like avoiding difficult structures, using ellipses, and formulaic expressions. It is used to make speaking easier for

speakers themselves. Compensation strategies are all about making speakers more fluent through reduction, repetition, and rephrasing or self-correction.

In a nutshell, Bygate's model is very useful for both teaching and testing purposes. It is based on a number of measurable strategies: planning, selection and production. We noticed during the discussion of the two models, the first model (Bachman and Palmer's model 1996) is based primarily on teaching, while the second model (Bygate's model 1987) encompasses teaching perspectives and preparing lessons, to reach testing and designing tests for a better evaluation of learning.

### **3.1 Communicative Language Testing**

The teaching and testing of communication depend mainly on dividing language into items. In teaching for example, compiling grammar items is highly recommended to accomplish syntax, while culture and pragmatics are embedded for the reconstruction and contextualization of learning. In testing, the focus is on the intended message when all the elements are used comprehensively. We can assimilate the distinction between teaching and language testing by referring to a central distinction made by Bloom (1956). In his taxonomy, he introduced two different strategies of processing knowledge: "top down" and "bottom up."

#### **Top down Process:**

Through the top down process, knowledge is broken down into pieces. It can be done through analysis when information is divided into segments: categorizing, comparing, contrasting, and illustrating. In teaching foreign languages, this process is of very big importance; it helps the stimulation of learning and the accumulation of knowledge.

### **Bottom UP Process:**

The bottom up process deals with defining the construct of small segments of knowledge when they are combined together to form a new whole or to extract new knowledge. This is done through planning, organizing, generalizing and evaluating. The idea behind Bloom's distinction is behaviour, all human activities are characterized as social behaviours in which internal and external influences shape the process and product of learning.

Luoma (2004) talked about assessing speaking thoroughly. She claimed that the best way to test learner's ability is to let them to speak; hence, it is the most important aspect in testing speaking. The process of testing or evaluating communication is divided into two important stages: "test administration" and "test construction."

#### **3.1.1 Test Administration**

Test administration is related to the participants and their interaction either with one another, or with the examiner. In fact, the process of test administration starts before learners are exposed to examination, and it starts by defining teaching objectives or learner's needs. Hughes (1989) claimed that the effects of testing on both teaching and learning are negative if the objectives of teaching and learning are different. The test might be useful if it is fully prepared, and it meets all students' needs and learning objectives all together. Davies (1968:5) says that "the good test is an obedient servant since it follows and apes the teaching." Consequently, testing does not start with learners and their performance, but with what they have learnt in the classroom. Some other researchers like Fulcher and Davidson (2007) agree with the idea that the problem is not in teaching, or the relationship between teaching and learning, but in testing itself. That is to say, sometimes something is wrong with the scales, or scores are haphazardly distributed in scales.

### **3.1.1.1 Scores**

Scores are numbers which reflect the quality of the performance of learners in tests. This quality is not only tied to numbers, but it can be represented as verbal categories such as: “excellent” or “fair” they are the criteria of testing in tasks. Weir (2005: 192) argues that: “Tasks cannot be considered separately from the criteria that might be applied to the performances they result in.” Good assessment is based on the relation between tasks and the criteria of these tasks represented in scales.

### **3.1.1.2 Scales**

Rating scales are constructs meant to design and organize language tests. They divide language into abilities to make testing happen. Luoma (2004) identifies scales as a series of statements which are made to distinguish between the highest and the lowest scores obtained in tests. McNamara (1996) believes that scales embody the test developer’s notion of what abilities should be measured in the test.

## **3.1.2 Test Construction**

The term construction is always related to two aspects in the rating process which are: “test validity” and “test reliability.”

### **3.1.2.1 Test Reliability**

It is the consistency which scores hold between their values without any discrimination (Fulcher and Davidson, 2007). Bachman (1990) explained the reliability and unreliability of the scores as the extent to which testers produce errors in their scales, and the more mistakes produced the less reliable the scale is and vice versa. Such errors are unsystematic and unpredictable, such as lack of interest or motivation. They can reflect the performance of learners in tests, even though they are not related to their abilities. Bachman

and Palmer (1996:121) proposed that there are three important points for defining the construct to be measured with respect to topic knowledge:

“1- Define the construct solely in terms of language ability, excluding topical knowledge from the construct definition.

2- Include both topical knowledge and language ability in the construct definition.

3- Define topical knowledge and language ability as separate constructs.”

As a result, the reliability of test construction can either be realized by defining language ability alone without topic knowledge, assessing both of them together, or every element is given a distinct construct and evaluated separately.

### **3.1.2.2 Test Validity**

Validity is the extent to which a given test “measures accurately what it is intended to measure.” (Hughes, 1989:22), while Henning (1987: 170) defines testing validity as the “appropriateness of a given test or any of its component parts as a measure of what it is purposed to measure.” (Cited in Fulcher and Davidson, 2007). Test validity is seen, then, as an end result of the test and it reflects what should be tested at the end of the test. The requirements and objectives of the test are related to the intention of measuring something specific. The components of a language are identified precisely to achieve validity in testing. Validity is not only an abstract concern of testing, rather it is a practical quality that is part of all test development.

Validation in a wider context is the interpretation of scores and performance of students represented in scales to measure language skills. Messik (1986 cited in Alister 1996) proposed the idea of validity as solely a good criterion prediction in which test takers predict learners’ task performances in a given scale. If we consider that test validity is what the test is

intended to measure, we can start asking ourselves the following question: can the intended performance be tested similarly in different conditions and environments? In this context, Hughes (1989) distinguished between four types of validity which covers testing in different contexts: “construct validity”, “content validity”, “criterion-related validity” and “face validity.”

#### **3.1.2.2.1 Construct Validity**

Construct refers to any language skill or “trait”, the ability to hypothesize in a theory of language ability (Hughes, 1989). Testing listening, for example, takes the form of construct validity because it is based on understanding sentences when they are used in a given context. The meaning of sentences is understood via the construct (components) of speaking. Cronbach (1971:463) emphasises that “every time an educator asks what the instrument really measures? He is calling for information on construct validity.” Construct validity is to measure a given construct in a language using a specific instrument.

#### **3.1.2.2.2 Content Validity**

Content validity is the extent a given test demonstrates in its content as a representative sample of the area in which it is used (Fulcher and Davidson, 2007; Hughes, 1989; Weir, 1992). In content validity, the prototype of a test contains the related items of a given testing area depending on the purpose of the test. It is also related to context; what should be included in a given test is bound to its context. The context determines the test’s needs, level, and the tasks suitable for content validity.

#### **3.1.2.2.3 Criterion-Related Validity**

It is based on two items which are “prediction of the criterion” and “measurement of the criterion” and the relationship between them. Fulcher and Davidson (2007) referred to the



relation between the criterion we wish to make in a particular test and predictions as ‘ability to cope with’ or the ability to predict measurable scores for success or failure in tests. Consequently, Fulcher and Davidson (2007: 5) affirm “the validity is the strength of the predictive relationship between the test scores and that performance on the criterion.”

The test is set up to predict a criterion which is measurable. In fact, there is another type of criterion-related validity to establish a test together with its criterion. In such a test, students achieve a number of functions as part of the same component of a skill. Hughes (1989) exemplified concurrent validity in an oral test, the main objective of which is to test one component of speaking through a number of functions like “apologizing” or “requesting.” Learners are tested twice; a short test and a long test (the same test with a short version and a long version). The reason is that, if learners score the same results in both tests, they are both valid, but if they score different results, this test is not valid.

#### **3.1.2.2.4 Face Validity**

Face validity is what a test is supposed to measure (Luoma, 2004; Hughes, 1989; Weir, 1992). The appearance of validity might appear, for example, when language and test items are expressed in ways that would look valid and acceptable to the test taker and to the public generally (Angoff 1988, cited in Alister, 1996).

### **4.1 Testing Speaking**

Testing speaking is one of the most complicated aspects of language testing. Testing is done very quickly and the test taker is engaged in performing all the functions required in the test, while the test maker is engaged in evaluating what is said (ideas, organization of ideas, smoothness) and how it is said (pronunciation, grammar, lexicon). All these operations are done in a very short period of time. It is agreed that this period of time is not sufficient to

obtain information for a thorough evaluation; hence, testing speaking is seen as normative in nature (Bachman and Cohen, 1998; Fulcher and Davidson, 2007; Dewey, 2009). Hughes (1989) in contrast, regards testing speaking as the unification of elements included in language content which are “operations”, “types of texts”, “addresses” and “topics.”

**1-Operations:** is to interact throughout the course of action, to achieve a number of different functions like: expressing “thanks”, “apologies”, and “opinions”, “narrating”, “eliciting” and “advising.”

**2- Text Types:** are dialogues and interactions with peers or groups interaction which are characterized either as face to face or telephone conversations.

**3- Addresses and Topics:** they are up to date topics chosen by both learners and teachers to open up the lines of communication.

When we talk about types of assessment discussed by Brown (2005), two major approaches were noticed because of their importance in designing tasks for communication in the classroom.

#### **4.1.1 Performance Assessment**

It is the assessment of the actual use of language. This kind of assessment can, particularly, be implemented in speaking. The activities and tasks are performance based, and completely integrated. The point is that, performance based assessment is built around a social learning environment that encourages learning, communication, achieving shared goals and achieving feedback from learner to learner and between the learners and the teacher.

### **4.1.2 Task Based Assessment**

The evaluation of students' abilities is to accomplish different tasks like: role playing, interviewing and discussing. If a student for example is good at role playing, this does not necessarily mean that he is good in discussions or interviews. Generally speaking, these types of assessment are done either throughout the whole year or in examinations, we call these two types of assessment "formative" and "summative assessment" (Tomlinson 2005).

### **4.1.3 Summative Assessment**

A kind of achievement test set at the end of each semester or at the end of the year to test the students overall general language ability.

### **4.1.4 Formative Assessment**

It takes place throughout the academic year in which the learners' interaction is observed in the classroom; it is also called "continuous assessment." Learners may even receive feedback for their questions, and model answers. Likewise, Underhill (1987:6) addresses the idea of learning through testing by concluding that "oral tests must treat people as human beings... we can make a test challenging, instructive, and even enjoyable." Underhill dealt with the issue of testing from a learning point of view. The primary concern of testing is people interacting and not the test itself because the test is only an instrument.

It has been mentioned previously that testing the spoken language is predominantly related to the functions learners should achieve in language tasks. Consequently, we can notice that there are many types of conventional tasks depending on the nature of the test, and what should be accomplished at the end of the test.

## **4.2 Tasks in Oral Examinations**

Tasks in oral examinations are related primarily to the situation and purpose of the task. Assessing the situation is based on evaluating conditions of the task like one's own knowledge, one's available internal and external sources, and the constraints of the task itself. These conditions are used to determine the effectiveness of one's own language use or lack of it. Generally speaking, the tasks in any oral examination should be designed to test what has been taught to avoid backwash. Hughes (1989) explained the effects of backwash when the objectives of teaching and the objectives of testing contradict. Therefore, approaches to effective testing need to make clear the distinction between teaching and testing to expose the teachers to authentic testing, and to reveal the weaknesses of the learners in proficiency.

Assessment in the classroom is divided into two types: "continuous assessment, and "final tests." In continuous assessment, learners are pre-tested to determine what skills they lack and post-tested again. This type of assessment is done throughout all the sessions, and if learners fail to achieve the desired level of mastery, they continue to work on the objective and are tested again. Final tests are used at the end of the semester or the year. Learners receive direct instructions about the test, and sometimes they are provided with the appropriate time to prepare for these tests. There are a number of final tests which can be used to exhibit learners proficiency and they are namely: "the interview", "role play" "discussion" and "turn-taking."

### **4.2.1 The Interview**

The interview is the oldest way of testing speaking, and it is guided by the speaker since he is responsible for asking questions to elicit language performance. Most researchers are against this task, as this task is one-way information and the examiner is in full control of the conversation. He initiates and concludes, and he shapes the conversation, in general. This

task was criticized by many researchers (Gyargyi and Egyud, 1991; Brown, 2003; Alderson, 2001) because during the interview, processing information is not mutual, and the interviewee gives all the information and does not receive any. While in real-life communication we want to give and get information in response.

This shortcoming can easily be avoided by eliciting various tasks in different contexts. Luoma (1990) argued with the same suggestion when she considered interviews as a misbalance of speech between the interlocutor and the examinee since the interlocutor dominates the conversation, and the initiation in speaking where it does not fit with that in real life situations.

#### **4.2.2 Role Play**

It is an in class activity, and the primary concern is to improvise a scene or an exchange as it occurs in real life situations. Students exchange information and clues on the basis of the scene to achieve some language functions in context. On the other hand, it may refer to highly controlled or semi-guided dialogues with different interpretations and applications. It starts with a warm up phase and ends with a question. Richard (2006) called all types of role plays as information gap activities; it assimilates learners' actions to real life when they exchange information they do not have. He emphasized by summarizing that "more authentic communication is likely to occur in the classroom if students go beyond practice of language forms for their own sake and use their linguistic and communicative sources in order to obtain information." (Richard, 2006: 35) The assimilation to real life is authentic when language resources are practised communicatively.

#### **4.2.3 Discussion**

It is an open task with many participants, and it is divided into two phases:

“The preparation phase” and “the conversation phase.” Learners are given 5-10 minutes to prepare for the discussion, and when they proceed, they do not receive any kind of instruction to structure the discussion, and even the tester cannot intervene in the discussion. His job is to make sure that learners participate and have enough time to assess their performance.

#### **4.2.4 Turn Taking**

Turn taking is a discourse strategy where learners exchange roles from speakers to listeners, or from producers to receivers, such task is a two way information both speaker and listener exchange new ideas.

Assessing speaking is basically a multi-dimensional activity in which many tasks are employed to achieve different functions in different contexts. The effects of testing speaking are related to teaching. Teaching and learning co-occur together, if the objectives of both teaching and learning differ, the backwash will be harmful and vice versa. There are a lot of controversial studies the focus of which is to figure out what kind of measurement is suitable for testing speaking (Luoma, 2004; Hughes, 1989; Davies, 1990).

A look at the various measurements followed by language testers, enable to mention different types namely: proficiency tests, achievement tests, diagnostic tests, direct vs. indirect tests, norm referenced tests, and criterion referenced tests.

#### **4.3 Language Tests**

Language tests are comprehensive measurements which enable teachers to detect the weaknesses and strengths of learners. The tests provide valid reliable and objective grades for learners and they can also provide information about the needs of the learners and the limitations of the materials used in teaching.

### **4.3.1 Proficiency Tests**

Proficiency tests are those which are intended to measure the learner's mastery of the language, without any consideration to the content, or even the context of the program followed (Hughes, 1989). The aim is to discover the learner's level of comprehension and the achievement made in the four skills, for example, some proficiency tests may decide whether a student is proficient enough to be eligible to go abroad and study in a foreign country. Proficiency tests have international reputations like "TOFL" or "IELTS". These tests are constructed by native speakers to test non-native speakers' language ability.

### **4.3.2 Achievement Tests**

Achievement tests are directly related to teaching. Bachman (1990) talked about achievement tests as part of the educational program, how the individuals should proceed with the program, or how well they are obtaining the program's objectives. Generally speaking, achievement tests are built to establish a relationship between teaching objectives and learning objectives through measuring the learners' scores at the end of each semester. Teachers design these tests since they are all aware of the content of the program, and what has been taught.

### **4.3.3 Diagnostic Tests**

Diagnostic tests are intended to measure the learners' weaknesses and strengths. As a matter of fact, these tests are applicable in foreign language classes. The analysis of them may lead to modification in the program to help identify the learners' needs, and they are also used to help identify the instruction level or specific areas where instruction is needed. Diagnostic tests are also used to determine appropriate level of teaching and learning activities. They function like placement tests in some contexts, when the purpose of the test

shifts to divide language learners into two categories: good and bad. The point here is that, each category or group receives specific instructions and learning activities (Bachman, 1990).

#### **4.3.4 Direct VS. Indirect Tests**

In the majority of the underlying language tests, testing is applied indirectly, in which the focus is on the measurement of the learner's competence, rather than performance, and his ability to use language in different ways and at different contexts, unlike direct tests where testing is the measurement of the learner's performance of a given skill. Thus, if we want to test the writing skill, we get the learners to write and if we want to test the speaking skill, we get them to speak (Hughes 1989). Henceforth, the correlation between the scores and the performance of the learner is said to be subjective. It represents a real life performance, and indirect testing is not subjective because the scores do not represent any specific performance, or real life situations; they resemble only linguistic entities (Clark, 1978).

#### **4.3.5 Norm-Referenced Measurement**

The norm-referenced measurement determines the relative grades of the student or the rank which means the final achievement of the learner and the placement of this learner with the other learners (Lynch and Davidson, 1994).

This kind of measurement is made to relate learner's performance to the other learners' performances. The assessment of language quality is not direct, and we don't know exactly what the learner is capable of achieving by his language. The reliability calculation of the difference between the learner's scores is calculated by the standard error of measurement (SEM). In this measurement, the student may have the same test several times in different conditions, to see the consistency of the obtained scores. The more reliable the test is, the less



error scores will be obtained and vice versa. We understand the calculation is based on the divergence or convergence between scores from repeating the same test several times (Cronbach, 1990; Brown and Hudson, 2002; Bachman, 1990).

The SEM is very complex after all, since it requires a lot of analysis and scores interpretation in terms of the consistency and reliability of scores compared to the original score. The application of this measurement is not recommended when too many examiners take the same exam like in national exams or state exams.

#### **4.3.6 Criterion-Referenced Measurement**

Criterion-referenced measurement is absolutely the reverse of norm-referenced measurement. No attention is given to the rank of the student among the other students. But, the focus is rather on the relation between scores obtained in the test and the criterion or criteria achieved in this test. Hughes (1989) suggests that this is a kind of a 'direct measurement' the purpose of which is to make clear the criterion tested, to examine language performance and test tasks.

The criterion, here, is the ability or behaviour which is defined in scales. The concern of testers is not the rank of the learner, but how his ability varies in tests. This variation is a result of many factors:

- Test specification and test development
- Test objectives
- Course Objectives.
- Learners needs

The CRM seems to be the end result of CRLTD (Criterion Referenced Language Test Development). The CRLTD seeks to investigate test specifications to develop tests by selecting a skill, and writing task specifications to operate what has been taught in the classroom, and what should be tested afterwards (Davidson and Lynch, 1993).

## **Conclusion**

Communicative language teaching has dominated foreign language teaching; it is the mother of all teaching methods and it evokes comprehensive notions in teaching and learning. The focus of communicative language teaching is to assimilate language use in the classroom in different contexts, to reach different communicative goals, and to practise any language with its different aspects like: grammar, syntax and phonology, in an attempt to cope with the language used in everyday communication. Communicative language testing is the realization of communicative language teaching, by means of testing what has been taught in the classroom to avoid receiving any backwash, that is to say we teach something and we test something else. Therefore, communicative language testing is based on comprehensive techniques and methods adopted specifically to ensure the reliability and validity of the test, and to assign the right tasks according to the level of the learners and the difficulty or familiarity of the tasks practised in the classroom.

## Chapter Two: The Roles of Fluency and Accuracy in Speaking.

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Conclusion

## **Introduction**

In the first chapter, we have seen communicative language teaching and testing, how the components of communicative competence help diagnose problems in teaching, and testing to find the relation between them and to avoid a negative backwash result of testing. Communicative competence is the combination of a variety of competences namely: grammatical, pragmatic and discourse competence, and strategic competence. The union of these competences result in what is known as communicative competence, speaking with a purpose in mind to achieve a lot of communicative goals. Communication is how goals and purposes are achieved when language is used to accomplish them.

In this chapter, we will shed light on the aspects of accuracy and fluency. The point behind this chapter is to establish a framework for the conceptualization of the items included in communication. The terms accuracy and fluency are introduced to figure out the different characteristics of each item and its function during speaking and the effects each item produces on the other items.

### **1. Accuracy and Fluency**

#### **1.1 Accuracy**

The most important components of speaking are accuracy and fluency. They are divided into indices and measured by the complexity of language use. There are various definitions of accuracy which depend on the indices and their function in the teaching and learning contexts.

##### **1.1.1 Definitions of Accuracy**

Accuracy is the first element introduced in grammatical competence. It is all about correctness and the production of good grammatical sentences. In almost all standardized

tests, the criteria for defining accuracy is based on the same items like grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and syntax which are also called indices. Grammatical errors are the main factor of deciding the accuracy of speaking. Hammerly (1991:12) stated that accuracy has something to do with the characteristics of language, when they are used systematically “accuracy is performative knowledge of the language or linguistic ‘know-how’.” Likewise, Spratt, Pulveness, and Williams (2005:34) regard accuracy as: “the use of correct forms of grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation.” The systematization of learning a language is based on diagnosing errors, and applying instructional discourse to teach directly the grammar rules, and to explicitly practise the language out of the realm of its context. Accuracy is the correct use of grammatical structures, choice of words, and extensive use of tenses, but the ability to produce correct grammatical sentences may not include the ability to speak fluently. More than that, accuracy is not only about grammatical rules. Amedeo (2000) explored a number of other components of accuracy which refer to the appropriateness, and correct forms of various sociolinguistic and pragmatic devices used to negotiate the meaning. Accuracy is a matter of duplicating correct sentences in correct situations and contexts to achieve comprehensibility. Brumfit (1984:52) defined accuracy in terms of use, he said:

*it simply refers to a focus by the user, because of the pedagogical context created or allowed by the teacher, on formal factors or issues of appropriacy, which will be evaluated for their observed characteristics rather than ignored...except in so far as they impede satisfactory completion of the discourse.*

Brumfit characterizes accuracy by its role in teaching when accuracy and structures are used to develop language skills successfully if impeded in the appropriate learning context. Brumfit distinguished also between accuracy and fluency according to the type of activities achieved in the classroom. The distinction made assimilates accuracy with theory and fluency with practice, in particular, the difference between teaching grammar rules and teaching language communicatively.

In contrast to fluency, accuracy did not receive much attention in communicative language teaching. Allwright (1979) argues that there is a logical relationship between communicative competence and linguistic competence, and explained that teaching communication should necessarily cover all the linguistic competence, in which the grammatical accuracy plays an important role. Canale (1983) seems to place more emphasis on accuracy than Brumfit and Allwright, regardless of the extent to which accuracy is emphasized. He visualized accuracy through three components and they are: vocabulary, grammar, and syntax. They constitute what is known as linguistic competence. All the proponents of communicative language teaching use the same dichotomy of fluency-oriented and accuracy-oriented classroom activities.

Brown (1994) notes that although less attention has been given to overt instruction for the appropriate use of grammatical rules in communicative language teaching, communication is never encouraged without clear and unambiguous sentences in direct communication. This suggests that focus on form has its place in teaching and learning communication.

### **1.1.2 Teaching Accuracy**

The teaching of accuracy is based on pattern drills which are the rehearsal of grammar rules with emphasis on correctness (Savignon 2002). Developing accuracy is achieved in the classroom with the other students involving attention and interaction, and sometimes peer correction when there are mistakes. Hammerly (1991) argued that through interaction in the classroom, learners interact with only one fluent second language learner, the teacher, as they interact with each other most of the time as a response to classroom practice. He said that this can hardly be linguistically enhancing, and it lowers accuracy. The fact is that, during practice, the teacher may praise anything said despite the shortcomings and grammatical



mistakes. Learning accuracy in second language acquisition cannot be done automatically as in first language acquisition; it requires practice with fluent speakers of the language. Fluency does not lead to accuracy in the classroom, and some errors do not vanish with interactive communication.

Harmer (2003) believes that accuracy is built around correct vocabulary. Language structures make up the skeleton of the language, while vocabulary is the flesh and they are equally important and independent from each other. In communicative language teaching, structural accuracy is less important in effective communication than choosing the right words. Harmer's claim was criticized by modern language text books which focus on both structural accuracy and vocabulary, and this makes the process of communication correct.

The teaching of accuracy is called a form-focused teaching. The focus is on instructions in an attempt to provide learners with opportunities to both study and experience language in the classroom, and even receive corrective feedback for their mistakes. Bialystok (1981) referred to accuracy as knowledge about the language. She provided also a theoretical framework explaining the difference between "automatic", and "non-automatic" learning as the extent between both of them is independent. The first type of learning is the acquisition of the mother tongue, and accuracy is perfect, while in language learning there is always interference from the mother tongue over the foreign language (cited in Spolsky, 1989).

On the one hand, Bialystock was not the only researcher involved in studying accuracy in relation to teaching, a number of other researchers like: White (1989) Long (1991) and Lightbown (1985) suggested the need for linguistic accuracy when they claimed that linguistic accuracy cannot be developed in purely communicative tasks where meaning is the purpose. On the other hand, Davidson and Fulcher (2007) stated a different point of view in testing accuracy which is the result of fluency, and when fluency increases accuracy

decreases. They argued by adding that learners cannot pay attention to form when their minds are engaged in processing speech quickly. The human mind cannot cope with doing two things at the same time. The most crucial part in this theory is that accuracy is part of fluency because when accuracy increases, the learner becomes more fluent. It becomes a matter of automaticity when language forms become automatic.

In the context of teaching, accuracy is very important in the reproduction stage, the stage in which learners are asked to repeat phrases or sentences after the teacher. This is a controlled practice as the learners should repeat carefully what has been presented to them, and immediate correction of the errors is necessary. The learner should be shown that something is not accurate, where the inaccuracy is, and how can it be made accurate (Harmer 1991). Doff (1993) added that teachers often exaggerate in correcting the form and neglecting the meaning. Foreign language teachers emphasize on how something is said instead of what is said, by claiming that what matters for foreign language learners is the language and its use and not the ideas themselves.

It is known that a lot of practice leads to language mastery either in terms of accuracy or in terms of use. Swain (1995) suggested another theory which is referred to as “input hypothesis.” He argued that massive input does not lead to accuracy in all aspects of grammar. Input is insufficient in the acquisition of a second language while output plays a significant role in learning a second language. The gap between input and output can be noticed when practicing speaking or writing. Learners always pay attention to aspects of grammar which they would not do in comprehension tasks like listening.

### **1.1.3 Methods of Teaching Accuracy**

The teaching of accuracy represents one of the most prominent issues in the classroom with no specifications at all. Beginners are in dire need for such a kind of teaching.

Instructions help them process knowledge very easily and correctly at the same time. In the first place, the teaching of accuracy creates a responsive climate to promote interaction and prepares the ground for learners to take in knowledge. Harmer (1991) adapted a number of techniques which correspond with the teaching of accuracy including: “repeating”, “echoing”, “denial”, “questioning”, and “expression.”

#### **1.1.3.1 Repeating**

In this technique, the teacher may ask the learner to repeat what s/he has just said whenever the learner is unable to identify the mistake, the teacher uses intonation over the mistake to indicate what is wrong with the sentence.

#### **1.1.3.2 Echoing**

Here, the teacher repeats what has been said until he reaches the mistake, then, he asks someone to continue and to correct it if possible.

#### **1.1.3.3 Denial**

The teacher simply indicates the inaccuracy of the answer and asks for peer correction from other learners. This technique is a bit discouraging, and for this reason Gower and Walters (1983) warn about this technique and advise not to correct the learners’ mistakes with mockery. This will prevent them from participating again and they lose their self esteem.

#### **1.1.3.4 Questioning**

The objective behind this technique is to focus on a problem and how to correct it. Learners are asked direct questions about the mistakes. It attracts the learners’ attention over the problem.

### **1.1.3.5 Expression**

The teacher can show that something is incorrect by using facial expressions, or by referring to the mistake indirectly to make the learner aware of the mistake. The learners may also receive corrective feedback.

In addition to the methods mentioned previously, two important activities describe the manner followed during the teaching of accuracy which are: “corrective feedback instruction” and “feedback correction.”

### **1.1.3.6 Grammar Instructions**

In the classroom, grammar is always necessary to demonstrate the difference between what is right and what is wrong. Conscious learning requires repetition of the same material throughout the beginning of learning stages. Brumfit (1984) argues that conscious learning associated with grammar rules creates schema knowledge, which are considered as a scaffold of grammatical awareness.

### **1.1.3.7 Feedback Correction**

A lot of concern in accuracy is about correcting errors systematically. The reason is that, instructions cannot demonstrate certain features of the language unless used as part of the whole system. Learners may learn from their mistakes when they are corrected by the teacher. Feedback gives priority to form rather than meaning.

## **1.1.4 The Components of Accuracy**

We have seen that accuracy has a direct relationship with grammar and how it is applied when it is used. The teaching of accuracy depends on the attribution of grammar instruction activities to make it clear, the way language is used and advocated without

context. In teaching and learning, accuracy cannot be divided into components, specifically if the task is to correct whatever mistakes made at all levels. In testing accuracy, components are separated to figure out the strength and weaknesses of the learner. Such an operation allows the teacher and tester to identify the type of errors made, to predict solutions, or even generate tasks to improve the learners' performance. The following table exemplifies the nature of academic standards for accuracy components:

<b>Accuracy components</b>	<b>Characteristics</b>
Pronunciation	Correct pronunciation of words, with the right stress position, syllable recognition and intonation.
Lexicon	The right choices of words, together with the use of collocations, correct spelling, and recognition of word meaning.
Grammar rules	Mastery of the use of tenses, correct word order and sentence structure free of mistakes.
Prosodic features	Rhythm, pitch sounds (consonants and vowels)

**Table 1: The Components of Accuracy**

The above mentioned table demonstrates the main elements embedded in accuracy and also defines some perspectives of linguistic competence. Tannen (2004:14) gave a rather holistic definition of speech when he described it as “the use of language in all its phonological, lexical, syntactic, prosodic, and rhythmic variety.” This description focuses on the main characteristics of spoken language production. There is always disagreement between researchers to identify precisely what constitutes features of spoken production.

Riggenbach (1988) for example, mentioned grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and fluency as features of the spoken language. These features do not belong to the same classification (like accuracy), but they are part of the production system. The fact is that, accuracy is sometimes considered as a feature in itself which reflects correctness, in general. The other two features are “fluency” and “pronunciation.”

#### **1.1.4.1 Grammatical and Lexical Features**

The notion of grammaticality was observed to be related to traditional grammar. Carter, et al (1998), for example, traced grammatical constructions on written language, whereas many spoken utterances are considered ungrammatical. Miller and Weinert (1998) discussed spoken grammar more extensively. They said that spoken language phrases and clauses are simpler than in written language. Grammatical sub-ordination, for example, is not as frequent in the spoken form as it is in the written form. In addition, the analysis of the sentence in a spoken language is not very useful since the constituent structures do not necessarily correspond to the syntactic theory of sentence construction.

McCarthy (1998) noted that spoken language is characterized by certain types of ellipses, such as subject pronouns, and auxiliary verbs with articles. Spoken and written media have different characteristics. While Linell (2005) argued that different modes which are typical in one medium can be transmitted to another medium for some communicative purposes. Ford, et al (2003:122) stated another point of view when they said that grammar is understood only when studied through spoken discourse because “spoken discourse transparently reveals grammar in use.”

In the same sense, Riggenbach (1998) discussed spoken language in terms of vocabulary. He believed that the range of vocabulary used in spoken language differ from that used in the written, because it is marked with simple, frequent and common words. They

occur repeatedly in conversations. The range of vocabulary in spoken language is less than that in the written form. McCarthy (1998) claimed that words in spoken language are used to establish relational function instead of transforming information. This function is called “verbal play” which establishes the relationship between the interlocutors in a conversation. It also implies the ungrammaticality and lexical incorrectness of language use.

#### **1.1.4.2 Pronunciation and Prosodic Features**

The measurement of the accuracy of pronunciation is a very appealing issue in speaking since it is quantifiable. Levis (2006) noted that the accuracy of speaking is quantifiable (measured by quantity) because it is not possible to specify consistently which errors are more serious than the others in spoken language. Thus, the accuracy of pronunciation is not a useful criterion to test the spoken language. Weir (2005:81) regarded pronunciation as a matter of accents. He said: “it is sometimes suggested that the stronger the accent, the lower the listeners’ comprehension. An unfamiliar accent can make comprehension difficult for the listener.” This position is also logical when we compare males’ from females’ voices. Females tend to speak very clearly with a high pitch, and a correct stress position, while males’ voice is characterized by toughness which leads to unclarity most of the times.

The change in tempo, voice, pauses and the pitch brings up a change to spoken expressions, and make it more lively and colourful to assimilate native like expressions. Chafe (2006) said that spoken language is produced in prosodic phrases, in other words, intonation units, which are described as changes in pitch or voice quality, as changes in the duration of words and syllables, as well as alternating between speaking and pausing. Intonation as a feature of prosody is involved in allocating turns in dialogues.

## **1.5 Fluency**

Fluency is a broad term as it can be used in speaking and reading. In speaking, it refers to many aspects which are demonstrated in details in this chapter.

### **1.5.1 Definition of Fluency**

Fluency by definition is the flow and smoothness of speech. There have been so many disagreements about the nature and characterization of fluency depending on the context and its use. Brumfit (1984) regarded fluency to be natural language use, as it is used by native speakers without any interruptions or pauses. One of the most cohesive definitions of fluency was mentioned by Pawley and Syder (1983: 191). In their study, they conceptualized fluency as “the native speaker’s ability to produce fluent stretches of discourse.” This point of view was taken from a native-like performance during speaking in natural situations. Fillmore (1979: 93) divided fluency when he identified four abilities which are subsumed in speaking, the first of which is the ability to talk at length with few pauses and to “fill time with talk”. The second is the “ability to talk with coherent, reasoned and ‘semantically dense’ sentences.” The third is “the ability to have appropriate things to say in a wide range of contexts.” While the last one, is to “be creative and imaginative in language use.” In a nutshell, fluency is a matter of speaking without pauses, with good semantic mastery, and in a variety of contexts.

Lennon (1990) proposed that fluency is usually used in two different senses. In the first sense, it is used to mean general oral proficiency when the speaker possesses a high command of the foreign language, and this is the broad sense of fluency. In the narrow sense, fluency means speed and smoothness of oral delivery. Fluency, here, is the characteristic of the speaker and his or her finished product. Lennon (2000) added that fluency is not an absolute value that learners have or do not have, but a characterization of the learner’s spoken production. He claimed that “it has often been assumed that the goal in language learning



consists in producing speech at the tempo of native speakers, unimpeded by silent pauses and hesitations and filled pauses...” (1990:390). Fluency is a degree learners should achieve and the degree of the achievement is compared to the performance of native speakers.

Whenever the term fluency is used, the same aspects are associated with the term fluency, like pauses, hesitations, inaccuracies, repetition, and stuttering, etc... These aspects prevent basically the flow and smoothness of speech and ideas. Guilot (1999:15) argued that these aspects represent linguistic competence, and fluency subsumes other rhetorical functions when he said that: “Fluency is perhaps really a rhetorical term, and does not relate to knowledge or linguistic competence so much as it relates to use, to delivery, is to do with persuasiveness, manipulation, ostentation... if so it may be that fluency only becomes an issue when...rhetorical effectiveness comes to the fore and speech is appraised on its own merits.”

The production of speech conforms to other functions like planning what to say next, organizing speaking, and transforming the ideas. Fluency is not only a question of speaking smoothly and coherently, but it is also the negotiation of meaning. The later (planning, organizing, and transforming) is highly recommended in monologic speaking as in speeches, and lectures etc. Brown (2003) added that planning and organizing are considered as communicative strategies which help learners communicate fluently, with whatever proficiency they happen to have and at any given point in time, including the ability to use speed, pauses and hesitations efficiently.

### **1.5.3 Determinants of Fluency**

Fluency is always taken as an entity of smoothness and flow of ideas. It has also determinants which correlate the speaker, the listener and the end product. Tavakoli and

Skehan (2005) discussed determinants of the product of fluency to comprise two determinants which are “the speaker” and the “task familiarity.”

### **1.5.3.1 The Speaker**

The speaker’s role in speaking is interaction. Interaction starts with processing information or schema knowledge (grammar rules, vocabulary, and syntax). Processing knowledge is divided into thinking about what to say, finding the right words, constructing sentences from these words, and pronouncing the sentences into a normal rate or tempo. The characteristic of the speaker is also a determinant of fluency, whether a speaker is extrovert or introvert. This determines the rate of pauses hesitations made and shapes the smoothness and flow of language.

### **1.5.3.2 The Task Familiarity**

Tavakoli and Skehan (2005) determined fluency according to the familiarity of the task at hand. If learners, for example, are familiar with the topic, they may have enough knowledge to speak about it fluently. Fluency, here, is noticed through the flow of ideas. Learners do not take much time to plan what to say next and organize the ideas coherently. The familiarity of the task makes it easy for learners to process information, organize the ideas, and deliver speaking without difficulties.

## **1.3 Pragmatic Fluency**

Since the emergence of communicative language teaching, the aim of language teaching shifted to analyze data pragmatically, and meaning is studied in context. House (1996 cited in Luoma 2004) coined the term pragmatic fluency to fit new teaching contexts. She defined it as “dialogic phenomenon that combines both appropriateness of utterances and smooth continuity in ongoing talk.” (228). It is perfectly apparent from this definition that

pragmatic fluency as a social phenomenon entails coherence between the set of utterances produced in conversations. House did not only take fluency as smoothness and flow of speech, but also as a coherent aspect between the utterances.

Additionally, House (1996) talked about language gambits which are used to shape speaking according to specific discourse strategies. These strategies are lubricants to establish, maintain and end speaking. She also exemplified the objective of these strategies, like manipulation of interactional structures, preparing the ground for requesting, or using ‘sweeteners’ to avoid any objections or soften harsh utterances. The strategies might be achieved through these expressions: “Listen”, “yeah”, “okay”, and “I mean.” Each of these expressions can be used to accomplish different conversational goals.

### **1.6.1 Model of the Speaker**

Fluency depends on a number of conventions among them “the speaker” and “the end product.” Levelt (1989) proposed a model of the speaker in which he explained perfectly what affects the speaker’s product internally and externally. Levelt identified the speaker as the ‘conceptualizer.’ The term includes the speaker’s ideas and language knowledge (grammar and lexicon).

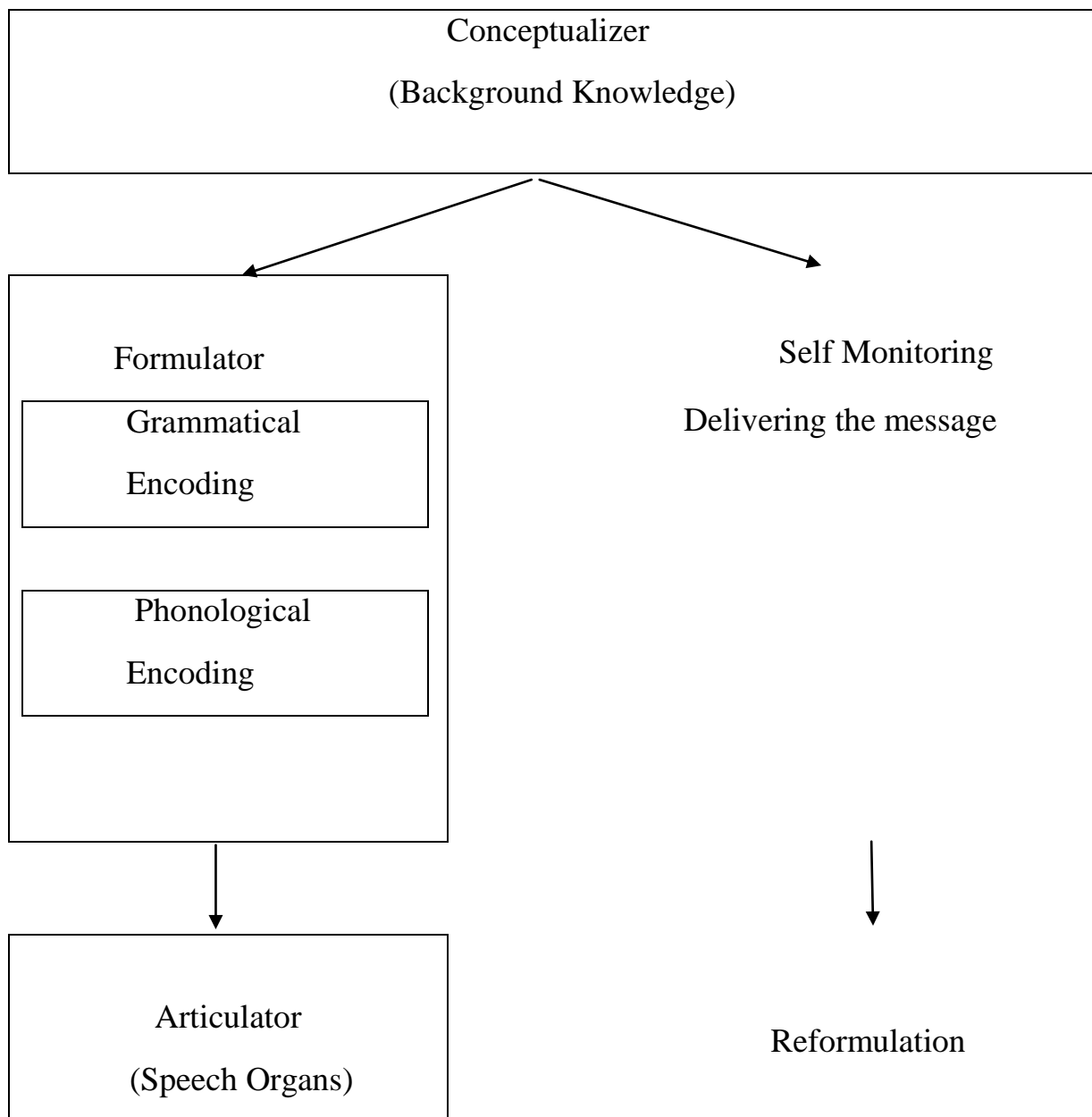
Besides, the other main components of the model are the formulator, the articulator, self monitoring and reformulation. These components complete each other in a logical way because after the formulation of the ideas; the speaker is engaged in the articulation of speaking. In this aspect, the emphasis is on grammatical encoding and phonological encoding. Depending on the grammatical encoding and vocabulary stock of the conceptualizer, the speaker would be able to formulate the product and prepare the necessary background, Levelt referred to this operation as: ‘grammatical encoding and phonological encoding.’ To start thinking about the topic is to formulate language knowledge and articulate

correctly the different parts of speech. They are all about accuracy both at the grammatical and phonological levels.

However, there are a lot of external influences for the conceptualizer. Firstly, the topic familiarity determines the extent to which the product is fluent because the topic familiarity also affects the lexicon. The more the topic is familiar, the more vocabulary the speaker has in his mind. Secondly, planning makes it easier for the speaker to control and organize speaking to ensure a smooth and a flow of ideas. Thirdly, a misuse of one of these components will affect the fluency of the conceptualizer.

In self-monitoring, the speaker is concerned with delivering the message to the listener by all means possible. The emphasis, in this aspect, is on fluency and accuracy since the speaker is required to transform topic knowledge (the message) by using correct language knowledge. Delivering the message is always a complex issue as it is done very quickly, and the speaker does not have too much time for planning. Most speakers resort to pauses and hesitations to plan what to say next, and this is done at the expense of fluency. This is generally the last step in Levelt's model and it is called reformulation. In this stage, the speaker is required to reformulate false starts, syntactic and phonological errors. These reformulations are used to avoid any misinterpretation of the information in the message intended.

The following diagram represents Levelt's model of the speaker:



**Figure1:** Adopted from Bygate's Model of The Speaker 1989

One can understand from the model discussed previously that fluency is not only a matter of smoothness of ideas and speech. It is a unification of a number of components which constitute the end product of speaking, and any weakness may lead to social misinterpretation of the discourse. Apart from that, a number of significant components lie under the term fluency. They comprise a set of lexical, phonological, and grammatical

aspects. What is unique about Levelt's model is that in speech production a person perceives speech through the acoustic-phonetic processor, decodes speech linguistically and interprets the meaning by conceptualizing it. Speech production and perception are integrated into one comprehensive system, which makes it possible to connect discourse and psychological aspects of language to each other. Perception and production are linked to the three stores and interaction between the processing components and speech knowledge stores.

Levelt makes several assumptions which underlie the mechanisms of speech in this model. First, each component is linked to the next one and it starts processing information when it receives input. Second, processing the components is incremental and each component will start processing even if the operation in the previous components is not finished yet. Therefore, parallel processing takes place when the components start processing information simultaneously and in an automatic way. These components account for the speaker to articulate the message extremely rapidly, and within time constraints. Consequently, lack of fluency, language knowledge and topic knowledge will prevent the flow and smoothness of these mechanisms and create hindrances in each stage.

So, monitoring in Levelt's model is important to this research as it contextualizes the procedures of producing speech. Through monitoring, students will be able to discover deficiencies in their own speech, and follow discourse regularities to organize speaking coherently (Gilabert 2007). As a matter of fact, the monitor is located within the rhetorical semantic and syntactic system at the conceptual stage. Background knowledge about the internal and external world is available for both perception and production.

## **1.6.2 The Components of Fluency**

The testing of fluency is judged from the performance of the learner with the other interlocutors in different social settings. The assessor generally divides what has been said to understand what is meant, or to find out a criterion for evaluating connected speech. The point is that, this division allows the assessor to diagnose the learners' mistakes and their positions, and even categorize the mistakes into different types. Each category is assessed alone.

### **1.6.2.1 Speed of Delivery**

Speed of delivery is identified by the informants and their capacity for producing words per minute. Freed (1995) argued that speed of delivery has something to do with exposure and repetition. Learners may acquire language very easily if they are exposed to it, and the same expressions are used repeatedly either by the learner himself or by other people like classmates with the teacher in the case of classroom environment. It is argued in second language acquisition that speed of delivery is a characterization of native-like speaking, and that native speakers' language production is automatic. It contains fewer pauses and interruptions. In a study, Lennon (1990) tried to prove that language production and speed of delivery are highly related to exposure. He studied the improvement of four German students, who resided in England for a period of one year. Lennon noticed three important indices of improvement in the students' language proficiency which are: the quality of speech, the rate of speech and the fewer number of pauses used to separate units of speaking. Speed of delivery is based on the rate of speech, the decrease of pauses like (ehm, err, ah) and the increase of unit production mainly per minute.

### **1.6.2.2 Hesitation Phenomena**

The hesitation phenomena represent a number of factors which influence the production of language and speech rate in general. These factors are: pauses, fillers, hesitations, repetitions, lack of discourse markers and sentence connectives. Skehan (2003) considered these aspects as the most comprehensive picture of fluency performance, since it is a combination of what should be measured in fluency. These disfluencies can be defined as parts of an utterance which interrupt the flow of continuous speech and do not add propositional content to the utterance (Fox Tree, 1995).

#### **1.6.2.2.1 Pauses**

A pause may occur to indicate the end of the turn especially when the utterance ends in low key, and is associated with fillers like: “um”, “er”, or “uhu.” In some other cases, pauses are used to plan for what to say next when the idea is in the mind, but the learner is still looking for the right words to express it clearly. Fulcher (2003) explained that pauses are used to add examples, counter-examples, or reasons to support a point of view. He noted “Pauses are sometimes used as an oral parenthesis before adding extra information to an argument or point of view, or break up a list of examples.” (101)

#### **1.6.2.2.2 Fillers**

Fillers can be viewed as words or expressions learners use whenever confronted with a difficult pronunciation of some words, or to buy him some time to plan what to say and how to say it. There are a large number of expressions of such kind like: “uhm”, “er”, and “euh.” They are unfinished words or the beginning of words.



### **1.6.2.2.3 Repetitions**

Repetitions occur with repeated syllables, words or phrases but the repeated word does not add any propositional content of the utterance. Generally speaking, a pause occurs between the word and its repetition which stands for another missing or unfound word. Heike (1980) drew a distinction between “prospective” and “retrospective repetition.” Prospective repetitions are classified as those introduced because of perceived upcoming difficulty for the speaker, while retrospective occurs when the speaker detected that a problem has already occurred. The repetition, here, is needed to establish fluency of speech.

### **1.6.2.2.4 Hesitations**

Hesitation in speech is always marked by fillers, pauses and prolongations of words. These features are remarkably common in most continuous speaking. They affect both the processing of speech and the lasting representation of the material. Hesitations are due to the increase in the difficulty in conceptualizing utterances specifically when word prolongations are produced frequently (Schmidt and Corley, 2006). On the other hand, Schechter, et al. (1991) said that hesitations do not only occur because of poor conceptualization of utterances, but also when the learner has too many options when it comes to formulate ideas into speech. This is basically attributed to a number of linguistic options available in the learner’s mind.

Hesitations are sometimes made purposefully to achieve some communicative goals; a simple example of this is when a speaker intentionally says “um” in order to let the listener know that he did not finish speaking.

### **1.6.2.2.5 Overt Repairs**

Overt repairs occur when the speaker intends to correct a previous idea. The speaker stops in the middle of the speech to provide new information that substitute or complete

previous utterances. The learner's mind detects a mistake and corrects it during the articulation of the message. The disfluency is examined in three parts: the initial speech that the speaker intends to correct, an editing phrase or pause, and then the correct information.

### **1.6.2.3 Planning and Organization**

Fluency is not only tied to the number of utterances produced, and the characteristic of hesitations produced to separate the utterances and to correct mistakes. It includes also the capacity for transforming the message from an idea into words and utterances which are joined together. Planning in speaking is not that easy. The speaker does not have much time to plan what to say next, specifically when the mind is totally engaged in connecting the lexical items together, to construct new knowledge from the acquired background knowledge. As it has been mentioned before, Levelt (1989) explained what happens when the information is processed in the mind using schema knowledge, planning the information, and transforming it into lexical items.

At the beginning of the planning stage, the speaker conceptualizes the ideas to organize them coherently, and to choose one option to say the right thing in the right way. After conceptualizing the ideas in the mind, the speaker formulates his schema knowledge and this process is done through three important stages: schema planning, schema organizing, and schema editing. It is like when the speaker produces some utterances, they are planned and organized, and after they are said. Whenever a mistake is found correction is needed.

Planning and organizing schema knowledge carry with it a number of alternatives when processing the information from speaker to listener. First, the intended message or what to say is better understood correctly by the listener. Sometimes, the intended message depends to a large extent on topic familiarity, because the latter determines the type of lexicon used and the grammatical forms of utterances.

Second, planning exerts a substantial amount from the speaker's time to visualize objectives and goals. The speaker opts for a number of reasons whenever the possibility to say something is started. These reasons allow the speaker to evaluate the intended message and to set objectives according to the context, the situation and the type of the task performed by the speaker.

Finally, planning in fluency may reflect the improvement of accuracy and complexity. Complexity, here, is taken as an important factor in the realization of fluency since it is all about the different related parts of the same speech. These parts of speech are connected and joined together in a way which ensures the flow and smoothness of ideas without any major interruptions like: hesitations, pauses, and fillers.

### **1.6.3 The Roles of Fluency and Accuracy in Speaking**

A major issue for foreign language teachers is how to develop accuracy and complexity, as well as fluency of their learners. Hence, too much corrective feedback makes learners reluctant to speak, while in the case of less corrective feedback, errors may become entrenched. In the recent years, teaching a foreign language shifted to what is known as communicative language teaching. The latter emphasizes the importance of both fluency and accuracy each with its specific teaching methods (Brumfit, 1984; Skehan, 1998).

The fact is that, communicative language teaching equates between formal accuracy and communicative fluency each in its own context. Brumfit (1984) was the first to highlight the difference between fluency, which represents the learner's 'truly internalized grammar' and 'conscious accuracy' which highlights three aspects in any language and they are: grammar, phonology and syntax. When Brumfit (1984:50) suggested this, he was basically pointing at two concepts in SLA and syllabus design, which are form and meaning-focused teaching, he said: "Allowing people to operate as effectively as they could, and attempting to

adjust or mould what they produced in the desired direction, rather than explicitly teaching and expecting convergent imitation.”

It can be understood from this, that communication is not only about imitation of a given model, but it is how we can achieve different communicative purposes in different contexts. Natural language use or genuine communication occurs when learners pay attention to meaning when it is negotiated (like in fluency), and form to choose the appropriate lexicon and grammar. Consequently, learners construct new knowledge or new ideas depending on what they bear in their minds and the context in which things are said and meant.

Communication as a united set is the production of ongoing and correct sentences which are said to mean different things in different contexts (Brown and Yule 1984). Teaching sometimes involves the analysis of this united set into categories either for teaching purposes, learning purposes or testing purposes, to assign different tasks and activities, for these categories to function properly during the course of speaking.

### **1.6.3.1 The Role of Accuracy**

The main concern of accuracy is how something is said, in terms of correct intonation, vocabulary and grammar. Platt and Platt (1992) identified the function of accuracy as the ability to produce grammatically correct sentences but may not include the ability to speak or write fluently. However, in contrast to fluency where learners practise more than one thing at a time, in accuracy learners practice only one thing at a time. It is to build up analysis on accurate items of the language which can be shown in a descriptive model. Despite the fact that both fluency and accuracy function together, it is always preferable to consider accuracy as a separate item in testing because scales in testing contain categories which pertain to language proficiency. These separate items appear to add little to what could be obtained simply by assigning an overall language proficiency (Oller, 1979 cited in Davies, 1991).

### **1.6.3.2 The Role of Fluency**

Fluency is a multidimensional concept in communication; since it encompasses different processes to practise language perfectly. Learners practise different things at the same time. First, the role of fluency is to develop automaticity which is all about the flow of speech and ideas. Bialystok (1982) talked about automaticity as processing knowledge in the mind and not as knowledge itself. It includes the speed of delivery, the mean length and the number of pauses and hesitations.

Second, a fluent speaker is the one who processes knowledge easily, effectively and efficiently. This includes the ability to plan and organize ideas in a very short period of time. It is sometimes difficult for learners to choose the appropriate words and type of sentences, but a more difficult task is to choose what to say next.

Finally, speaking fluently cannot be done randomly. We can say something but we mean something else. The intended message contains many aims and objectives. These aims differ from one situation to another, and in order to make the message more comprehensive, the communicative purposes should be clear to both speakers and listeners about the subject. Speaking fluently is how pauses are avoided to keep communication flowing smoothly. Language, after all, is the vehicle to communicate ideas, emotions and experiences.

### **1.6.4 The Teaching of Fluency**

The issue of fluency is based on the assumption that the production is realized on a native-like basis. But, the question that should be asked is how difficult or easy the realization of this criterion in teaching and what are the methods followed to enable learners to use language naturally in different contexts? Generally speaking, most teachers consider accuracy as part of fluency, Guillot (1999) considered fluency as having different outlooks

which may affect teaching and testing, and it is taught paradoxically to maintain the elusive function of fluency in teaching. When Brumfit (1984) first introduced the basic polarity between fluency and accuracy, he suggested that the teaching of fluency is methodological rather than psychological or linguistic. Likewise, Fillmore (1993) discussed the teaching of fluency through productive activities. These productive activities are also known as “Fluency-based activities” which are discussions, role-plays, and information gap activities. They are used to open up the lines of communication between the learners and the teacher in the classroom. These activities accomplish a number of communicative purposes, and they are related directly to fluency. They allow the speaker to express himself freely, and to imitate a number of real life language use where learners can sustain a flow of ideas and speech at the same time without neglecting correctness. The teachers may provide feedback whenever possible.

#### **1.6.4.1 Principles of Teaching Fluency**

As it has been mentioned before, collaborative group-work tasks or meaning-focused instruction will create more opportunities for learners to use language for learning, to negotiate the meaning, and to participate by managing and presenting their points of view. Teachers’ directed or form-focused instructions are provided by the teachers namely to raise awareness about language form and organization of the language. These tasks are very helpful, when teaching fluency they reflect on organizing the ideas (Johnson, 2003).

Preferably, tasks are practised collaboratively, not only between the teacher and the learners. Collaborative learning between the learners themselves encourages their self-esteem, and develops a variety of social and pragmatic competencies. Consequently, communicative tasks which involve learners to work together to create an elusive learning

atmosphere and tremendously indulge learners in framing the discussion with more than one partner at the same time.

Bygate (1991) proposed a different methodology for teaching fluency. He suggested that extensive repetition of the same task in the classroom leads to greater fluency at the expense of accuracy. Fluency tasks are linguistically demanding in some occasions, and are adopted according to the level of the learners. At the first learning stages, fluency is practised through rehearsal when the learners' schema knowledge is not ready yet to build up new knowledge. When learners advance in their learning process, teachers change the tasks from linguistically demanding into cognitively demanding. Here, the learners move into using more complex tasks, like analytic thinking, synthesis of information from several sources, concentration and memory. The cognitive load also affects task performance, and a simple example is explained by Brown and Yule (1984) to demonstrate the amount of load presented in the same task but in two separate conditions. The task is to describe two very similar pictures and two different pictures and the results are:

When describing the similar pictures learners noticed:

- The difference between the two pictures in colour, size, shape, even the pictures are similar and differences are easily spotted.
- Familiar setting, a much known vocabulary.

But, when describing the different pictures:

- The distinguishing features require linguistic precision, careful explanation with a very precise vocabulary.
- The context is unfamiliar, items not clear, things difficult to name, situation ambiguous.

Even though the task is the same the performance of the learners is decreased when the condition is changed. Mostly, the lack of cognitive knowledge about the topic was created by the gradual increase in the cognitive load which requires a complex processing of knowledge undertaken in different situations and different conditions. Indeed, fluency tasks create a variety of activities in the classroom specifically if they are compared to accuracy. Richards (2006:14) highlighted a number of fluency activities in the classroom which distinguish the role of fluency and accuracy very significantly:

- Reflect natural language use.
- Focus on achieving communication.
- Require meaningful use of language.
- Require the use of communication strategies.
- Seek to link language use to context.

#### **1.6.4.2 The Measurement of Fluency**

As Lennon (1990: 403) suggested, fluency measures can be classified into two aspects: “temporal measures which deal with the speed of delivery, and ‘hesitation markers’ which represent dysfluency such as repetition and false starts.” The criterion over which fluency is measured is based on the comparison between the performance of foreign language learners and native speakers. In a recent study, Kormous and Dénes (2004) conducted a validation study by means of various measures of fluency. They correlated human ratings and how fluent the speech was with quantified results with the use of computer technology. Among the temporal measures that were validated in their study, the speech rate and the mean length of runs correlated most with fluency ratings.



In some other studies, the number of words and clauses determined the fluency of speech. Bygate (2001) counted the number of words per T- unit while other researchers counted the number of clauses per C-unit and the number of subordinate clauses per T-unit. The amount of words per unit and the amount of subordination appear to be the two measures that are commonly used. (Skehan and Foster, 1999; Foster and Skehan, 1996; Robinson, 2001; Mehnert, 1998).

The process of communicating is often meant to be the process of imparting ideas between communicator and recipient. Sometimes it is reduced to mean the process of expression and interpretation of ideas, with the aim of arriving at mutual understanding of a certain subject matter. Communication as a process does not only entail the intended message and the relationship between the speaker and the listener. It is an elusive statement of the communicative purposes within the intended message. It involves varieties of communicative purposes which are proposed to complete the message, and create a mutual understanding between participants in any communicative context. These communicative purposes may include: requesting, apologizing, arguing, persuading, and confirming.

Arguing and persuading are among the most difficult communicative purposes to achieve in any language, mainly because of the cognitive processes in this purpose and the effects it produces on both the speaker and the listener. In argumentation, the logical organization of the information constitutes collecting the information, planning the information and saying it rightly. The human communication is part of the social correspondence, which is basically argumentative in terms of structure and nature (Sperber, 2001). Thus, humans use lots of expressions with conditionals and quantifiers to help make plans and execute automatically the message at hand. Besides, arguers submit their arguments with the appeal to add new information, or to balance between his reasonable arguments and the audience's arguments.

## **Conclusion**

The process of speaking a foreign language is based on determining the components of speaking. In this chapter, speaking was divided into two main components: accuracy and fluency. For a more detailed discussion, accuracy was also divided into grammatical accuracy, syntax, and phonology as they are parts of the tiny segments of the whole communicative system, which is all about rules or applying them effectively to produce correct grammatical, syntactic and phonological sentences. Fluency, however, is divided into three main components which are: hesitation phenomenon, speed of delivery and planning time. Hesitation phenomenon comprises a number of fluency indices like pauses, hesitations, filled pauses and false starts. All these indices are determined by the extent to which students devote a substantial amount of their speaking time to generate ideas and plan what to say next. But, speaking quickly does not entail fluency all the time. The speaker may repeat the same idea during speaking in many forms. Some pauses are created for the purpose of advocating some time to think about the topic and to plan what to say next.

## **Chapter Three: Rhetorical Argumentation and Narrating Stories as Classroom Tasks.**

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conclusion

## **Introduction**

As mentioned earlier, fluency and accuracy can be divided into many components in speaking. Accuracy for example is divided into: grammar, syntax and phonology which represent language knowledge in its broadest sense. While fluency represents topic knowledge and it is divided into: planning and organization, speed of delivery, hesitation phenomena, and smoothness of ideas. Dividing language into components is a very crucial step for a thorough comprehension of how to design specific tasks according to the needs of the students, and their proficiency level. Designing tasks for communicative classrooms require careful attention to avoid confusion between the aim of the task and the component intended to enhance in language learning. In the following chapter, we will try to investigate the communicative purposes behind the tasks narrating stories and rhetorical argumentation to use them as resources in the practical part, to discover the rhetorical functions, and communicative purposes and strategies of each task. A number of other points will be covered in this chapter starting by introducing the task as a classroom activity. After the argumentative task and the narrative task are discussed; a comparison between them is made to know the characteristics of each one in teaching contexts.

## 1. Definition of a task

There are, in fact, a number of definitions from different linguists stemming from communicative language teaching and Second Language Acquisition. The definitions of the task differ in terms of the following respects: 1) the scope of the activity that a task encompasses, 2) the perspective from which the task is viewed, 3) the authenticity of the task (real world or pedagogical), 4) the linguistic tasks required to perform the task (Bygate et al, 2001; Crooks and Gass, 1993; Klipfel, 1998; Ellis, 2003). In this research, three definitions of a task are demonstrated. The first definition is stated by Long (1985:89) which is as follows: “A task is a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward. Thus, examples of tasks include painting a fence, dressing a child...making an airline reservation... In other words by ‘task’ is meant the hundred and one thing people do in everyday life...”

Long’s definition of a task is very broad. It is not related to language learning, since it expresses the idea of the tasks which people may do even without using language. The next definition is very common among teachers, as it was stated very comprehensively by Nunan (1989:10) as follows:

*A piece of classroom work which involves the learners in comprehending manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right....In fact, good oral grammar exercises can and should be both meaningful and communicative.*

This definition of a task is more narrow and comprehensive in teaching. It provides great insights into the real function of the task. The purpose of the task as a classroom work is to make learners focus on meaning rather than form, and negotiate the meaning for some communicative purposes. The last definition belongs to Skehan (1998: 95) and encompasses the features which are embedded in both the previous definitions: “A task is an activity in

which meaning is primary; there is some kind of communication problem to solve; there is some sort of relationship to comparable real world activities; task completion has some priority, the assessment of the task is in terms of outcomes.”

In other words, as opposed to language drills in tasks, language is used in context. Learners are required to convey meaning but also attend to form, and the extent to which learners keep up with the form varies according to the task undertaken. Most of the definitions are context free but the real definitions of the task differ according to its purpose. There are tasks for pedagogical purposes and others for research purposes and within these areas they can be identified according to whether they are concerned with teaching, learning, or testing.

It is also worth highlighting the distinction between “focused” and “unfocused” tasks. Much research has turned to “focused tasks”, while both “focused” and “unfocused” tasks adhere to the criteria discussed before. Unfocused tasks are designed to promote communication with no particular language form in mind, whereas focused tasks are designed to elicit reception, processing or production of a particular linguistic feature, such as the past tense form. Therefore, the aim of focused tasks is to promote communication as well as a focus on particular form function-meaning relationship.

Tasks can be focused by designing them so that they are only performed if a particular linguistic feature is used, or by making the target language feature. In the topic of the task, for example, the learners may be asked to talk about conditionals and workout rules to see how they are used. In turn, talking about language and its rules involves the same kind of real world language use or cognitive processes as any other topic, and the talk is still meaning centred. Ellis (2005) called this type of tasks Consciousness Raising tasks (CR), and the overall aim is to shed light on one form of the language to try to shift the attention of the

students towards one aspect of a language at a time. Pica, et al. (2006) explained the methodology behind the design of information-gap tasks for this purpose and have reviewed their role in teaching and learning. These tasks are suitable for consciousness rising about a particular aspect of the language, by practicing only this aspect.

In this research, a focus is put on two unfocused tasks, which are “rhetorical argumentation”, as a classroom discussion task and “narrating stories together with past experiences.” The fact is that, these tasks do not focus on a particular linguistic, grammatical, or syntactic feature. The tasks implemented in this research are for testing purposes, mainly to see the effects of these two tasks over the previously reviewed components of speaking which are fluency and accuracy. Students are expected to reveal their proficiency in terms of language knowledge and topic knowledge. The targeted goals of language knowledge include: grammar, pronunciation and syntax. Similarly, the targeted goals of topic knowledge are planning, topic familiarity and fluency.

In the task of rhetorical argumentation, the students discussed different topics with each other, and they used different rhetorical functions like “arguing”, “explaining” and “exemplifying” to achieve the intended communicative purposes which are negotiating the meaning and problem-solving. In the task of narrating stories and describing past experiences, the main rhetorical function in this task is to narrate events of the stories which students created from their imagination, based on stories they know or movies they watched and tell it to the audience. While in describing past experiences, the students opted for narrating some good or bad experiences from their real life, and transform it into a story.

### **1.1 Definition of Argumentation**

Argumentation is a type of verbal and non verbal form of communication in which individuals generate, refine, refute and evaluate knowledge claims. It is also an activity aimed



at convincing the others of the acceptability of a stand point by putting forward a series of one or more propositions to justify the stand point.

Argumentation is a kind of critical thinking which occurs in academic settings or everyday life to argue, to give a point of view, or to evaluate what has been said. Freeley and Steinberg (2009:2) define argumentation as “reason given in communicative situations by people whose purpose is the justification of acts, beliefs, attitudes and values.” Communicators adhere to reasonable arguments in different communicative situations. These arguments determine the negotiation of meaning over a standpoint. In some cases, argumentation encompasses a number of rhetorical functions embedded in communication. Rapp and Schuetz (2006:17) identify the rhetorical functions which are embedded in argumentation activities as: “Argumentation consists of a set of complex activities that people engage in together for making decisions, solving problems, and generally managing disagreements. Each of the perspective takes certain of those activities within its scope and focuses on them in distinctive ways.”

Argumentation is used among speakers to coordinate actions as an instrument for acquiring knowledge since it can render our beliefs and claims justified. Argumentative communication, as it appears in everyday life, is frequently packed with non literal meanings, ambiguity, ellipses, and vagueness. Thus, the need to interpret it is crucial for the sake of evaluating and understanding the moves undertaken in communication.

In this line of thought, Luque (2011:12) identified any piece of argumentation as “an attempt to address any particular issue within a particular background, to that end, every communicative element in it is supposed to play a role.” The communicative acts are considered as elements of argumentation. The elements convey meaningful attributions in pragmatics which contribute in visualizing the communicative goals in communication.

Argumentation is seen also as a product in itself. The identification of the targeted audience and the communicative goals are compulsory for the rationale of good argumentation. Johnson (2000) considered the acceptance of the view by the addressee of the reasons put forward for the claim as a necessary condition for good argumentation. The goodness of argumentation is judged when there is knowledge acceptance. The definition of what argumentation is can be traced to the type of subjects discussed. The nature of subjects create the link between argumentation processes and procedures, types of argumentative situations, and even types of argumentative schemas used to process knowledge.

## **1.2 Argumentative Discourse**

The idea behind argumentative discourse is absolutely a question of the speaker and his intentions in speaking. Whether to consider argumentation as means to an end or as an end in communication, this is not what matters in argumentative discourse, the interpretation of information creates the scaffold for inferring intentions. Bach and Harnish (1975:5) regarded interpretation as an inferential process in which “the speaker provides, by what he says, a basis for the hearer to infer what the speaker intends to be thereby doing.” In this interpretive context, two mutual beliefs are used to form the speaker’s performance. They are: the communicative presumption and the linguistic presumption.

### **1.2.1 The Communicative Presumption**

The mutual belief held in the communicative presumption works with some recognizable illocutionary intentions. Both the speaker and the listener share the same communicative intentions. Whenever the speaker says something and refers to something else, the listener interprets the meaning.

### **1.2.2 The Linguistic Presumption**

The language shared between the same linguistic community enables the identification of language items, and clarifies the point of the speaker since language knowledge comprises information about the outside world.

Occasionally, the speaker should supply information in order to interpret the actual meaning and scope of the conversation. The tasks of interpreting and analyzing argumentative discourse are meant to establish respectively the meaning of its discourse elements. Argumentative discourse is represented in two senses: the pragmatic-dialectical sense and the rhetorical sense.

### **1.2.3 The Pragmatic-Dialectical Sense**

This sense of argumentation focuses attention on the argumentative exchanges and the moves within a dialogue or a debate. This is a rule-governed sense of argumentation and the rules device procedures and plans for good argumentation. Hence, this type of argumentation is considered as a procedure which requires a plan, a context, and logical reasons to build claims and to support the arguments (Tindale, 2004).

Pragmatically speaking, reasons in argumentation are second order speech acts. They are extracted from claims which are first order speech acts. Conclusions are also second order speech acts, as they are also extracted from claims.

### **1.2.4 Rhetorical Argumentation**

The emphasis in this type of argumentation is on the process. Attention, here, is shifted to the means used in argumentative communications between arguer and audience, to determine the communicative purposes used whether they are claiming, justifying, explaining, supporting or arguing. Questions are also asked to identify the audience and the

subject matter over which the debate is built. Such components contribute to a full sense of the context in which arguments are embedded. Rhetorical argumentation was related to audience by many researchers (Tindale 2004, Van Emmeren and Houtlouser, 2002). Tindale (2004: 19) considered rhetorical argumentation, as a rhetorical pursuit “as central human activity, argumentation is that far exceed methodology alone.” In this case, it is related to the audience or “addressee”, and it is based on what he called “strategic manoeuvring” as there is always a negotiation of the meaning. Johnson (2000) agreed with Tindale about this point, but he added that rhetorical argumentation is the only type of argumentation where acceptance is favoured over truth, as truth is used in logic and logic needs assertiveness.

### **1.3.1 Argumentation as a Process and as a Product**

Johnson (2000:154) distinguished between argumentation as a product and argumentation as a process. He identified, first, argumentation as a product because it is viewed as the practice. The practice is divided into components which are “(a) the process of arguing (b) the agents engaged in the practice (the arguer and other), and (c) the argument itself as a product.” These components complete each other and design the end result of the product. The product is something that ought to be finished.

On the other hand, the argumentation process is the development of certain norms used to create credibility for whatever reasons justified and clarified automatically. These norms are preceded by a plan. It is used to organize the reasons and ensure the flow of them in a logical way. The reasons in the process of argumentation carry out different communicative functions like persuading, justifying, claiming and explaining. The end result of the process is the product; the product of argumentation is evaluated valid or invalid when there is some effect over the audience because every argumentative element in the process is supposed to play a specific role.

In particular, any piece of argumentation is an attempt to address a particular issue within a particular background because the communicative elements or moves constitute the procedure and process of argumentation.

### **1.3.2 The Difference between Dialectic and Rhetoric Argumentation**

We have seen that dialectical argumentation is all about moves in a conversation, and it is very common in discourse analysis as it engages in the rules which govern dialogues and how they are initiated in speaking (Tindale, 1999). Such a kind of argumentation is used much in contests and competitions between opponents to argue for or against a point of view. Here, a variety of steps are appropriate in developing these dialogues, depending upon the subject matter involved. The steps are combined to form reasons and to follow specific moves. Argumentation has a recursive development through these steps, since it is subjective in its nature. Though argumentation dialectical properties determine its interpretation and evaluation.

When we speak about rhetorical argumentation, it has a direct connection with debate and persuasion. So, many authors like Johnson (2000), Emermen and Houtloosler (2002), and Tindale (1999) identified rhetorical argumentation within the term ‘intention’ which involves communicating with a clear purpose in mind. The type of communication involved depends on context, shared background knowledge and the communicative purposes. So, rhetorical argumentation is objective in its nature. Kock (2007) characterized rhetorical argumentation as an acceptability of the truth, rather than an attempt to win an argument. Kock claims that since argumentation deploys too much decision, it is multidimensional, in terms of issues, he stated: “The most important thinkers in the rhetorical tradition itself do see rhetorical as rooted in a certain domain. This domain is that of action: rhetorical is rooted in deliberation about choices, choices between alternative courses of action.” (Kock, 2007:787). He referred

to action and issues when it comes to rhetorical argumentation as a means of influence in discourse. The influence is incorporated when actions and issues bring about new knowledge from claims and counter claims.

We have seen that argumentation depends on a number of conventions like shared background knowledge, and the context of the subject matter itself. It depends also on the type of communication activity used. The structure of argumentation in a debate is different from the one employed in a conversation. Sometimes, the setting also determines the moves and the characterization of argumentation and its development. In everyday life conversations, the main purpose of argumentation is set around winning the argument while in academic settings the discipline is different. There are claims and counter claims adopted to open up the lines of communication and to exchanges information. According to Toulmin (1958), there are six components in argumentation which occur in academic settings namely: “claim”, “data”, “warrant”, “backing”, “rebuttal” and “conclusion.”

### **1.3.2.1 The Claim**

The claim is the major point of view or the general statement of the argument. It is the initiation of the process of communicating, Toulmin (1958) suggested that the claim is the central issue which links all the subsequent elements together, and it tries to clarify the meaning of argument, while the clarification can be made very clear in the last step which is the conclusion. The aim of the claim is to deal with the semantic objects that arise as a result of interpreting certain types of communicative processes in a certain way.

### **1.3.2.2 The Data**

The data are evidence which are used to support the claim. They are also called the grounds which are used to back up and to justify the arguer’s point of view. In speaking,

planning time for attributing these data is limited, so they are used automatically with much emphasis for varying the communicative purposes to extend the general statement.

### **1.3.2.3 Warrants**

They constitute the general hypothetical and logical statements that serve as bridges between the claim and the data. Warrants are rules or principles which function as a substantial core for inference, and they authorize the sort of steps to which particular arguments are bound.

### **1.3.2.4 Qualifiers**

These are statements that propose conditions under which the argument is true. Qualifiers like “most likely” and “probably” are used to indicate the degree of the strength of the argument to ensure clarity and justification.

### **1.3.2.5 Backing**

They are statements used to support the warrants, even if they do not necessary support the main claim and they prove the warrants to be true.

### **1.3.2.6 Rebuttals**

Rebuttals are voices for objections. They provide conditions to refute or rebut the warranted claim. They are also counter arguments indicating circumstances when the general argument does not hold true. All these components constitute a recursive theory for the validity, consistency, objectivity and subjectivity of argumentation.

## **1.4 Reasoning and Critical Thinking**

Determining the truth or falsity of statements in the outside world is very often a difficult task, and requires the evaluation of information, the acceptance or the rejection of

this information. Reasoning, in fact, is the ability to evaluate information, and give value judgments, to suggest, and to give comments. It is the ability to make people change their mind about a given idea. However, reasoning does not always hold a clear vision of its central theme the moment it occurs. Andrews (2010) stated that arguments may start with a jumble of unconnected associations. They only start to make sense when a main idea is generated to keep them together. Reasoning takes place around a central idea called a theme, and the arguments are linked to the central theme through logical and sequential connections which allow the flow and smooth of ideas.

Critical thinking is the ability to draw implications and consequences from different kinds of information (Hughes and Lavery, 2008). Critical thinking is all about drawing conclusions and coming up with results. There are three types of skills in critical thinking: “interpretive skills”, “verification skills” and “reasoning skills.” Interpretive skills start with receiving information and translating them into meaningful messages. The verification skill is based on determining which information is correct and which is not. The reasoning skill is about thinking and evaluating thinking, reasoning involves thinking, and thinking in turn involves language to express any thoughts. In order to understand reasoning, we need to pay more attention to the relationship between thinking and language. The relationship is straightforward: thinking is expressed through language. This is partly true but it is still a claim because people often fail to express what they mean. We do not use words to express our thoughts only, but also to shape them and to give them meaning. Consequently, developing the reasoning skill requires an understanding of the ways in which words can express our thoughts



## **2.1 The Task of Narrating Stories**

### **2.1.1 Definition of the Task Narrating Stories**

Narrative tasks are a well-established and frequently researched task type (Bygate, 1999; Foster, and Skehan, 1996; Robinson, 1995). Narrating stories usually involves the creations of a story which is based on imagination where the main rhetorical function is narration. Sometimes, the task of narration depends on creating a story from a stimulus. This stimulus could be a strip of pictures or a short film, and the learners, here, are asked to imagine a story and retell it to the listeners. The representation of the stimuli is highly visual and their verbal productions depend on the storyteller and its language proficiency. This task seems ideal for the manifestation of the learners' creativity as far as imagination is concerned.

### **2.1.2 Types of a Narrative Task**

#### **2.1.2.1 Narrating Stories**

Generally speaking, the task of narrating stories is divided into two types which are “narrating from pictures”, and “recalling past experiences.” Telling stories from a strip of pictures is meant to provide the learners with the general context, and the visual cognitive support of the story to enable the learners to use the words and phrases which are already known. Skehan and Foster (1999) agreed that this task does not limit the production of the learners since they can focus on narrating the stories in the pictures. They can produce whatever language forms they possess. They over emphasize that the narrative task, which is based on a strip of pictures with a clear inherent structure and time sequence, will help learners process information easily and lead to more fluency and accuracy.

### **2.1.2.2 Descriptive Tasks**

The descriptive task is also built around describing pictures, but the difference is that the learners are required to answer the questions accompanied by the pictures. Learners are expected to find the clues or to reach the acceptable answers. The questions accompanied by the pictures are, generally, in the following form: “can you describe the people/places in the pictures?”, “what are these people doing?” or “how many people are there in the pictures?”

### **2.1.2.3 Prediction-Personal Reaction**

As in the descriptive task, the prediction-personal reaction task contextualizes the events which are related to some questions about the details depicted in the pictures; however, it differs from the descriptive task in the way that learners are expected to make predictions and utter some predictive statements regarding the pictures. Like a narrative task, the learners are not bounded by questions and can focus on the narrative side of the pictures. For that reason, this task has similar features to both descriptive and narrative tasks. Therefore, it was categorized as a different task type from descriptive and narrative ones. Because this task type requires ‘differentiated outcomes’ as defined by Skehan (1998) as attributes like the nature of the questions, or the content of the pictures, and this content may increase or decrease depending on these attributes (Fulcher and Marquez Reiter, 2003).

### **2.1.3 The Narrative Paradigm**

The narrative paradigm was introduced by Fischer (1984) where he referred to narration as “a theory of symbolic actions –words or deeds that have sequence and meaning for those who live, create, and interpret them.” (1984:2).The rhetorical function of narration entails either words or actions which are meaningful and organized. The transfer of meaningful messages is done through symbols. These symbols are carried out by gestures, facial expressions, or the manner of speaking. For example, if someone is speaking in harsh

and severe manner, and he is holding his fist tightly, this is a symbol of anger and cruelty. The second point is organization by means of a sequence. The elements of the story are organized, and this well-organization has meaning for both sender and receiver of the story. Another outstanding observation is made by Fischer when he combined the traditional view of rhetoric as practical reasoning and the narrative form. He claimed that the narrative paradigm is a “dialectical synthesis of... the argumentative, persuasive theme and the literary aesthetic theme” (Fisher, 1984:2). It is noted that human communication must be in an argumentative form. A clearly identifiable argumentative discourse is rational, and a narrative or other forms of rhetorical human communication can be rational as well. Furthermore, a story may not be true but should be rational to be persuasive.

#### **2.1.4 Storytelling as a Teaching Method**

Andrews et al. (2009) identified four instructional methods that are related to storytelling: “case-based”, “narrative-based”, “scenario-based” and “problem-based instruction.” Each method presents learners with “a temporally ordered sequences of information and employs an attention-focusing mechanism.” (Andrews et al., 2009:7)

##### **2.1.4.1 Case-Based**

In case-based storytelling, the teacher invites a guest sometimes it is a foreigner to tell mainly a historical story to the rest of the classroom. The main purpose behind this task is to exchange cultural and historical backgrounds with foreigners and even native speakers if available. Students are not subjected to listening only, but they should understand the story and they make a verbal outline of it. The teacher, in turn, selects some students to narrate the outline of the story with much focus on the characters and the sequence of events.

#### **2.1.4.2 Narrative-Based**

As it has been mentioned before, narrative based tasks are used in teaching with the help of a strip of pictures or a short film. The aim behind this task is to limit the scope of the learners' imagination, by focusing on asking them "tell the story in the pictures." (Skehan and foster, 1999). In other contexts, the pictures are not needed and learners are expected to create their own stories, they can even recall information about their past experiences, or remember special events.

#### **2.1.4.3 Scenario-Based**

This is a bit different than the other two previous tasks, and it requires more planning or peer interacting. Learners are divided by the teacher in the classroom to act a play or a movie. The scenario is given by the teacher to the students but they are not allowed to use papers for their scenarios they have to memorize them. Once the story starts, learners try on the characters, actions, and key events suggested by the story, discovering a range of ways to portray the characters and the events.

#### **2.1.4.4 Problem-based Instruction**

The problem-based instruction does not entail narrating stories in its broadest sense. The task is based on a problem-solving strategy to open up the lines of communication. The narration aspect in this type of tasks is done by the teacher. The teacher tells the learners a short story with an unsolved climax like a puzzle. The central theme of this story is a problem. The learners are expected to understand the story, and eventually to solve the problem in this story. They can rely on the teacher's instructions, follow them, and discuss the answers with the other students and the teacher as well.

### 2.1.5 The Rhetorical Functions of Narrating Stories

The main rhetorical function is narration, while so many other rhetorical functions can be implemented depending on the complexity of the task at hand. Robinson (2001) agreed that task complexity shapes the realization of the communicative events and the cognitive demands the task imposes on the students. For example, if low proficiency students are asked to narrate what they did last summer, the task can be quite demanding. In this simple task, the students implement different rhetorical functions: “describing”, “illustrating”, and “explaining.” But, the task may become less demanding if some stimulus is provided to help generate the content and ideas of the story. In his classification of tasks, Ellis (2003) mentioned four different types and they are: ‘Pedagogical, rhetorical, cognitive, and psycholinguistic.’ (210-216). According to Ellis, the types of tasks which belong to rhetorical are categorized as narrative, descriptive or instructional, and they are discourse modes which are used to achieve different communicative purposes depending on the context in which they are used. Rhetorical functions influence mainly the negotiation of meaning, and the production of language. The rhetorical functions of narrating stories can be summarized as follows:

**Narrating:** mainly used to determine the sequence of events, the beginning the middle and the end of the story.

**Describing:** it is a very important rhetorical function used to describe people and places.

**Explaining:** this rhetorical function is used when learners are required to explain the events in a strip of pictures or a short film.

**Illustrating and Exemplifying:** during describing pictures, the students may improvise and give examples and illustration, or assimilate between the content of the pictures and real life examples.

## **2.2 Task Familiarity and Task Difficulty**

We have seen that narration can affect the smoothness of ideas and language as well which leads to fluency and accuracy, but this is true when the students are given some kind of stimulus to use them as cognitive operations. This claim, in fact, does seem to fit all the circumstances, since Robinson (1995) investigated task difficulty and its effects on language production. He claimed that the more complexity of the task, the less accurate and fluent the production is. Accordingly, the task of narrating stories from the imagination of students is a complicated task, and when students are provided with pictures to tell a story they involve themselves in fluency, specifically, when they practised the task before. The focus of the students is to assimilate the form and not to generate the content.

### **2.2.1 The Impact of Task Complexity on Fluency and Accuracy**

The debate over the suitability of language learning tasks was intriguing researchers in the last four decades. The oral proficiency is often counted on the students' ability to produce words and phrases, by evaluating the students' fulfilment of a variety of tasks like asking and answering, making up mini dialogues and stories, and discussing topics (Bygate 1996). The problem with language tasks is the problem of complexity. The level of fluency and accuracy can be high if students are given too much time to think about the topic or they practised this task before and they are well aware of its communicative purposes. As an example, Crisp and Sweiry (2006) stated that pictures are of great help if they are given to students to help them tell a story or describe something, but these pictures should be picked up very carefully. While Cameron (2001) believed that the number of pauses and hesitations in fluency

decrease, when such pictures are used, since most of the cognitive language and metalanguage exists in the task. Likewise, Skehan and Foster (1999) emphasized that a narrative task which is based on a cartoon strip helps to ease the processing of the task, and eventually leads to more fluent and accurate performance. On the one hand, task complexity is reflected on the procedures applied in the task itself. In rhetorical argumentation, the procedures of processing information are more complicated and learners need more time to generate schema knowledge (ideas) and organize the information rhetorically. They spend more time in planning what to say and how to say it. On the other hand, Skehan and Foster, (2001) suggested a number of task features that can be manipulated during the task to increase or decrease the demands that tasks impose on learners. These have to do with the complexity of the language of the task (e.g. the grammatical and lexical complexity of the language used in these tasks), its cognitive familiarity (e.g. familiarity with the task or the amount and organisation of information in the task) and the communicative events. In such a case, when task demands are high, focus is allocated to either accuracy or complexity but not to both simultaneously.

Robinson (2001) agreed with Skehan and Foster (2001) when it comes to task features (like planning, and topic familiarity) since the increase of complexity through these variables distracts the learners attention from how the message is being produced. The production of speech has mainly four key components: conceptualization, that is, planning what one wants to say, formulation which includes the grammatical, lexical and phonological encoding of the message, and articulation or in other words, the production of speech sounds, and finally self-monitoring, which involves checking whether the produced spoken output is correct and appropriate (Levitt, 1983).

### **2.2.1.1 Speech Conceptualization**

First, conceptualization involves the building of the verbal plan, which contains the conceptual specifications for the message to be conveyed, with the intentions of the speaker before the plan is linguistically encoded. In this component, the preverbal plan might need modification because the speaker might find that the formulated message is not appropriate in terms of its information content or in the given communicative situation. Speaking is an online activity that takes place under time constraints. Consequently, foreign language speakers often need to balance fluency with the complexity and grammatical accuracy of their message (Kormos, 2011; Robinson, 2011). This explains exactly why there are trade off effects between fluency and accuracy when the cognitive demands of a given task are high. If conceptualization requires particular attention on the part of the speaker, fewer resources will be available for lexical, syntactic and phonological encoding.

### **2.2.1.2 Formulation**

In formulation, a phonetic, grammatical and lexical plan is attributed to conform to the first plan, and they are also checked before the articulation takes place. This is also called ‘covert monitoring’ because this plan is used to check internal speech. A speaker can notice an error such as a wrongly selected word before it is actually selected (Postma, 2000; Postma and Kolk, 1992).

### **2.2.1.3 Articulation**

The process of articulation comes after formulation. It is the actual production of speech in which learners apply the grammatical rules, and they also pay attention to fluency (including online-planning or during task planning).



#### **2.2.1.4 Self-monitoring**

This is the last component and through it learners check whether the content produced is correct or not. The generated utterances are scrutinized after articulation, which constitutes the final loop of monitoring. When perceiving an error or incorrectness in the output, the monitor will issue an alarm signal, which, in turn, triggers the production mechanism for a second time (Oomen and Postma, 2002). Unlike native speakers, L2 learners' system of knowledge might be incomplete and their production mechanisms are not automatic, thus some repair mechanisms are not certain about the corrections they make. This results in speech delay i.e. more pauses and hesitations.

As it has been discussed, planning is an important stage during the production of speaking. It is sometimes considered as the transition stage when speakers transform the ideas into verbal utterances, and there are classifications of planning each is used in a different context. Ellis (2005) presented two different classes of planning: pre-task planning and within task planning. The difference between both of them is the timing of planning with respect to task performance, that is, whether planning occurs before or during the task performance.

#### **2.2.2 Pre-Task Planning**

Pre-task planning takes place before task performance (Ellis 2005). Pre-task planning is completely different from pre-task activities like brainstorming, where students have no access to the materials which they use to perform the task. In pre-task planning, however, they can receive the actual material of the task (pictures to describe, a story to tell). There are two types of pre-task planning: rehearsal and strategic planning.

### **2.2.2.1 Rehearsal**

Rehearsal is defined mainly as repetition which means learners perform “the same or altered tasks-whether whole tasks or parts of a task.”(Bygate and Samuda, 2005: 43). The pedagogical purpose of rehearsal is to make a comprehensive representation of the learners’ schematic frames and outlines their use of strategies in order to achieve learning objectives. In a study conducted by Kawauchi (2005), the learners performed a narrative task, responded to a questionnaire and they performed the same task again. After one week, they repeated the task for the third time. The purpose behind this study is to discover the extent to which the task rehearsal affects the performance of the students and the effects of time interval in planning for any task.

On the one hand, when repeated performance improves over the first performance, learning occurs between the two task performances. However, the degree in which the first performance has influenced the repeated performance in terms of learning may depend on the length of the interval. When there is a long interval between the two performances, the improvement that was observed in the repeated performance may suggest that the memory from the first performance remains effective for a long time. On the other hand, if the interval between the first and the second performances is short, the improvement in the second performance may be considered as the outcome of repeating the task. However, it cannot be determined if there is any long-term effect on learning via repeating a task.

### **2.2.2.2 Strategic Planning**

The second type of pre-task planning is strategic planning. In this type of planning, learners receive a period of time prior to task performance during which they designate on the information to deliver and how to convey it meaningfully to carry out the task. Strategic planning, in its general sense, is to dedicate some time to think about language and content of

the task. Although, pre-task planning is used to indicate both rehearsal and strategic planning, many studies use the pre-task term to refer to only strategic planning (Crookes, 1989; Menhert, 1998; Ortega, 1999; Yuan and Ellis, 2003). In most of these studies, the planning time is between one minute and ten minutes maximum. Though, the tasks are highly related to speaking production, and learners are allowed to produce some notes and even summaries of the task content.

### **2.2.3 Online-Planning:**

Online planning is also known as within task planning. It is a type of planning which is done when learners are engaged with the task. Yuan and Ellis (2003:6) proposed a definition for online planning as follows: “On-line planning is the process by which speakers attend carefully to the formulation stage during speech planning and engage in pre-production and post production monitoring of their speech acts.”

The definition provides an insight into the function and type of planning. In the same context, Ellis (2005) divided online planning into “pressured” and “unpressured planning.” The task time determines the amount of time students may dedicate for online planning. If time is restricted, online planning is pressured and the task may become difficult, but when the time is unlimited, or when learners are allowed to spend as much time as they can, this will produce a relief for students who will tend to make production slow and stop at each stage to monitor ideas and language.

Skehan and foster (2005) suggested that it is only an assumption that learners are using on-line planning during speaking. They claim that, there is no way to know whether the learners are planning their utterances on-line. They suggested that unless the teachers opt for online planning they can use decision making tasks, and learners are obliged to alter their decisions and to make sure that they are using planning during speaking.

## 2.4 Task-Based Teaching

When speaking about task based-teaching, we always refer to the number of tasks implemented in the classroom to achieve different communicative purposes, but the question worth asking, here, is what makes task-based teaching different from the other methods of language teaching? There is, in fact a number of reasons which make task-based teaching distinguished.

First, tasks are varied and multi functional. The benefit of tasks is that they cover a wide area in language learning and teaching. In addition, they can be used in different contexts (Nunan, 1989). In the first chapter, a number of teaching methods are discussed in detail to show how they are divided into traditional methods (the grammar translation method, and the direct method), and communicative language teaching. The use of tasks is suitable for both methods, as there are “focused” and “unfocused tasks.” Thus, focused tasks can be used in the traditional methods of teaching to shed light on one aspect of language (specifically grammar rules) and apply them later. Task-based teaching can also be used as a communicative method of teaching to open up the lines of communication between learners, and more importantly to achieve different communicative purposes.

Task based learning involves primary focus on meaning. The task involves learners in a meaningful context rather than displaying it. Learners choose the resources they need to complete the task in the work plan; nevertheless, a task creates a semantic space and requires specific cognitive processes linked to linguistic options. Therefore, the task restricts the learners but enables them to choose any resources they want.

The task engages the learners in real life and genuine use of communication. In fact, a task is found in real life, and even in the classroom it should assimilate real life contexts in terms of meaning and form. The only difference is that, in the classroom learners may present

the four skills or at least they will present two skills depending on the context of the task (Swain and Lapkin 2001). The task has a clearly defined outcome, and the work plan specifies a clear non linguistic outcome for the task.

Modern task-based teaching can be visualized as communicative language teaching (Richards1986). This believe is hold since both of them share a lot of similarities and fewer differences. The type of classroom activities proposed in CLT also implied new roles in the classroom for teachers and learners. Learners now are obliged to participate in all cooperative activities rather than performing in individualistic activities. The teachers' role now is limited to a facilitator and monitor rather than being a model for correct speech.

Communicative Language Teaching opened a new way of teaching which relies on skills-based teaching. In this method of teaching, grammar and accuracy activities are replaced with fluency activities. Grammar activities are determined on the basis of the performance on fluency tasks and not by a predetermined grammatical system. Grammar is included but not emphasized. What is important about CLT activities is that they are carried out in pairs or groups in which they produce a great amount of language output and receive input from the other members. The task is a highly cognitive process. Learners are engaged in: selecting, classifying, ordering, reasoning and evaluating, as they are required to carry out the task, which will influence the strategic outcome, but not necessarily determine the learner's actual choice of language.

## **Conclusion**

Task based teaching is a relatively a comprehensive and pedagogical tool in teaching and learning. It is based on designing specific tasks which meet the needs of the students. The realization of task based teaching is done when teachers evaluate the level of the students and assign more comprehensive materials, set the objectives and determine the intended communicative purposes behind these tasks. The benefit behind communicative tasks is to assimilate real life situations in the classroom context. Pragmatically speaking, this assimilation creates context bound learning which requires specific materials (determined by the teacher of course). The difficulty or easiness of the task is very crucial in communicative language teaching and learning. Difficult tasks require more planning strategies to generate the content for them, while easy tasks require less planning strategies as when the students are familiar with the task or possess sufficient schema knowledge.

## **ChapterFour: Research Tools and Methodology**

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Conclusion

## **Introduction**

This chapter presents the methodological design of the research. Collecting data was based on two research tools: A classroom observation and an experiment. We have chosen for this experiment two groups from the second year classes, they are the experimental group and the control group. The sample is composed of 65 students enrolled in the department of English at the University of Freres Mentouri, Constantine.

In order to collect data on the spoken performance, we prepared a classroom observation for both groups and with the same observatory-sheet to observe classroom interaction, language knowledge and topic knowledge. The observed criteria represent fluency, accuracy and personality traits. Then, in the experiment, the subjects performed two tasks in the form of the pre-test and post-test. The pre-test is varied between two classroom tasks in which the experimental group presented argumentative topics, and the control group narrated stories and described past experiences. In the post-test, we recorded the subjects speaking in the examination and the data was analysed manually to compare the final achievements, examine the performance of the students, and to prove the relationship between rhetorical argumentation with fluency and accuracy. The Pearson's Correlation Coefficient is used to calculate the values ( $r$ ), SD and the level of significance.



## **1. The Pilot Study**

### **1.1 Classroom Observation**

In the pilot study, the teacher-researcher conducted a classroom observation to monitor the learner's behaviours and to obtain a general evaluation of their classroom performances. This classroom observation was done in a period of 5 weeks and this equals 20 sessions, if we consider four sessions each week. The tasks throughout the observation process were the same, and the students together with the teacher researcher discussed a variety of topics.

The topics discussed with both groups were varied in terms of their communicative purposes. The topics discussed with the experimental group were argumentative (debatable), and the topics discussed with the control group were descriptive narrative. The reason is that, the teacher intended to make the topics different; to assign different tasks for the groups; to set the communicative purposes for each group, and to determine precisely the components of speaking, and the effects of the tasks over these components. As a result, we were able to observe appropriately the students' behaviours and their level before the experiment. The teacher prepared in advance a checklist for both the experimental group and the control group. This checklist was the same in every single session. It was divided into three main parts:

- 1- The first part is about Classroom Interaction and it is composed of: participation, seriousness, and motivation.
- 2- The second part represents L K or language knowledge and two important components in our research stand up for language knowledge: accuracy and fluency.

- 3- Part three represents Topic knowledge which includes: rhetorical functions, schema knowledge (ideas), planning and organization.

The fact is that, the teacher relied on different types of topics to compare the results and to see the difference between the achievements in both groups on the basis of the adapted parts in the checklist. We assume we will know their interaction with each other and with the teacher, how much of them use language either accurately or fluently or both, and how many use planning strategies, when it comes to framing the ideas in a form of communicative purposes through the rhetorical functions.

## **1.2 Population**

The population of this research involves second-year LMD students and they are preparing a three-year graduation degree in the department of English at the University of Freres Mentouri, Constantine. There are exactly 14 groups in the second year, and there are approximately 35 students in each group. These students are mixed and most of them are girls. They studied in the department of English for two years, and they took different subjects including: Written Expression, Grammar, and Oral Expression which are considered as compulsory courses to master English as they are given the highest credit among all subjects. The subject Oral Expression is studied twice a week. The two sessions take place in language labs, and students may receive listening comprehension, since there is no specific curriculum for this subject. The teacher is responsible for choosing any type of audio or video materials. He is also free what to teach the students in the second session. Most teachers use this session for two kinds of tasks, either they discuss topics with the students or divide the students into groups, and each session a group of students present a topic to the audience.

### **1.3 Sampling**

As this is the first step before the experiment took place, we have chosen two groups randomly to apply all the experiment on them. Therefore, to make the experiment relevant to the context of teaching from the beginning, we have chosen to teach group 1 and group number 3 for the following reasons:

- 1- These groups study Oral Expression in the same days and the timing suits the teacher
- 2- Group 1 studies one session at 9:30, and the other session at 12:30, while group 3 studies one session at 12:30 and the other session at 14:00. Hence, this timing is considered suitable to avoid or at least lessen unwanted variables in personality traits, specifically, motivation which may affect directly the performance of the students, and their participation in the classroom.
- 3- Since the teacher is only a part-time teacher, the choice of getting the best groups timing is limited to the department regulations.

As a general description of the groups, the majority of the students in both groups are girls. The experimental group consisted of 35 students (there were 29 girls and 6 boys). Whereas, the control group consisted of 30 students and there were only 4 boys in this group. The total number of our sample is 65 students out of 361 students enrolled in the academic year 2012/2013. Consequently, the sample represents approximately 18% of the whole population.

### **1.1 Description of The Classroom Observation**

The present classroom observation has taken place during the academic year 2012/2013 with the sample described previously. We intended to produce a checklist; the same checklist, for each student. It is composed of mainly three parts; the first part covers some personality traits namely: motivation, participation, and seriousness. Consequently, we

aimed to know how much students are motivated in the classroom, and we intended also to know to what extent motivation affects the students' participation and seriousness.

The second part of our classroom observation represents the components fluency and accuracy. Hence, the evaluation of fluency and accuracy in the classroom was a bit difficult, and the indices of fluency were based on speed of delivery, and less pauses plus the amount of speaking in the classroom, and we decided to take the policy of: no speaking equals no fluency. The indices of accuracy are crystal clear, since we dealt with grammatical mistakes, syntax, and pronunciation. This part of the classroom observation is named language knowledge (LK), since it represents the students' knowledge about language rules and language skills.

The last part of the classroom observation is named topic knowledge (TK), and we intended to test the students' application of the language during the discussion of the topics in the classroom, to see how much students manage to transform their ideas rhetorically. The characterization of topic knowledge starts with planning and organization, even if the time advocated for this aspect is very limited, but it is very compulsory to think about the ideas, organize them, and plan what to say next. Then, the characteristics of rhetorical functions depend on the task subjected for each group. In the task rhetorical argumentation for the experimental group, the students are not limited to the rhetorical functions of arguing, judging, and convincing, but they should use a number of other rhetorical functions among which: illustrating, exemplifying, explaining, justifying and clarifying. All these rhetorical functions allow the students to express themselves freely. The last characteristic is schema knowledge which is based on ideas and the extent to which students express them smoothly, and how they can adopt clear relationships between the information they present in the classroom.

## **2. The Main Study**

The main objective of classroom observation is to assess the level of the students in both groups. The assessment, in turn, involves primarily the students' interaction in the classroom, and the effects of this interaction on fluency and accuracy through discussing a number of topics. In the main study, we designed an experiment to fit the needs of our research, and we tried to limit the scope of this research to two main objectives: classroom tasks, fluency and accuracy. Therefore, the experiment, in this study, comprises two parts: in the first part we assigned the students with the task of presenting the topics, in the second part, however, we recorded the students speaking each one alone in the examination.

### **2.1 Description of the Experiment**

#### **2.2 The Pre-test**

Dealing with the same sample, the first part of the experiment took place right after the classroom observation and exactly at the beginning of the second semester. The students in both groups were asked to divide themselves into groups of three or four as a classroom work, choose topics, prepare them at home and present them in front of the other classmates. In fact, the students' choice of topics is limited by type, since the experimental group will discuss topics with an argumentative nature (in a form of a debate) including topics with a cause and effect relation, justifications, and even key facts. Furthermore, the students of the control group were subjected to the task of narrating stories, which includes summary of books and short stories, movies, or funny jokes. Besides, they can also narrate past experiences namely: family events, and personal stories. The target of these tasks is to compare the rhetorical functions employed during the presentation of the topics.

When the students decided upon their topics, and the dates are fixed we designed a scoring rubric for a thorough and a comprehensive evaluation of the tasks presented. The

scoring rubrics determine the extent to which our students' performances are good, bad or average. Therefore, to establish a critical evaluation of the research variables, the variables in this research are named according to their role in speaking, and they are also divided into components (rhetorical functions and indices) and each component is observed alone. The evaluation of all the components follows the same marking scheme: from 0 to 1 weak performances, from 1.5 to 3 average performances, and from 4 to 5 good performances. The difference between each performance is based on the number of mistakes committed or the failure to apply the communicative functions intended in the tasks. Consequently, the variable accuracy is named language knowledge and it is divided into: vocabulary or lexis, grammar, syntax, and this set of components cover language knowledge. The more mistakes committed in grammar, misuse of vocabulary, and wrong sentence formation, the less marks the students obtained according to the marking scheme.

Fluency, in turn, is named topic knowledge, and it is divided into speed of delivery, proceduralization of information processing, and topic familiarity. These components allow the attainment of idea generation thinking about the topic and planning what to say next. Speed of delivery comprises the use of pauses to think about what to say next, but if more pauses are created speech is interrupted, and the smoothness of ideas is wrongly presented during speaking.

The variable rhetorical argumentation (for the experimental group) and narrating stories (for the control group) are used to amend the use of different rhetorical functions on the students' fluency and accuracy in communicative competence. Hence, in addition to arguing and convincing, the experimental group is expected to employ other different rhetorical functions including: illustrating, exemplifying, explaining and defining. These rhetorical functions are considered as rebuttals in the process of argumentation. Besides, we added to the variables rhetorical argumentation and narrating stories another category which

we called ‘presentation properties.’ In these properties, we intend to evaluate the manner of the students’ presentation in the tasks. The evaluation is based on achieving the communicative purposes intended in each task, the suitability of the subject presented with the research intentions, and the ability to avoid reading from the papers and answering the questions. The latter is specifically intended for students of the experimental group to assess their classroom interaction during the presentations.

The evaluation of the variables will lead to discovering the areas of difficulty for students in language proficiency. The difficulties observed during the presentations will be measured and compared to make sure that the final results will make sense when we start the statistical measures which are used as part of the evaluative system. This latter is made to make an accurate correlation between the variables and to validate or invalidate the hypotheses. In addition, in correspondence with the elements discussed in the theoretical part, areas of difficulty will allow a through comprehension of the communicative strategies employed by the students and the effects of the difficulty of the tasks in using appropriate strategies to achieve the tasks. It is noteworthy that we are not required to start the statistical measures in this part of the research; hence, all the measures of the pre-test are based primarily on assigning evaluative marks for the students (according to the scoring rubric), while the percentage of the students is counted in each area of difficulty.

### **2.3The Post-Test**

The post-test is based entirely on the marks obtained by the students in the presentations and recorded data in the examination, since in the pre-test we adopted their performances to realize the major areas of difficulty and to figure out their weaknesses and their strengths.

### 2.3.1 Pearson's Correlation Coefficient

The correlation between the variables X and Y is calculated according to Pearson's correlation coefficient. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (r) is a statistical value that indicates the strength and the direction of the relationship between the variables. It can be as high as (+1) when the relationship is positive, and this implies that if the value of one variable increases, so does the other one and vice versa. When the relationship is negative (r) can have a value as high as (-1), and this means that when one variable increases the other decreases and vice versa. To sum up, the nearer is (r) to (1) the stronger is the relationship between the variables, and the nearer is (r) to (-1) the weaker is the relationship between the variables (Brown, 2003). The calculation of the coefficient creates a number of statistical measures through which we identify the following calculations:

-Means x

-Variance

- Standard Deviation

Hence, the correlation between the variables is calculated on two levels. The first level is X and Y which is used to calculate the relationship between accuracy and argumentation, and the second level is  $X^2$  and  $Y^2$  to calculate the relationship between fluency and argumentation. Before calculating the formula 'r', a number of other calculations are made (see appendixes 9 and 17) including:  $\sum XY$ ,  $\sum X^2$ ,  $\sum Y^2$ ,  $\sum (X-X)^2$  and  $\sum (X-Y)^2$  where  $\sum XY$  and X stands for accuracy marks of the students, and Y stands for fluency scores.

Accordingly, we used the following formula to calculate the coefficient correlation (r). The value of this element is calculated through the following equation:



$$r = \frac{n (\sum xy) - (\sum x) (\sum y)}{\sqrt{[n \sum x^2 - (\sum x)^2][n \sum y^2 - (\sum y)^2]}}$$

While the means of the scores is calculated as follows:

- A group's mean formula is:  $X = \frac{\sum X}{N}$

Where X= mean, X=Scores, N=Number of scores.

The standard deviation is calculated as follows:  $SD = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (X-X)^2}{N}}$

$$r = \frac{n (\sum xy) - (\sum x) (\sum y)}{\sqrt{[n \sum x^2 - (\sum x)^2][n \sum y^2 - (\sum y)^2]}}$$

Standard deviation, then, requires that the mean (X) is subtracted from each score (X-X). Each of the resulting values is squared (X-X)<sup>2</sup>, then, added up (Σ). After this, the sum (Σ) is divided by the number of scores (N=35 for the experimental group, and N=30 for the control group) the result of the square root gives us the standard deviation. The T-ration formula is calculated as follows:

$$T = \frac{X - \bar{X}}{\sqrt{\frac{SDa}{Na} + \frac{SDb}{Nb}}}$$

All the previous calculations are made to validate or invalidate the first hypothesis in this research which is:

If rhetorical argumentation is used as a communicative task in the classroom, then the students' level of fluency and accuracy will raise.

This validation is based on conducting the previously mentioned statistical measures, through the use of a variety of formulas adopted to meet the research needs and to

conform to the correlation of the required elements fluency and accuracy in terms of their components. The components of fluency and accuracy, in this research, are meaningful units which encompass tiny amounts of information used in very specific contexts. Therefore, we relied on the analysis of these components in the pre-test, and in the post-test in different ways, and in different contexts to assimilate language use in communication.

### **2.3.2 Description of the Post-Test**

The post test took place right after the pre-test. We intended to seize the opportunity of the second semester examination to postulate the sample with critical evaluation of their speech production, and engaged the students with dedication to exert as much effort as possible. Therefore, a descent examination was prepared and oriented toward both groups. First, a number of argumentative questions were adopted according to the students' needs for the experimental group as an evaluative task for second semester examination. In addition, a number of narrative topics were chosen for the control group including: narrating a story (imaginative or real), narrating a past experience which affected the students' life, reviewing a book, and summarizing the events of a movie or a novel. The narrative task was also considered as an evaluative examination for the students. The reasons behind choosing the examination context are:

- Maximize students' motivation, self- interest, and seriousness.
- Assign for each group a specific task with a critical evaluation.
- Use topic variation to avoid repetition of information.
- Give each student a substantial amount of time to ensure enough production for testing.

In a nutshell, we have noticed that the examination is the right tool for the job when it comes to testing students' language production as Hughes (1989) stated that the best way to

test students speaking is to get them to speak. In spite of the limitations of the examination (time constraint, task instructions, stress and anxiety), we noticed that the students' performance, motivation and seriousness are more applicable in examinations, since they are not aware that the test is designed for research purposes and not as a classroom work only.

During the examination, the teacher gave some instructions to the students to be followed, and then set his computer to record each student during speaking. We have chosen for this oral examination one of the language labs available in the English department at the University of Frères Mentouri, Constantine. The labs are isolated from the ordinary classes and are less noisy than the classrooms.

Data analysis in the post test is based on two methods: automatic and manual speech analysis. First, in automatic speech analysis, the researcher relied on computer software called Praat. The primary function of this software is to count precisely the amount of speaking time, pitch, and the amount spent on producing pauses. This helped the researcher locate pauses which are helpful for this research (pauses which are longer than 600 milliseconds and less than 4 seconds and a half) i.e. pauses which are considered as real hindrances in speaking, and are used to think about what to say next during speaking.

Second, the researcher counted manually the number of mistakes committed by students in accuracy. The mistakes were not classified by type or category, but they were gathered together including mistakes of grammar, vocabulary, and syntax. The reasons behind gathering all these types of mistakes together is to make it easier to count it with pauses, and to make all the necessary statistic calculations appropriately.

Thirdly, in order to make a correlation between fluency and accuracy, to see the effects and to compare the achievements of the control group, and the achievements of the experimental group during the application of the tasks rhetorical argumentation and narrating

stories. A manual speech analysis was used to provide exact calculations about the number of pauses and inaccuracies committed during speaking, while the automatic speech analysis determines the exact amount spent in speaking. The manual and automatic data analysis platform will help the statistical calculations of the following formulas:

$$r = \frac{n(\sum xy) - (\sum x)(\sum y)}{\sqrt{[n\sum x^2 - (\sum x)^2][n\sum y^2 - (\sum y)^2]}}$$

$$SD = \sqrt{\frac{\sum(X-X)^2}{N}}$$

$$T = \frac{X-X}{\sqrt{\frac{SDa}{Na} + \frac{SDb}{Nb}}}$$

The formulas are used to calculate the Pearson's correlation coefficient 'r': the standard deviation SD and the t-test. A number of other statistical measures are required to be made. First, the degree of freedom of the two groups was counted by subtracting 2 out of the total number of students  $df = 65 - 2 = 63$ . Hence, this calculation is made to get the Alpha level which was calculated via the following formula:

$$A = \frac{df - 2}{100}$$

The alpha level formula was used to either accept or reject the second hypothesis: "if rhetorical argumentation is used as a communicative task in the classroom, then the students' level of fluency and accuracy will improve." The alpha level is the result of statistical calculations to scheme coherently the relation between the dependent and independent variables of this research.

Eventually, we will deal with the comparative results of the students' achievements throughout the making of this research, and try to compare every single component of

speaking. The starting point in the discussion of comparative achievements is the comparison of the rhetorical functions used in the tasks to achieve the desirable communicative purposes of each task. In addition, planning time is also very important during the generation and processing of information which may create more pauses and more mistakes if the task is not well-planned (Skehan 2001). The difficulty of the task is also another factor which may influence the performance of the students in one way or another.

On the other hand, in reference to the tasks employed in the classroom, we ought to compare a trait of communicative strategies which were adopted during speech production to maintain the flow and smoothness of both language and ideas. These communicative strategies are related directly to fluency and accuracy,

## **Conclusion**

In this chapter, we tried to explain, in detail, the methodology and research tools implemented in the field work. The latter was based mainly on two methods which are: the pilot study and the experiment. The pilot study is a classroom observation of the students' performances which covers three areas: classroom interaction, language knowledge and topic knowledge. The purposive end of these areas is to connect fluency and accuracy with personality traits like anxiety and motivation. Eventually, The experiment treats data of the pre-test and post-test with statistical measures, and make a link between the variables fluency and accuracy with the tasks rhetorical argumentation and narrating stories. All the required statistical measures of the experiment are explained thoroughly in this chapter, and these explanations make a clear cut distinction of how data is calculated in each part of the experiment.

**Chapter Five: A Qualitative Investigation of Students' Achievements in the Classroom on The Basis of Three Aspects: Classroom Interaction, Language knowledge and Topic knowledge.**

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Conclusion

## **Introduction**

This classroom observation was conducted on the basis of the learners' classroom interaction, language knowledge and topic knowledge. We intend to shed some light on these aspects to recognize the weaknesses and strengths of the students in both groups, and to investigate the speaking skill as it is demonstrated in real life situations, since researchers like Sparks and Hirsh (1997) regarded classroom observation as a link between learning and real life situations. Consequently, the analysis of this classroom observation comprises the realization of data underlying the previously mentioned aspects of language.

### **1. Analysis and Interpretation of Results**

#### **1.1 Analysis and Interpretation of the Control Group Results**

As it has been mentioned in the research tools chapter, the topics discussed by the control group were narrative and descriptive in nature. Every session, we brought about a new topic; so, to ensure topic variation and to observe closely the performance of the students in terms of language knowledge and topic knowledge. Therefore, we opted for the following topics for the control group:

- 1- Narrating a story
- 2- Reviewing a book or a short story
- 3- Summarizing a movie (events, and characters)
- 4- Describing a relative.
- 5- Describing a room, a house, or a university.
- 6- Describing a country or a town.
- 7- Recalling where students experienced a bad event like a failure, or a road accident.
- 8- Singing songs or reciting poems.



9- Explaining the meaning of idioms and phrasal verbs.

10- Narrating stories with a wisdom or which teach a lesson.

The results of classroom interaction for the ten observed sessions are summarized in the following table:

<b>Session N</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>Criterion</b>										
Participating	14	13	15	13	12	13	15	13	14	17
Not participating	15	16	14	16	13	16	15	17	16	13
Motivated	18	17	13	11	12	10	14	8	14	17
Not Motivated	11	13	16	19	17	20	16	22	16	13
Serious	17	13	13	10	13	15	12	11	12	13
Not serious	10	16	16	19	16	15	13	19	16	15
Accurate	13	12	10	11	13	12	13	12	10	12
Inaccurate	22	18	20	19	17	15	16	14	15	16
Fluent	10	9	11	10	12	11	13	12	11	11
Not Fluent	19	21	18	19	18	14	16	15	17	16

**Table 2: Rates of CI and LK of the control Group**

The above tabulated results represent the proportions of the observed students while engaged in achieving the task of narrating stories and recalling past experiences as communicative purposes. Henceforth, classroom interaction is divided into participation, motivation, and seriousness, while the aspect language knowledge is divided, here, into fluency and accuracy. In participation, the observed performances of the students show remarkable variance between the sessions. At the beginning, students of the control group

have shown strong interest in the topics introduced to them, and the rate of participation is average rated, when 16 students (52.2%) kept participating throughout the whole session in the task. Concerning motivation, students were highly motivated in the first and second sessions (62% in the first session, and 60% in the second session) since they reacted positively to the task.

When we shifted to the communicative purpose of describing people and places, the rates of participation, motivation and even seriousness become lower, and students are less interested in narrating stories or describing past experiences. In session number 5, for example, only 12 students (41.3% in total) participated in this session, and this is the lowest rate of participation among all sessions. Besides, the same students are the only ones who are motivated and serious among a total of 30 students in the control group. Almost the same rates are observed in session's number 4 and 6, and in both sessions only 13 students were participating throughout the sessions, while only 10 students (34.4% in total) were motivated and willing to work. In session 4, only 11 students (37.9%) were motivated and were interested in the topic introduced, while the other students (19 students in total) did not show any interest or motivation. The intriguing shift in the type of topics affected the performance of the students respectively. They are not interested in describing people and places, despite being easy to handle.

When we speak about language knowledge, students show a lot of weaknesses in terms of accuracy and fluency. In accuracy, for example, 75.8% of the students speak without accuracy at all levels, i.e. pronunciation, grammar, and syntax. Only 24.2% of the students speak English correctly. The majority of the students in the control group are not fluent in speaking, when only 34.4% in total are fluent speakers of English, against 65.5% of them are not fluent. This is apparently due to lack of practice and exposure to the foreign language, as they produced many pauses due to lack of planning before the session. Consequently,

students exerted a lot of efforts when they spoke, but they produced a lot of pauses and hesitations which interrupted the flow of ideas and language at the same time. The number of the students who produced less pauses and hesitations is enclosed between 9 and 13 students. This depends mainly on the type of knowledge processed and the difficulty of the topic as low proficiency students have less knowledge about language and its resources.

The rates of fluency and accuracy remain almost the same each single session. The rates of students who speak English accurately are enclosed in between 9 students (i.e. 31% in total), and 13 students (i.e. 44.8% in total). They face a number of difficulties among which: pronunciation, syntax and specifically grammar. This is clearly shown in the rate of those who do not speak accurately and they are 20 students (i.e. 74.4% in total). The difficulty lies also in fluency as 37.1% of the students speak fluently, against 62.8% of them do not speak fluently.

The general observation of classroom interaction resulted in a number of intriguing comments about the behaviour of the control group in the classroom. First, the type of the topic discussed with the students in the classroom vehicles the learners' participation and motivation, and raises awareness to generate more ideas about the topic in the classroom. The question of motivation and seriousness is not always bound to easiness or difficulty. If students experience something new and difficult at the same time, they take risks and participate in the classroom even if this participation is made at the expense of their grammatical mistakes. Second, the students' first obstacle in participation is the teacher and not making mistakes as it was expected. They always have a negative tendency towards the evaluative feedback judgments given to them, specifically when the teacher over emphasizes on spotting the mistakes and correcting them. These evaluative feedback judgments create hindrances for the students in speaking, in particular, and the classroom interaction, in general.

Third, the observed aspects accuracy and fluency, as table 2 demonstrates, are problematic for the majority of the classroom. The lack of language knowledge creates a problem in accuracy and this creates, in turn, a problem in topic knowledge or ideas.

The results of the observed criterion language knowledge are demonstrated in the following table:

<b>Session N</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>Topic Knowledge</b>										
Narration	22	23	25	11	5	7	6	5	15	24
Description	13	16	11	24	27	26	28	5	3	12
Explanation	12	10	11	20	19	18	14	12	25	15
Clarification	6	3	6	19	15	9	5	9	16	7
Argumentation	2	3	0	0	1	1	0	0	2	5
Justification	2	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	0
Exemplification	6	5	4	9	8	7	5	13	13	10

**Table 3: Topic Knowledge Rates of the Control Group**

The observed rhetorical functions above represent the communicative strategies amended in the classroom as part of the set of communicative purposes to transform them into coherent and elusive messages. A total of 7 rhetorical functions were used by the students namely: description, narration, explanation, clarification, argumentation, justification, and exemplification. Other rhetorical functions were omitted due to lack of use, or they were embedded as a communicative approach since they are similar to the previous rhetorical functions.

Description and narration complete one another in the communicative process. The reason is that, whenever a student is narrating a story, a description of a place, a person or an object ought to be made mainly to extend the process of speaking and to make the listeners more comfortable with the story. The results of table 4 show a clear cut correlation between narration and description. In session 2, for example, the session's aim was to summarize a short story or review a book. The task of reviewing a book is more difficult, and only 4 students opted for this task. The other 26 students opted for summarizing a short story. The rate of the use of narration as a rhetorical function is 23 students (i.e.79% in total), meanwhile in the same session, the rhetorical function of description was used by 16 students (i.e.55.1% in total). The correlation is not only noticed in this session. In session one, 13 students used the rhetorical function of description, and in session three 11 students used it in narrating stories.

During the sessions when the students focus was to achieve the rhetorical function of narrating stories, they did not entail as much explanations as it was expected. The rates of explanation were a bit low as they were 34.4% in total in session 2, and 37.9% in total in session 3. Furthermore, the rhetorical function of clarification was also neglected, since it is substituted by explaining and giving examples.

Apparently, the rhetorical function of narration is not needed in description. The rates of narration are very low in sessions 5, 6, 7 and 8, and the rates are 17%, 24%, 20%, 17% respectively. The rhetorical function of narration was realized as part of the chronological set of descriptions when students mention what they did in that place, or how often they visited it and remember some nice reminiscences related to that place. In addition, the rate of exemplification is low in most of the sessions, except for session 9 were 40 % in total used examples when they recall past experiences.

The use of the rhetorical function of argumentation in the control group is done more in narration and recalling past experiences. Exceptionally, the rate of rhetorical argumentation is fostered in the last session when students dealt with ‘narrating a story with a wisdom or which teaches a lesson.’ Some students were noticed to argue about the real events of the stories narrated, specifically stories with an Arabic cultural origin. Henceforth, the rate of argumentation in the last session is 17.2%, and in the first and second sessions the rates are 10.3 %, and 5.7% respectively. Due to the nature and the type of communicative purposes of the other sessions, rhetorical argumentation is completely absent in them.

The observations made previously rely critically on the organizational patterns of speaking, as they are used in EFL Classrooms. In narration, for example, the starting point of a discussion is a summary. It is also called “a plot summary” and the purpose of which is to give a general idea of the content to introduce the themes and main characters of the story. Afterwards, the story is narrated according to the development of the events until they reach the end of the story. It is also important to give explanations and examples whenever new words or expressions are used in the story.

Describing people and places contained more elaborate organizational patterns, as it is a diverse task and is based on the mental capacities of the students. Describing people is easier than describing places. It focuses on two characteristics: physical appearance, behavioural analysis, or a combination of them both. While the organizational patterns of describing places is based on three levels: 1) describing places according to importance 2) describing places chronologically 3) spatial order description. Explanations are a compulsory action to clarify directions and names of places like buildings. The analysis of the organizational patterns of the rhetorical functions is accompanied by the analysis of schema knowledge (ideas) to compare the effects made by these organisational patterns on language

knowledge and topic knowledge. The following table demonstrates the results of schema knowledge:

<b>Session N</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>Schema Knowledge</b>										
Planning	5	4	6	4	9	6	8	5	6	7
Poor ideas	12	11	11	10	11	13	6	9	8	12
Fair ideas	10	10	9	11	9	12	10	10	12	9
Good ideas	7	8	9	8	10	4	14	10	9	8

**Table 4: Schema Knowledge of the Control Group**

Schema knowledge is part of the analysis of topic knowledge in which we examined the quality of the ideas expressed, message transformation, message delivery with planning and organization of the ideas as well. In fact, planning is divided into pre-time planning (planning before speaking) and in-time planning (during speaking). Despite being very small, this amount of time is very crucial, and it helps mainly to generate the content and prepare it before speaking to plan for what to say next. The organization is based on the patterns of rhetorical functions (discussed previously) to make the material logically organized. According to these criteria, the assessment of the ideas is based on how much the procedures of narrating stories obtain a credible level of mutual understanding between the speaker and the listener. In addition, language knowledge does not provoke any hindrances which prevent the flow of ideas and language.

Schema knowledge is practically a combination of background knowledge and topic familiarity in terms of ideas and language. As a matter of fact, planning what to say next is neglected both before speaking and during speaking. The results in table number 4 show that the maximum rate of planning time is 31% in the fifth session. This means that the students rush for the process of speaking, without preparing for what to say next, or at least prepare a plan for the main ideas. The same pace of planning is observed in the other sessions, and these rates are in between 9.3% and 25.5%. This, perhaps, explains that the aspect of planning what to say next is a habitual activity, and almost the same students used it to before and during speaking.

The production of ideas is elaborate, as it requires precision and knowledge manifestation. The issue of generating ideas is also problematic, if the topic is unfamiliar, while topic familiarity creates an automatic idea generation. The observation of the task narrating stories marks a distinguishing rate of idea generation in session number 7, with the topic recalling past experience as they narrated the following stories: 'a road accident', 'a failure' or 'a robbery attempt.' The rate of the students who used good ideas during this session is 48.2% in total, as against 36.4% of those who were classified for using fair ideas, and 21% of in total used meaningless ideas and this is the highest rate among all other sessions. The reason behind these meaningless ideas is that they possess poor English, and this acted as a hindrance of message transformation as the quality of language knowledge affected negatively topic knowledge.

Generally speaking, we observed that the topics of describing a person or a place and narrating a story have the same effects on idea generation. In sessions 2, 3 and 5, the same eleven students have poor ideas, and the act of generating was difficult for them in both topics. Again, in the aspect fair ideas 34.4% in total generated modest ideas in session1, 2, 7



and 8. The rates of good ideas vary from session to another, but generally they are considered as poor rates since the minimum is 24.7% and the maximum is only 34.4%.

## **2.2 Analysis and Interpretation of the Experimental Group Results**

The task of the experimental group is more realistic and requires a lot of efforts to accomplish communication strategies and communicative purposes. The task of rhetorical argumentation is based on achieving the communicative purpose of “arguing” through the rhetorical functions: convincing, justifying, explaining and exemplifying. The topics we discussed with the experimental group are as follows:

- 1- What leads to success?
- 2- Do you think that polygamy is a right, a social phenomenon, a solution, or a problem?
- 3- Modernity vs. Development.
- 4- Life is great when we are busy doing projects.
- 5- Studying at university is a waste of time.
- 6- The effects of internet.
- 7- Illuminate and the new world order.
- 8- Social networking.
- 9- Violence against women.
- 10- Academic honesty.

The topics we suggested for the experimental group were carefully chosen to meet the needs of the task, to test the experimental group’s level of proficiency, and to compare between the achievements of the students in both groups. The first two topics are in a form of questions, while topics 4 and 5 are open statements directed for debatable discussions, to

open up the lines of communication between students. The rest of the topics are titles which need explanations, examples and value judgments.

The analysis starts with determining the effects of this task on classroom interaction (participation, motivation and seriousness) of the students, together with the effects over language knowledge (accuracy and fluency). The following table summarizes the effects of the task rhetorical argumentation on language knowledge:

<b>Session N</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>Criterion</b>										
Participating	17	24	19	16	20	16	17	16	16	15
Not participating	17	11	18	18	15	19	18	19	19	20
Motivated	20	22	15	17	14	17	14	15	14	16
Not Motivated	15	13	20	18	21	18	21	20	21	19
Serious	15	19	15	15	15	12	12	9	16	15
Not serious	14	16	14	17	18	19	13	23	17	19
Accurate	14	14	12	11	13	14	13	10	14	12
Inaccurate	21	21	23	24	22	21	22	25	21	23
Fluent	12	14	13	10	12	14	14	13	10	12
Not Fluent	23	21	22	25	23	21	21	22	25	22

**Table 5: Rates of CI and LK of the Experimental Group**

As we have seen, the control's group classroom interaction is not convincing, the task of narrating stories and describing people and places do not grab the students' attention which of course resulted in less motivation and, consequently, less participation. A comparison is made between the results of using the task rhetorical argumentation with the experimental

group's classroom interaction and language knowledge. The results indicate some differences in the rates of participation between the sessions. Evidently, the beginning of the classroom observation is described as task recognition and the rate of participation was either low or medium as only 48% of the students participated in this session, and among these students 28.4% were motivated since they were eager to share their view each time a new idea is discussed about the topic. Surprisingly, the rate of participation was raised in the second session to 75% of the students, and even the level of motivation was raised to 65% in total. The second topic was a thorny issue which created a flood of ideas, painstakingly boys hold some ideas while girls hold some different ideas and each group tried to convince the other about the acceptance and credibility of their ideas. The rate of participation did not retain the same pace in the other sessions, but still it is high in comparison it to the control groups' level of participation. For example, in session 5 the rate of participation reached 57.1%, and in sessions 3, the rate was 54.3% of the students. Afterwards, the rates kept falling till the last session we ended up with 40.78% in total participating.

As we have seen, motivation and participation go hand in hand. The more motivated the students are in the classroom, the more the level of participation raises. As with participation, the rates were slightly higher in both motivation and seriousness. In motivation, the rate was 60.82% of the students in the second session, and 56.1 in the first session. These rates are the highest among all rates of the experimental group. Furthermore, the rate is average in sessions 4 and 6, which is 48% and it is the same rate in both sessions. The lowest rate was recorded in sessions 7 and 9 as there were only 14 students motivated. In these sessions, students claimed that the topics are not very interesting and they suggested discussing other topics.

The rates of seriousness vary between the sessions. The highest rates are in sessions 2 and 9, and the rates are 54.1% and 45.7% respectively. The rate is the same in sessions 3, 4

and 5, as though 15 students were serious throughout the three sessions. The lowest rate was scored in session 9, thus students were not serious at all and the rate was 25% in total.

The high rates in participation and motivation show that the task rhetorical argumentation provoked the students to share their ideas and knowledge. The rates of fluency and accuracy are almost the same with those achieved by the control group, and they are considered as weak in comparison with the totality of students who do not speak English fluently and accurately. In accuracy, the highest rate scored was 40% in total, and this rate is scored in 4 sessions which are session 1, 2, 6 and 9. Further, in sessions 7 and 5 the rate was 37.1% of the students, and in sessions 3 and 10 the rate was 34.1% of the students. The lowest rate, 28.7% in total, was recorded in session 8.

The same unconvincing rates are obtained in fluency. The highest rate 40% was obtained in sessions 6, 7 and 8 and recorded high rates in fluency. Of the total students 36.33% of the students spoke fluently despite the high rates of participation in sessions 3 and 8. In contrast, 71% of the students did not speak English fluently in sessions 4 and 9. This rate equals to 25 students, and it was the highest rate recorded in the experimental group.

As part of the observational characteristics of the task, the performances of the control group are similar to the performances of the experimental group. As a matter of fact, the difficulty of the task rhetorical argumentation did not prevent the students from sharing their ideas and participating as much as possible. Fortunately, students are rather in favor of competition over the aspects motivation and participation in classroom interaction, as they tried to better their rates every session. However, the difficulty of the task “rhetorical argumentation” affected the rates of fluency and accuracy, and the real difficulty comprised both time processing and the procedural steps of the communicative purposes. Though the students managed to argue and judge, still the rhetorical functions of “explaining” and

“exemplifying” are not as effectively used as they are needed. The following table shows the rates of the rhetorical functions employed by the students:

<b>Session N</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>Topic Knowledge</b>										
Narration	4	3	00	00	6	1	1	4	3	00
Description	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0
Explanation	9	13	10	12	14	11	9	11	13	10
Clarification	6	12	7	8	5	6	5	9	3	6
Argumentation	22	28	22	20	19	21	24	23	19	20
Justification	10	20	13	12	14	11	15	12	14	13
Exemplification	13	15	12	9	13	9	13	14	6	9

**Table 6: Topic Knowledge Rates of the Experimental Group.**

The task of rhetorical argumentation is a complex activity which comprises a number of rhetorical functions: like arguing, explaining and exemplifying. Thus, the task of rhetorical argumentation is procedural. It takes time and it deserves practice. Of course, the same rhetorical functions are observed in the experimental group. The students did not use any other type of rhetorical functions, while the focus of the students shifted to accomplish the task with the appropriate communicative strategies. Hence, the rhetorical function of description was almost absent in the task, except in session 5 when 6 students used it. In the discussion of the topic ‘studying at university is a waste of time’, these students used narration and description, to narrate some stories they experienced in their everyday academic life, and they described some places at university and in the campus as part of the whole communicative events. In sessions 1 and 8, 11% of the total number embedded

narration with their explanations as against 3 students only, in sessions 2 and 9, who adopted small stories as part of the task.

The rhetorical analysis of the experimental group is based on five essential rhetorical functions: argumentation, justification, explanation, clarification, and exemplification. In our research, “argumentation” and “justification” are not the same. “Argumentation” is based on convincing and persuasion, i.e. sharing the ideas with the other students, and “justification” is based on commenting on the others’ arguments to give counter arguments used to defend a standpoint or an idea. Further, the difference between explanation and clarification is based on the nature of the explanation and its use. Explanations accompany facts and ideas, while clarifications accompany awkward and broad ideas. “Exemplification” is based on providing a range of ideas in different contexts.

The most commonly used rhetorical function is argumentation. Though, there is a divergence in the rates between the sessions, all the high rates of the rhetorical function of argumentation are related directly to discussions. In session 2, for example, 80.1% of the students used argumentation which includes both convincing and arguing. The rates of argumentation are also high, in sessions 7 and 8, and the rates equals 65.8% and 68.4% respectively. The lowest rate was scored in session 5 with 54.3% of the students. The rates of justification are in between 10 and 20. Hence, the highest rate is 57.1% of the students and it was scored in session 2, while the lowest rate is 28.8% of the students and it was scored in the first session.

Students did not manage to use the required amount of examples in the task rhetorical argumentation. The rates of exemplification are not convincing at all. In session 9, for example, only 17.14% of the students used examples which were the same in sessions 4, and 10 the number of students is per each session. The rates are not convincing in the other

sessions as well and the rates did not reach the average in all the sessions. The highest rate was recorded in session 2 and the rate equals 42% of the students, and it was characterized by the use of too many examples.

Eventually, the realizations of the procedures of rhetorical argumentation cut down the process of speaking into message generating and knowledge transforming. Planning has a great deal among the students to establish self confidence before speaking (in addition to generating ideas and organizing them). Knowledge transforming is based on schema knowledge (ideas) and rhetorical functions. The results of the experimental group show a great deal of divergence between the rates obtained in rhetorical argumentation and the rates obtained in schema knowledge. In rhetorical argumentation, good ideas are measured with how much explanations and examples are provided to make them as clear as possible. The results of schema knowledge are demonstrated in the following table:

<b>Session N</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>Schema Knowledge</b>										
Planning	8	13	9	8	12	10	13	9	9	10
Poor ideas	12	10	8	13	11	14	9	13	13	11
Fair ideas	12	11	14	12	15	14	15	13	15	14
good ideas	11	14	13	13	9	6	11	9	7	10

**Table 7: Schema Knowledge of the Experimental Group**

As the tabulated results show, there is a divergence in the rates of schema knowledge and planning strategies. Planning is the least important speaking strategy for students, and we noticed that during the classroom observation, most of the students rush for the process of speaking and neglect the strategy of planning what to say next. This led to producing a

jumble of sentences which were meaningless and not connected to each other. The highest rate in planning is 37.4% of the students, and this rate is low if we compare it with the rate of students who neglected planning which is 63.6% of the students. The lowest rate of planning was recorded in sessions 1 and 4 where only 22% of the total number of the students used planning among all other students. The rates of planning vary from session to session (see table 7).

In the same table, we noticed also that the highest rates recorded by the students in the experimental group are fair (i.e. not very good and not bad as well). The reason for this classification is opted for in relation to the quality and type of examples provided by the students to express the ideas. Hence, the rate of fair ideas is between 22.8% (minimum) and 42.8% (maximum). Exceptionally, the highest rate 42.8% was recorded in three different sessions and they are: 5, 7 and 9 consecutively. Also, 40% of the students recorded fair ideas in sessions 3, 6 and 10; equally, 34% of the students used also fair ideas in sessions 1 and 4. The lowest rate of using fair ideas was scored by 31% of the students, and this rate is higher than the rate obtained by the students of the control group.

In general, the ideas expressed by the experimental group are acceptable in comparison with those employed by the control group, and this is evident since the rates of 'poor ideas' are less than 'fair ideas' mostly in all sessions except in session 4 (Poor ideas 37.1% against fair ideas 34.2%). The most common problem of the students is schema knowledge as they fail to present good ideas in the classroom, and this problem was observed very clearly and it raised the rate to 40% of the students' total usage of ideas; moving towards the lowest rate with 25% of the students. The rate of session 4, 8 and 9 is 37.1% and this rate is the second highest rate, followed by the rate of sessions 5 and 10 with 31% of the total students. The rates of good ideas are low in most sessions with 17.1% (minimum) in session 6 and 40% (maximum) in session 2. The reason behind employing good ideas depends



mainly on the task type and whether it attracts their attention. The rate was high when they discussed polygamy, and the highest rate of planning was also recorded in this session with 37.1% (together with session 7). This is the only session in which the rates of planning and producing good ideas correlate with each other. Besides, there is also an average correlation between the rates of planning and good ideas in session 7, and the correlation is weak in all other sessions.

### **2.2.1 Discussion of the Results**

The overall primary results of the classroom observation have shown that the task of rhetorical argumentation is more provocative, and this is clearly evident when we compare the rates obtained by the students of the experimental group in participation and motivation, to those which were obtained by the control group. In addition, the task of rhetorical argumentation was more interesting to the students; consequently, they took risks and participated without paying attention to vocabulary, grammar, fluency and accuracy. However, in the task of narrating stories, the characteristics of the task were not interesting (except for remembering past experiences), and students found the task of narrating stories easier than remembering past experiences.

As a general comparison, the task of narrating stories is achieved within the framework of the rhetorical functions of narration and description. This limited framework of the rhetorical functions enables the students to achieve the intended communicative purposes of the task. The students of the control group used the rhetorical function of explaining (the rates are indicated in table 3) to clarify the meaning of new expressions, words, and sentences. Despite the fact that they can include too much examples in narrating stories, but they provided few examples in describing people and places. Finally, the low rates of rhetorical

argumentation indicated in table 3 show little use of argumentation except for few disputes over the real events of common shared stories.

On the contrary, the task of rhetorical argumentation ‘as described’ was difficult to handle. It contains a number of communicative purposes, and it is based on explanations and examples to support the main ideas. Unfortunately, the students did not employ as much examples as required while the rates of the rhetorical function of explaining are convincing.

The lack of the examples created low rates in terms of topic knowledge. The criterion topic knowledge was observed through the quality and organization of the ideas expressed. The rates of schema knowledge are acceptable for the control group, but they are not for the experimental group. The difficulty of the task rhetorical argumentation and the lack of ideas planning shuttered the focus of the students between producing the ideas, explaining them, and giving opposing arguments on the one hand, and speaking English fluently and accurately on the other hand. Henceforth, they used few examples and illustrations to help in the realization of different meanings in different contexts.

The classroom observation shows also weak performances in fluency and accuracy. Precisely speaking, the observed results show variance in the performances of both groups between the tasks of narration and rhetorical argumentation. The Performance of the experimental group in accuracy is slightly better than the performance of the control group. But in fluency, the performance of the control group is slightly better than the performance of the experimental group. The difficulty of the task created tremendous obstacles, and the use of planning contributed in creating pauses and hesitations for the students was neglected in both forms(i.e. both before and in time planning). The task of rhetorical argumentation is procedural in nature, and it requires organization during the transformation of information. This latter is based on three rhetorical functions: “stating” or “identifying” the point of view

(arguing), explaining the point of views and exemplifying or illustrating. Forgetting or neglecting one of these rhetorical strategies will jeopardize the real meaning of the message, and consequently results in distortion of the meaning.

The analysis of this classroom observation was specific and the rates of each single session are demonstrated separately from the others. Therefore, the next level of analysis is a combination of the measures of all the sessions which help determine the means, the medium and the divergence of the rates from the medium.

### 2.3 General Observations about the Control Group and the Experimental Group

In the same line of thought, we are going to analyze the observed data thoroughly in three criteria: classroom interaction, language knowledge and topic knowledge.

#### 2.3.1 Classroom Interaction

The classroom interaction within students revealed the results of the interaction with tasks and the topics discussed in both groups. The scope within classroom interaction is limited to participation, seriousness and motivation.

	Control Group			Experimental Group		
Category	Medium %	Mean %	Divergences %	Medium %	Mean %	Divergences %
Participation	50	47.3	-2.7	50	48.6	-1.4
Seriousness	50	46.5	-3.5	50	42.8	-7.2
Motivation	50	45.7	-4.3	50	47.1	-2.9

**Table 8: General Observations of Classroom Interaction.**

In this research, a comparison between the overall rates of classroom interaction for both the control group and the experimental group is required. The results were unexpected, for the control group, the table shows that the students have actually participated despite the continuum divergence between the rates in each session, and the percentage of their participation reached 47.3% with a divergence of -2.7% from the medium. The rates of seriousness and motivation are lower than participation. The percentage of seriousness is 46.5% with a divergence of -3.5 from the medium, and the percentage of motivation is 45.7% with a divergence of -4.3 from the medium.

The experimental group performed better in terms of participation and motivation but not in terms seriousness. The percentage of participation reached 48.6% with a lower divergence from the medium -1.4 while the percentage of motivation is 47.1% with a divergence of -2.9% from the medium, against only 42.8% for seriousness and a divergence of -7.2 from the medium. We can say that, despite their participation and motivation specifically for the experimental group, classroom interaction is characterized by lack of seriousness due to a number of reasons including:

- 1- The use of irrelevant ideas.
- 2- Less participation for some students
- 3- Lack of ideas and language incompetence.
- 4- Refrain from participation because of the teacher's corrective feedback
- 5- Expecting answers from the teacher.
- 6- Lack of collaboration between students.

### 2.3.2 Language knowledge

In the class, the performances in language knowledge were focused on observing the indices of fluency and accuracy. The results of the observed indices are shown in the following table:

Language Knowledge	Control Group			Experimental Group		
	Medium %	Mean %	Divergences %	Medium %	Mean %	Divergences %
Accuracy	50	28.8	-21.2	50	25.5	-24.5
Fluency	50	34.4	-15.6	50	35.6	-14.4

**Table 9: General Observations of Language Knowledge**

Table 9 shows the divergences and the percentage for the observed component language knowledge. The teacher noticed that there is practically no direct contribution of the rates obtained in classroom interaction over the aspects of language knowledge. The rates obtained in language knowledge are tied to performance no matter how serious and motivated the students were. The percentage of accuracy is 28.8% and this is frequently a low rate, with a high divergence of -21.2%. The percentage of fluency is 34.4% and it is higher than accuracy, with a divergence of -15.6% from the medium.

The experimental group obtained lower rates in both fluency and accuracy, and, therefore, high divergences. The rate of accuracy reached 25.5% with a divergence of -24.5%. Concerning the mean of fluency, it reached 35.6% from the medium with a divergence of -14.4%. The rates show how problematic fluency and accuracy are for the students. As a result, their speaking is characterized by a lot of interruptions and pauses with many grammatical mistakes. We believe that this is the result of lack of knowledge, and the

absence of planning and organization. When we speak about accuracy, the students tend to commit mistakes at the lexical, grammatical and the phonological level. They over emphasize the use of small talk such as short questions or unfinished sentences, and there are always interventions of other students to intrude the discussion and add comments and ideas.

### **2.3.2.1 The Role of the Teacher**

Generally speaking, the teacher does not interfere in the discussion, or in other words he does not give too much corrective feedback in order not to interrupt the students and to keep the discussion flowing. Moreover, the teacher's guidance is focused around the strategies and techniques implemented in communication. The primary concern of these strategies is to solve communication difficulties and to prevent communication breakdowns. The teacher considered communication strategies as potential plans for solving what students present as a problem when they try to reach particular communicative goals or employ different rhetorical functions.

### **2.3.2.2 The Role of the Students**

When the session starts, students accomplish different strategies in different contexts. In the control group, the linguistic approach strategy is appropriate to realize communication. The linguistic approach comprises sub-strategies like physical and location description (people and places) illustrations, explanations, comparison and contrast. The experimental group adapted functional and achievement strategies. Some conceptual approaches like description and exemplification were employed in both groups (see tables 5 and 6 for exact rates). The teacher extracted these techniques from the problem solving mechanisms of Dornyei and Kormos (1998). The mechanisms can be generalized to enhance the quality of speaking production in different contexts and they are namely: "resource

deficit”, “processing time pressure”, “own performance” and “other performances.” The following table summarizes the mechanisms:

<b>Resource deficit</b>	<b>Processing time pressure</b>	<b>Own performance</b>	<b>Other performances</b>
Lexical	Pauses	Self correction	Meaning negotiation
Message abandonment	Non lexicalized pauses	Self repair	Asking for repetition
Message reduction	Unfilled pauses	Asking check questions	Asking for clarification
Message replacement	Fillers	Comprehension checks	Expressing non understanding
Code switching	Repetitions	Own accuracy	Asking for confirmation
Approximation	Hesitations		Guessing
Use of all purpose words.			Achieving communicative goals.
Restructuring			
Direct and indirect appeal for help			

**Table 10: Communication Strategies in the classroom (Adopted from Dornyei and Kormos 1998:17)**

The table clearly summarizes the mechanisms of speaking in the classroom. Resource deficit and processing time pressure are part of the aspect referred to previously as “language knowledge”: or fluency and accuracy. The mechanism of resource deficit stands for speaking accurately; however, processing time pressure reflects perfectly fluency through the highlighted aspects shown in table 10. Some strategies belong to the avoidance category like message abandonment, message reduction and message replacement. The other mechanisms are performances, and they represent topic knowledge with all its characterized manners specifically the category referred to in table 10 as ‘other performances.’ It is a prominent feature for some rhetorical functions like expressing, clarification and negotiation of meaning.

### 2.3.3 Topic knowledge

#### 2.3.3.1 Rhetorical Functions

In the aspect topic knowledge, the following table demonstrates the results observed in all the sessions of the aspect rhetorical functions. They are not divided according to each task to demonstrate the rates achieved in all the rhetorical functions.

Rhetorical Functions	Control Group			Experimental Group		
	Medium %	Mean %	Divergences %	Medium %	Mean %	Divergences %
Explanation	50	30.7	-11.3	50	42.2	-35.8
Narration	50	45.05	-5.5	50	2.8	-47.3
Description	50	37.2	-12.8	50	1.7	-48.3
Argumentation	50	6	-44	50	40.9	-9.1
- Persuasion	50	00	00	50	9.3	-40.7
- Justification	50	6.9	-43.1	50	17.6	-32.4
Exemplification	50	13.7	-36.3	50	22.55	-47.4
Clarification	50	3.4	-46.6	50	8.3	-41.7

**Table 11: General Observation about Topic Knowledge**

The results shown in table 11 represent proportions of the rhetorical functions which were used to brainstorm and generate ideas in the classroom observation. The results vary across both groups, and across all rhetorical functions. The rate of the use of explanation is 38.7% in the control group with a divergence of -11.3%, and it is only 14.2% in the experimental group with a divergence of -35.8%. Evidently, the context and the communicative purposes of the topic determine to a large extent the rhetorical functions used to manage the message, and these are also the same results obtained by both groups for the



other sessions. The rate of exposition is 12.05% with a divergence of -37.9% from the medium, against no use of it in the experimental group. The use of rhetorical argumentation is by no means poor since the rate is only 6% with a divergence of -44%. In contrast, the rate of rhetorical argumentation for the experimental group is 40.9% with only a divergence of -9.1% from the medium. This clearly shows the nature and the types of discourses created with the experimental group. The control group used only one aspect of argumentation which is justification because it provides easy presentation of ideas. The rate of justification is 6.9% and the divergence is -43.1% from the medium.

Concerning the experimental group, the rate of justification was not as satisfying as it was expected 17.6% with a divergence of -32.4%. In addition to justification, the experimental group used another rhetorical function which is persuasion. The rate of persuasion is 9.3% with a high divergence from the medium 40.7%. Further, the control group used two secondary rhetorical functions and they are clarification and exemplification. The rate of clarification is 3.4% with a high divergence of -46.6%, and the rate of exemplification is 13.7% with a divergence of -36.3%. Likewise, the experimental group used only exemplification whenever necessary. This is particularly clear in the difference between the low rate 2.55% and the high divergence -47.4% of exemplification. As an assumption, task complexity created less variation in terms of the strategies used for spoken production.

Obviously, the use of rhetorical functions is related to the communicative purposes. The communicative purposes of the task rhetorical argumentation created a manipulation of language in different rhetorical functions. In order, to complete the ideas and make them more comprehensible, the students of the experimental group used the rhetorical function of 'explanation' to extend speaking and add more details to the content. Further, in order to make these details meaningful, students embedded examples and illustrations to replicate

what has already been said and to support the arguments with real life examples. Besides, students were justifying their ideas and not persuading the audience. The justification of the ideas is based primarily on giving counter-arguments to argue for or against any ideas shared by the audience.

The rhetorical functions are less varied and more focused in the control group. The rhetorical functions of describing and narrating are mutually intelligible as far as describing is needed in narrating. In the control group, the students used also the rhetorical functions of ‘explanation’ but not as much as the experimental group students. The rhetorical function of explanation was used in correspondence with some communicative purposes like: “word explanation” and “expression explanation.” Students adopted these two communicative methods to explain words and expressions which belong to the original language of the story, and they are used when students do not find an equivalence of these expressions in English.

### 2.3.3.3 Schema Knowledge

The observed criterion schema knowledge was based on categorizing students’ proficiency knowledge into achievement levels to distinguish between the results of language knowledge and topic knowledge.

	Control Group			Experimental Group		
	Medium %	Means %	Divergences %	Medium %	Means %	Divergences %
Poor	50	38.7	11.3	50	33.5	16.5
Fair	50	34.4	15.6	50	37.8	12.2
Good	50	26.6	23.4	50	28.6	21.4

**Table 12: General Observations about Schema knowledge**

In table number 12, schema knowledge was divided into three levels of proficiency which are poor, fair and good. In terms of schema knowledge, the experimental group obtained better results than the control group at all levels of proficiency. The rate of the control group for the level of proficiency 'poor' goes up to 38.7% with a divergence of 11.3%. In contrast, the experimental group achieved a better rate which is 33.5% with a less divergence of 16.55% from the medium, and this within-group analysis shows that despite the complexity of the task, the students of the experimental group committed less mistakes in terms of grammar, lexical complexity, and syntax. The rate of the level of proficiency 'fair' of the control group is 34.4% with a divergence of -15.6%, against the rate of the experimental group which is 37.8% with a divergence of -12.2% from the medium. The last proficiency level was the least in achievements and the most difficult among the students, the rate of 'good' ideas is 26.6% in the control group and the divergence is -23.4% while the mean for the experimental group is 28.6% with a divergence of -21.4% from the medium. We affirm from these results that the criteria of schema knowledge are being dealt with across two levels of proficiency which are poor and fair. The rationale behind this is traced to the second observational item which is language knowledge accuracy and fluency. The weakness in these two important aspects of language created difficulties for the students in both groups to transform the ideas into clear messages and this affects their intended meaning.

In this study, we regard speaking proficiency as processing information within language knowledge and topic knowledge. In addition, fluency and accuracy are components of speaking which can be divided by indices as they are Marco components. Schema knowledge was mainly affected by vocabulary acquisition in language knowledge and topic knowledge. By using two types of speaking tasks, the intention is to capture wider areas of speaking proficiency, since the measurement of schema knowledge is based on assessing the quality of the utterances, and whether the utterances are shaped in good English and achieves

the required communicative purposes. As a result, vocabulary knowledge is prerequisite to increase the likelihood performance of the students.

A good vocabulary stock is very substantial in speaking performance and its various aspects. Even if learners are novice or intermediate language proficiency users, with greater vocabulary knowledge in terms of depth, variation and size, they are likely to have higher performances enabling them to create more rapid, accurate and complex ideas (De Jong et al. 2012). The effects of vocabulary knowledge are also clear with fluency and accuracy in terms of complexity. The more depth and varied vocabulary the students' use, the more accurate and fluent they are. Therefore, vocabulary complexity combines both fluency and accuracy speaking proficiency.

Additionally, the moderate attributions of vocabulary use are not compensated by the appropriate communicative strategies. In fact, the use of different communicative strategies can compensate lack of vocabulary knowledge. The students of the control group emphasized on adopting the strategy of borrowing difficult words, and use them in English as they are used in the original language, while the experimental group adopted avoidance strategies as they avoided complex words and structures to minimize making mistakes.

Foreign language learners experience always bewilderment in terms of language knowledge and topic knowledge. They use words which are unfamiliar with in the wrong context, and sometimes they want to express concepts which cannot be expressed simply in English and is not represented by words in the mother tongue. What makes the problem worse is the limited vocabulary stock of the students no matter how difficult or easy the task is. As it is known, students of a foreign language used two main techniques to express their ideas: "translation and paraphrasing." Translation is a selective activity in speaking; students select the difficult words and translate them literally into English. This technique is simple

but it is not always functional. However, paraphrasing is a bit difficult and more functional for foreign language students. It can be used in a variety of contexts to cover lack of vocabulary if students use other compensation strategies to express difficult or foreign words.

## **2.4 Discussion of the Results**

The results demonstrated in general observations show clear variance in terms of the impact of the tasks over the students' performances. To start with, the task of argumentation is highly motivating (see appendix 9). This is represented in the rate of the students participating in the classroom which is 48.6% of the total number. Though the task rhetorical argumentation is highly motivating, students of the experimental group did not record a high rate in terms of seriousness, in comparison to the students of the control group (46.5% against 42.8%). This means that motivation is not always related to seriousness. Some students were motivated, but they were not serious and they introduced irrelevant and out of context ideas just to comment on what other students have said.

The difficulty of the task of rhetorical argumentation was very obvious in the rates of accuracy between the experimental group and the control group (25.5% against 28.8%). Henceforth, the nature of the task rhetorical argumentation imposes heavy procedures which require planning before speaking, and since the students in both groups do not plan before speaking it reflected their performance in language knowledge and topic knowledge. Similarly, both groups obtained almost the same rates in fluency; although, we consider the task of rhetorical argumentation more difficult than narrating stories. This is particularly related to the high rates of participation recorded in sessions 1 (48.57%), 2 (68.57%), 3 (54, 28%), 5 (57.14%) and 7 (48.57%).

The nature of the task determines the rhetorical functions and the communicative purposes intended to be achieved. Definitely, in the task of rhetorical argumentation,

students used too much argumentation and justification and these are the two main communicative purposes intended in this task. In addition, the students used other rhetorical functions namely: Explaining (42.2%), exemplifying (22.55%) and Clarifying (8.3%). The unexpected outcome in this task is that 2.8% out of the total students used the rhetorical function of narration, and they used it to narrate real life stories.

On the contrary, the rates of argumentation and justification are low in the control group (they are 6% and 6.5% respectively); however, the use of these two rhetorical functions is noticed in some disagreements about the real events of some stories. If we compare the results obtained in table 11, they show that the students of the experimental group needed more explanations and exemplifications than the control group (See appendix 6 and appendix 13). Accordingly, despite the rates obtained in explanations and exemplifications ( they are 42.2% and 22.2% respectively), there was still lack in the use of examples and explanations, and this is obviously significant with students who used more than one rhetorical function (Argumentation+Explanation+Exemplification or Clarification) as they recorded better results in fluency than those who used only one rhetorical function. Therefore, the use of various strategies in communication is compulsory in rhetorical argumentation to generate the content of the topic and express the ideas more clearly.

The results show also that the students of the experimental group expressed better ideas than the control group. The classroom observation has shown that the focus of the experimental group is on knowledge telling. Basically, the knowledge telling does not require any organization and it is used specifically in the narration of stories. In this type of narration, non-proficient learners commit many mistakes which prevent the follow of ideas, besides the stories are not organized. This creates misunderstanding all over the stories. Similarly, the performance of the control group resembles the knowledge telling due to lack of planning and organization of language knowledge.

The procedures followed by the students of the experimental group obliged them to organize their speaking performances into knowledge transforming materials. The main components of knowledge transforming materials start with ideas, as being the main points of the process of communication. Then, the students branch off the sub-points in the form of: explanations, clarifications and examples. The more the students use these explanations and examples the more they express themselves clearly. But the lack of topic knowledge and planning, made the task of rhetorical argumentation difficult to accomplish as long as we compare it to the task of narration where students have already the ideas in their minds, and all they are required to do is to expose them in front of their friends.

The effects of task difficulty are obvious on the students of the experimental group. The students negotiate the meaning over a point of view and they are required to use examples and explanations to support their view. Henceforth, the use of different communicative strategies compounded the problem. Self-monitoring is also present with the task rhetorical argumentation to verify language production each time and idea is discussed. Since the speech production is simultaneous with planning; speech is delayed and more pauses are created during speaking. This automatic process of language production is a characteristic of any task with multi-communicative purposes.

## **Conclusion**

The classroom observation has given us a carefully tailored analysis about the proficiency of both the experimental group and the control group with the components of speaking: language knowledge, topic knowledge and classroom interaction. In classroom interaction, the task of rhetorical argumentation is found to be more inviting for speaking, and the results show that the task is highly motivating. However, even though the task is provocative, inviting and highly motivating, still the results obtained in terms of seriousness are the same in both groups. The task of narrating stories, however, is not highly motivating because it is based on delivering stories at random to listeners who were willing to tackle more problematic issues.

Another remarkable observation is found in the impact of these tasks on the students' topic knowledge. In fact, rhetorical argumentation is procedural and it requires organizational patterns to be achieved correctly, and that is why this task is considered by most of the students as complex. However, the task of narrating stories does not require any procedural patterns, and even schema knowledge is already prepared for the story, since it is either a past experience, or students know it from their mother tongue. So, there is no need to generate the content, but to reshape the ideas into language.



## **Chapter Six: The Relationship between Accuracy, Fluency, and Argumentation.**

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## Conclusion

## **Introduction**

In the classroom observation, the analysis was based on describing and observing the implementation of the components of speaking which are accuracy, fluency and the tasks argumentation and narrating stories. Henceforth, we observed carefully the implications and contributions of the components in both the experimental group and the control group to mark points of variance and divergence, and to determine the appropriate spoken production characteristics for students. In this chapter, we are going to prove the relationship between the variables through the analysis of the experiment conducted in response to Levelt's (1989) model of the speaker. In this model, the production of language comprises two important aspects: linguistic knowledge and topic knowledge. On behalf of linguistic knowledge, the aspects are completely perfect to subsume accuracy in its broadest sense. Likewise, the representation of linguistic knowledge in this model is categorized by syntax and phonology i.e. grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. Fluency in this model is represented by external and internal influences which are: pauses, interruptions, and hesitations that prevent smoothness and flow of language production. The external influences subsume topic familiarity, and time devoted for planning and strategies used to ensure the flow and smoothness of ideas.

Apart from that, the third variable which is argumentation is also embedded but divided into rhetorical functions depending on the communicative goals achieved in the students' presentations. Though the researcher was confronted by a number of abstract notions to assess speaking like task familiarity and planning, we managed to organize a rating scale for each variable to precisely measure the relationship between them, and to identify the influence of argumentation as an independent feature in the production of spoken language (accuracy and fluency). First, students in both groups were divided into groups of four and presented topics to the public. To make the experiment reliable, and to achieve different

communicative purposes, a clear cut distinction between the topics presented is made. Therefore, the topics presented by the experimental group were argumentative in nature, herby to achieve multi-faceted communicative purposes which are all comprised in argumentation. The topics presented by the control group are narrative in their nature since they were asked to narrate stories and to present their own plays as a kind of classroom presentation. Ultimately, from the whole population of students who presented the topics, we have recorded their performances at the examination to compare the differences between the achievements of both groups and the effects of rhetorical argumentation and narrating stories on fluency and accuracy.

## 1-Scoring Rubrics for Accuracy, Fluency, Argumentation and Narrating Stories

Accuracy	Language Knowledge	Scores	Characteristics
	<b>Vocabulary</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- From 0 to 1.5</li> <li>- From 2 to 3.5</li> <li>- From 4 to 5</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Poor vocabulary and bad choice of words. Poor pronunciation of words and the use of very simple words.</li> <li>- Average/good vocabulary use and acceptable choice of words. Good pronunciation of words and the use of a variety of words.</li> <li>- Excellent choice of words and vocabulary. A very good pronunciation and speaking is characterized by an unlimited range of vocabulary items.</li> </ul>
	<b>Grammar</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-From 0 to 1.5</li> <li>- From 2 to 3.5</li> <li>- From 4 to 5</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Bad mastery of grammar rules, tense agreement and inaccurate use of verbs.</li> <li>-God mastery of the grammar rules with some minor mistakes in the tense agreement and the use of verbs.</li> <li>- A complete mastery of grammar rules, with almost no mistake in tense agreement with the correct use of verb forms (regular or irregular).</li> </ul>
	<b>Syntax</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-From 0 to 1.5</li> <li>- From 2 to 3.5</li> <li>- From 4 to 5</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The use of incomplete sentences with interference of the Arabic sentence structure and mistakes in word order.</li> <li>- The use of complete sentences but mistakes of word order are committed with interference of the Arabic sentence structure.</li> <li>- Speaking is characterized by the use of complete sentences no Arabic interference</li> </ul>

**Table 13: Scoring Rubric for Accuracy**

<b>Fluency</b>	<b>Topic knowledge</b>	<b>Scores</b>	<b>Characteristics</b>
	<b>Speed of delivery</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- From 0 to 1.5</li> <li>- From 2 to 3.5</li> <li>- From 4 to 5</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Speaking is characterized by lots of interruptions and pauses which in turn prevent smoothness in the production of language.</li> <li>- Very few interruptions but still some hesitations prevent the flow of language and consequently ideas.</li> <li>- No interruptions or hesitations, the production of language is coherent, and this is crystal clear through the use of cohesive devices and markers.</li> </ul>
	<b>Proceduralization and information processing</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-From 0 to 1.5</li> <li>- From 2 to 3.5</li> <li>- From 4 to 5</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Students speak randomly with apparently no organization or planning for what to say next, no smoothness between the ideas.</li> <li>- There is some organization of the ideas, but still the student cannot manage to transform the message correctly.</li> <li>- Speaking is organized through careful planning of what to say next, the message is clearly delivered and can be understood.</li> </ul>
	<b>Topic Familiarity</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-From 0 to 1.5</li> <li>- From 2 to 3.5</li> <li>- From 4 to 5</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-The topic is unfamiliar, and the ideas are difficult consequently the message is not clear.</li> <li>- The topic is familiar but still the student cannot contextualize the exact function of some key words (use words with the same meaning in context).</li> <li>- The topic is familiar, the message is clear and the student achieved the required rhetorical functions.</li> </ul>

**Table 14: Scoring Rubric for Fluency**

<b>Rhetorical Argumentation</b>	<b>Scores</b>	<b>Characteristics</b>
<b>Rhetorical Functions</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- From 0 to 1.5</li> <li>- From 2 to 3.5</li> <li>- From 4 to 5</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-There is no variation in terms of the rhetorical functions employed, with no examples and illustrations and poor use of meta-discourse markers.</li> <li>- The position hold in mind is clearly stated, but the students did not manage to exemplify and defend the claim appropriately.</li> <li>- The students manage to claim the statement through discourse markers, examples and visual aid.</li> </ul>
<b>Presentation properties</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-From 0 to 1.5</li> <li>- From 2 to 3.5</li> <li>- From 4 to 5</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-The students are almost reading from the papers and the arguments are not convincing and the students cannot reach the reader.</li> <li>- The students present convincing arguments but the manner of delivery is ambiguous and mislead the listener.</li> <li>- The students present the arguments in a logical order to reach the position hold in the first place</li> </ul>
<b>Planning and Organization</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-From 0 to 1.5</li> <li>- From 2 to 3.5</li> <li>- From 4 to 5</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Poor Planning skills</li> <li>-Average Planning skills.</li> <li>-Good Planning Skills.</li> </ul>

**Table 15: Scoring Rubric for Rhetorical Argumentation**

<b>Narrating Stories</b>	<b>Scores</b>	<b>Characteristics</b>
<b>Rhetorical Functions</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- From 0 to 1.5</li> <li>- From 2 to 3.5</li> <li>- From 4 to 5</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-There is no variation in terms of the rhetorical functions employed, with no examples and illustrations and poor use of meta-discourse markers.</li> <li>- The position hold in mind is clearly stated, but the students did not manage to shed light on the appropriate rhetorical functions of the story.</li> <li>- The students manage to organize the story through discourse markers, examples and visual aid.</li> </ul>
<b>Presentation properties</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-From 0 to 1.5</li> <li>- From 2 to 3.5</li> <li>- From 4 to 5</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-The students are almost reading from the papers and the story is not well organized, and the students cannot reach the reader.</li> <li>- The students present convincing arguments but the manner of delivery is ambiguous and mislead the listener.</li> <li>- The students present the story in a logical order to reach the position hold in the first place</li> </ul>
<b>Planning and Organization</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-From 0 to 1.5</li> <li>- From 2 to 3.5</li> <li>- From 4 to 5</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Very poor Planning.</li> <li>-Average Planning</li> <li>-Good Planning skills</li> </ul>

**Table 16: Scoring Rubric for Narrating Stories**



### 2.3 Pre-Test Accuracy and Fluency Scores of the Experimental Group

StudentN	V	G	S	Total	S D	P I	T F	Total
Student 1	1.5	2	2	6.5	1.5	1	2	4.5
Student 2	2.5	2	2	6.5	2	2	2	6
Student 3	3.5	3	3	9	2.5	2.5	2	7
Student 4	2	2	2	6	2	1.5	1.5	5
Student 5	3	3	3	9	3	2	2.5	7.5
Student 6	2	2.5	2.5	7	2.5	2	2	6.5
Student 7	3.5	3.5	3.5	10.5	3.5	3	3.5	10
Student 8	0.5	1	1	2.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5
Student 9	2	2,5	2,5	7	2	2	2	6
Student 10	2	2	2.5	6.5	2	2	2	6.5
Student 11	3	3	3	9	2.5	2.5	2	7
student 12	2	2	2	6	2	1.5	1.5	5
Student 13	2	2.5	2.5	7	2	2	2	6
Student 14	2	2	2,5	6,5	2.5	2	2.5	7
Student 15	2	2.5	2	6.5	2	2	2	6
Student 16	3.5	4	4	12	3	3	3	9
Student 17	1	1,5	1,5	4	1	1	1	3
Student 18	2	2	2	6	1.5	1.5	2	5.5
Student 19	2,5	2	2	6,5	2	2.5	2.5	7
Student 20	3.5	4	4	11.5	3.5	3	3	9.5
Student 21	3.5	3,5	3,5	10.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	10.5
student 22	2	2	2,5	6.5	2	2	2	6
Student 23	1,5	2	2	5,5	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5
Student 24	4	4	4	12	3.5	3.5	3.5	10.5
Student 25	2	3	2	7	2.5	2.5	2	7
Student 26	1,5	2	3	6,5	2	2	2	6.5
Student 27	1	1,5	1,5	4	1.5	1	1	3.5
Student 28	4	3	3	10	3.5	3.5	3	10
Student 29	2	3	2,5	7,5	2.5	2.5	2	7
Student 30	2	2	2	6	3	2	2.5	7.5
Student 31	1,5	2,5	2	6	2	2	2	6
Student 32	2	3	2	7	3.5	2.5	2	7
Student 33	4	4	4	12	3.5	4	3.5	11
Student 34	1,5	2	2	5,5	3	2.5	2	7.5
Student 35	2	2,5	2	6,5	2	2	2	6
Means	2,30	2,54	2,50	7,34	2.41	2.21	2.2	6.82

**Table 17: Pre-test Accuracy and Fluency Scores of the Experimental Group**

The aforementioned table represents pre-test scores of both accuracy and fluency which were obtained by students during their presentations in the classroom. In these presentations, students were required to present argumentative topics to a targeted audience, and to incorporate the task at hand through the use of rhetorical functions mainly: argumentation, justification, illustrations, explanations and examples. To start with, accuracy is a problematic issue in our students' speaking skill. The mistakes are divided between wordiness (repeating the same words), lack of topic knowledge of vocabulary because of topic unfamiliarity, and the use of words outside the realm of their context-specific use. Therefore, Most of the mistakes committed represent lack of vocabulary to express the correct meaning of some words in different contexts. Hence, scores of vocabulary accuracy are not convincing, and this judgment is made when we compare that 23 students (i.e. 65%) obtained average scores, and 8 more students (i.e.22.85%) obtained bad scores which range from 0.5 up to 1.5. The experimental group performances are characterized as average in terms of use. The rest of the students in the experimental group and they are 3 students in total (i.e. 8.57%) obtained good scores which range from 4 to 5.

Generally speaking, grammar and syntax go hand in hand, and this clearly shows that the more mistakes committed at the grammatical level, the more they affect the structure of sentences. Grammar is not a substantial obstacle for students, as they were able to construct good grammatical sentences, specifically tenses and word order. The only influence from the mother tongue was found when asking questions, and instead of saying 'how old is he?' the subject always precedes the verb and the question becomes 'How old he is?' We can rather say that, the rates of grammar and syntax are closely related to each other, with no big differences and the rates are 77% for grammar and 73% for syntax.

In a nutshell, the performances of the experimental group were acceptable but they are not convincing specifically the aspect accuracy. This is evident through the mean of each

aspect in accuracy. In vocabulary, the mean is 2.30 with a divergence of -0.2 from the medium which is in this case 2.50 and it reflects the medium of all accuracy aspects. In grammar and syntax, the mean was higher, in grammar, for example, the mean is 2.54, while the mean of syntax is 2.50 with null divergence in this case.

The scores obtained in fluency show low proficiency in speaking. Students demonstrate their weaknesses in both proceduralization of information and topic familiarity. During the presentation phase, students messed up completely with the information procedures. They found it completely difficult to construct a clear-cut relation between the information they are presenting in terms of cause and effect, arguing, justifying, comparing and contrasting. These procedures are considered as the evaluative criterion for exploiting the rhetorical functions as they are presented within the topic. Therefore, students stated information as facts, and exactly as they found them in the internet and the rate 74.28% was supremacy in this case, and they adopted wrongly the appropriate procedures in their presentations.

In the criterion speed of delivery, the speaking product of the students is characterized by lots of interruptions, false starts, sentence correction, hesitation and pauses due to lack of vocabulary or topic unfamiliarity. Hence, most of the students are not fluent and they commit these pauses to think about what to say next, while the reference here is, mostly, lack of pre-task planning as it is used to lessen the number of pauses and false starts. Accordingly, the rate of dysfluency is 82.85% that is 29 students in total, while 6 of these students obtained scores which range from 0.5 to 2 in the scoring rubric.

Although all students were given the ability to choose their topics freely, some of them have chosen difficult and scientific topics. As a result, 5 students (i.e. 14.2%) did not prepare their presentations very well, and this was noticed through the manner of their

presentations because they were reading from the papers. However, the results of topic unfamiliarity are much clearer on accuracy than on fluency as it has been discussed before. In this case, the students obtained average scores, and the rate for this is 80% in total. The main reasons behind topic unfamiliarity are embodied as the students presented the topics under the effects of fear, anxiety, and most importantly lack of pre-task planning.

## **1.2 Areas of Difficulty in Fluency and Accuracy for the Experimental Group**

Among the most common difficulties for students in accuracy is the extent to which they are confronted with producing the right words in the right context. Lexical complexity together with structural complexity is thought to be originated from the formulation of complex ideas at the conceptual preparation stage of speech which is known as planning. It represents the use of more elaborate language, and syntactic patterns and involves the development, restructuring, or extension of existing resources, and may lead to language complexity (Housen and Kuiken, 2009; Skehan, 2001). Likewise, Skehan categorized trade-offs between language and form, when they pay attention to form they neglect the content, and when they pay attention to content, this affects the form mainly accuracy. Therefore, a limitation of attention results in trade-offs between form and content, and this is manifested in speech by affecting aspects of fluency like speed of delivery or planning and organization. The following table summarizes very specifically the results of the most common difficulties in accuracy and fluency:

<b>Accuracy Difficulties</b>	<b>Category</b>	<b>Number of Students</b>	<b>Percentage per Each Category</b>
Vocabulary Difficulties	A-Choice of words	18	51.4%
	B-Pronunciation	9	24.7%
	C-Word meaning	21	60%
Grammar Difficulties	A-Grammar Rules	16	45.7%
	B-The use of verb forms and tense agreement.	11	31.4%
Syntax Difficulties	A-Sentence meaning	2	5.7%
	B-Sentence structure	15	42.4%
	C-Arabic interference	09	25.7%
<b>Fluency Difficulties</b>			
Speed of delivery difficulties	A-Smoothness of language and ideas	23	65.7%
	B-Pauses and hesitations.	15	42.8%
	C-Discourse Markers	19	54.2%
Proceduralization of information	A-Automaticity	19	54.2%
	B-Information connection	16	45.7%
Topic Familiarity difficulties.	A-Language	16	45.2%
	B-Ideas	17	48.5%
	C-Meaning	11	31.4%

**Table 18: Accuracy and Fluency Difficulties for the Experimental Group**

Table 18 highlights the main difficulties towards the aspects of accuracy and fluency in speaking. The precise identification of these aspects helped in determining the main areas of difficulty for practising language in the classroom. The students of the experimental group have a wide range of difficulties across different categories of accuracy. The most prominent feature in vocabulary is the use of words in context. This category is important since it denotes proficiency when it comes to vocabulary in use. Therefore, it is noticed that the rate of vocabulary misuse is always high 60%, when we compare it to the other categories like pronunciation 24.7%, or choice of words 51.4%. The category pronunciation accuracy does not form a major obstacle for the students as it extends its influence only on difficult and new words.

Concerning grammar, students' difficulties were lower than vocabulary and they were divided into two categories. The difficulties were very obvious in tense agreement and grammar rules. However, the rates of grammar in table 18 which are 31.4% and 45.7% for each difficulty do not correspond to the real level of students, as they concentrated on idea generation as much as possible and neglected grammar rules irrespectively. Moreover, at the syntactic level only few discrepancies were found in terms of formulation. The influence of the mother tongue has also been identified to a limited extent; thus, the rate of Arabic influence is only 25%. Based on the students' individual performances, this is a low rate if we compare it to the number of sentences produced every single session in the classroom.

Table 18 also summarizes the rates and explains the difficulties faced by the students in fluency. The results were unpredictable, as they indicate that smoothness of ideas and language is a major obstacle for the students. Hence, 65.7% of the students got low marks since there is a big gap between the presentation of ideas and smoothness of language. This is partly due to the poor mastery of discourse markers and cohesive devices, as the table demonstrates, which might be used to connect sentences and ideas. Consequently, the

language they produced ideas with abstract notions and with no formal regularities of sentence connection. This presupposition is manifested in the exact rate 54.2% of students who misused cohesive devices, and these students stated a jumble of sentences which are unconnected with each other. Besides, 42.8% in total speak with pauses and hesitations which interrupt the flow of both ideas and language. They produced these pauses when they failed to apply language rules appropriately in reformulations, as in filled pauses or false starts. These pauses are also due to within-task planning which occurred automatically when students needed time to recall a greater quantity of information. The effects of pauses and hesitations created problems for students in proceduralization of information. This type of fluency is non-automatic, and requires thinking about the topic, organizing information and what to say next, and this prevented them from producing a flow of speech. As a result, the rates of difficulties are high in both automaticity and information connection which are 54.2% and 45.7%, respectively. The last difficulty which is named 'information connection' was evaluated with students' presentations, the way they are presented and the way they are transformed (knowledge transforming).

In topic familiarity, the difficulties are categorized in two aspects. First, language is a major obstacle specifically the question of style and lexis. Second, students were unfamiliar with the language because the content of their topics was taken from the internet. This objectively led to two other problems. Some students found it difficult to understand some ideas (their own ideas) while some others were unable to infer the meaning of what is said, in general. It is worth mentioning that the language is difficult to understand, when the meaning is implied and it should be understood from the context in which it is used. Therefore, the difficulties in topic familiarity are divided into three categories namely: language, ideas, and meaning. The rates are very high in language 45.2%, in ideas 48.5, and it is average in meaning 31.4%.

### 1.2.1 Rhetorical Argumentation Results of the Experimental Group:

The following table summarizes the results of the task rhetorical argumentation:

StudentN	R F	P O	P S	Total
Student 1	2	1.5	2.5	6
Student 2	2.5	3	2.5	8
Student 3	2	2.5	2.5	7
Student 4	2	2	2	6
Student 5	2	2	3	7
Student 6	2	2.5	2	6.5
Student 7	3.5	3.5	3	10
Student 8	1	1	1.5	3.5
Student 9	2.5	2	2	6.5
Student 10	3	2	2	7
Student 11	2.5	3	2.5	8
student 12	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5
Student 13	2	2.5	2.5	7
Student 14	3	2	2.5	7.5
Student 15	2	2.5	2	6.5
Student 16	3.5	3.5	3.5	10.5
Student 17	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5
Student 18	1	1	1.5	3.5
Student 19	2	2	2	6
Student 20	3	4	3	10
Student 21	3.5	3	3	9.5
student 22	1.5	2	2	5.5
Student 23	1.5	2	2	5.5
Student 24	3	3	3	9
Student 25	2.5	2	2.5	7
Student 26	2	2	2.5	6.5
Student 27	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5
Student 28	3.5	3.5	3.5	10.5
Student 29	2.5	2.5	2.5	7.5
Student 30	3	2.5	3	8.5
Student 31	2	2	2.5	6.5
Student 32	2.5	2.5	2.5	7.5
Student 33	4	3.5	4	11
Student 34	2.5	3	2.5	8
Student 35	2	2.5	2.5	7
Means	2.4	2.35	2.48	7.03

**Table 19: Pre-test Scores of Argumentation of the Experimental Group**



The activity of giving arguments was not very difficult, but the patterns of the organization were difficult and the correct implementation of the rhetorical functions was challenging. The reason is that, the implementation of the task of rhetorical argumentation has noticed a shift to describing or narrating in some cases, and this shift does not support the primary function of the task and its communicative purposes. In addition, the main rhetorical functions used in the experimental group are to convince or persuade the listeners about a given point of view, but their arguments lack examples, explanations and illustrations. Mostly, they are just stating information with no specific communicative purposes, and even when they are asked questions from the audience they do not give convincing explanations. Henceforth, the rates of the task rhetorical argumentation are divided between low and average. Students who shifted from the rhetorical function of argumentation and their arguments are not accompanied by the appropriate examples and illustrations have received low marks which were given to 7 students (i.e. 20%), while 26 students (i.e.74.68) have received average marks, and this is more than expected.

In the second aspect of rhetorical argumentation, pre-task planning and within task planning are not attributed as part of the presentation phase, and few time is given to this attribution specifically pre-task planning. As it is shown in table 19, the rate of students who stated ideas in a jumble pattern is as high as 42.84% which is considered a negative rate in this case as the task of planning is very essential and does not take many procedures. Here, it is all about generating ideas and organizing them. The other students in the experimental group organized information in terms of relation that is cause and effect or comparison and contrast. These students obtained average scores, and the rate reached 57.20% in total.

The performances of the experimental group were good in presentation skills. Table 19 shows that students adopted efficiently presentation skills in language production, by virtue of gestures and paralinguistic features to make the message clear. This extent of

efficiency contributed in gaining average scores for 79.77% of the students in total. It is always worth noticing that the rate of presentation skills is set under the effects of stress, and students always complain that they lack self-confidence. The only students who have shown great self-confidence are students number 6 and 33, and they obtained the highest scores in the experimental group.

### 1.2.2 Areas of Difficulty for the Experimental Group in Rhetorical Argumentation

There are a lot of difficulties for the students in the uses of rhetorical function, organizing and planning what to say, and manners of speaking in presentation skills.

Fluency Difficulties	Category	Number of Students	Percentage per Each Category
Rhetorical Functions	a-The use of rhetorical argumentation	13	37.4%
	b-The use of illustrations and examples	22	62.8%
	c-The use of convincing and persuading	14	40%
Planning and organization	A- Planning what to say.	18	49.8%
	B-Organization	14	40%
Presentation Skills.	a-Self- confidence	12	34.2%
	b-Manner of Speaking	17	48.5%

**Table 20: Argumentation Difficulties for the Experimental Group.**

Table 20 summarizes the main difficulties for our students in the task rhetorical argumentation. The main focus in this task is on persuading and convincing, sometimes other rhetorical functions are used like justification and clarification but the use of these two rhetorical functions is sometimes substituted by explaining. Attaining rhetorical argumentation successfully is based on examples and illustration, as they are used to negotiate the meaning and this characteristic seems to be a weakness of non-proficient users of English, as our experimental group demonstrated a high rate of difficulties up to 66.2% in total. Since providing examples and illustrations is problematic. It was difficult for students to manage the rhetorical functions of persuading and convincing which were the primary concerns in this task. So, the rate of difficulties is also high and it is 40% altogether with difficulties in the use of rhetorical functions with 37.4% in total.

The aspect of planning and organization was also considered problematic, specifically topic knowledge, the movement from one idea to another, and language smoothness. As a result, 49.8% of the students neglect planning either completely or partially as they use in-only planning. The students stretches of discourse were not carefully planned and the relied heavily on unconnected sentences. Further, lack of planning created pauses which are embodied in in-time planning or “hesitation phenomena.” In organization, 40% of the students’ state information in a disorganized manner and there is practically no pattern in information organization.

On the one hand, the last aspect of argumentation comprises two main difficulties. The manner of speaking of students changed since their attention was completely focused on the audience and how they are staring at them, and the rate of this difficulty reached 48.5% in total. On the other hand, 34.4% lost self-confidence and trust in their abilities. This affected negatively the production of language, and their speaking was characterized by lots of interruptions and inconsistencies. The lack of self-confidence of these students decreases the

use of gestures and paralinguistic features when it comes to communicating difficult expressions which are taken from Arabic or French.

In a nutshell, the implementation of the task rhetorical argumentation highlights the importance of the learning to think critically by using different communicative purposes. Generally speaking, the results were not convincing they are all beyond the medium 2.50. The mean of rhetorical functions is 2.40 with a divergence of -0.10 from the medium, while the means of the aspects planning and organization, with presentation skills are 2.35 and 2.48 respectively with a divergence of -0.15 and -0.02 from the medium.

### **2.1 Pre-test Fluency and Accuracy Scores of the Control Group**

The results of the experimental group presented previously show great variance in comparison to classroom observation. In the following analysis, the results of the control group are presented in the same direction of the experimental group. Then, the results of the pre-test are compared with those of the post-test across each task. The analysis shown in both control group and experimental group are made to make similarities and differences between tasks, and to calculate the overall level of the use of fluency and accuracy. The analysis of the results is also made to demonstrate the strength and weaknesses in all the indices of fluency and accuracy. Finally, the variables fluency and accuracy are measured under the effects of tasks to compare the final results of the trade-offs between fluency, accuracy and the tasks. The following table summarizes pre-test scores of the control group.

Student N	V	G	S	Total	SD	PI	TP	Total
Student 1	2	2	2	6	2	2.5	2	7
Student 2	1.5	2	2.5	6.5	2	2	2	6
Student 3	3	3	3	9	3	2	3	8
Student 4	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5	1	1	1	3.5
Student 5	3	3	3	9	3	3	3	9
Student 6	2.5	2.5	2.5	7.5	2	2.5	2	6.5
Student 7	1.5	2	2	5.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5
Student 8	2.5	2	2.5	7	2.5	2.5	2	7
Student 9	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5	2	1.5	1.5	5
Student 10	3.5	3.5	3.5	10.5	3.	3	3	9
Student 11	3	3	3	9	2.5	2.5	2.5	7.5
student 12	2.5	2	2.5	7	2.5	2.5	2	7
Student 13	2.5	2	2	6.5	2	2	2	6
Student 14	3	2.5	2.5	8	2.5	2.5	2	7
Student 15	3.5	3.5	3.5	10.5	3	3	3	9
Student 16	3.5	3	3	9.5	2	2	3	7
Student 17	2.5	3.5	2.5	8.5	2	3	3	8
Student 18	1	1.5	1	3.5	1	1.5	1	3.5
Student 19	2	2	1.5	5.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5
Student 20	2.5	2	2.5	7	3	3	3	9
Student 21	2	2	2	6	2	2.5	2	6.5
student 22	1.5	1	1	3.5	1.5	1	1.5	4
Student 23	2	1.5	1.5	5	2	2	2	6
Student 24	2	2	2	6	2	2.5	2	6.5
Student 25	1.5	2	2	5.5	1.5	2	2	6
Student 26	4	3.5	3.5	11	3.5	3.5	4	11
Student 27	2.5	2	2.5	6.5	3	2.5	3	8.5
Student 28	2.5	2.5	2.5	7	2.5	2	2	6.5
Student 29	3.5	3	3	9.5	3	3	3	9
Student 30	3	2.5	3	8.5	2.5	2.5	2	7
Means	2.33	2.35	2.36	7.11	2.25	2.28	2.27	7.23

**Table 21: Accuracy and Fluency Scores of the Control Group**

Although the task was changed since students shifted from introducing topics with an argumentative nature to narrating stories and describing past experiences, the results remain almost the same. The control group achieved convincing results in accuracy with some minor difficulties in some aspects. The most difficult aspect in accuracy is vocabulary, as table 21 shows, the inability of the students to put the right words in the correct context, and to

pronounce some of them correctly like difficult words and new words. So, 23.33% of the students obtained low marks which reflect their inaccuracies in lexis and pronunciation. The difficulties in pronunciation, here, were due to the use of words which are originally from French or Arabic, and these words were embedded during story-telling. The rest of students in the control group obtained average scores, and they are 53.3% in total. Since they pronounced the majority of the words correctly, and they repeated the same words throughout the story.

Grammar and syntax are easy for the students as well, as the results of the aforementioned table show. In grammar, for example, only 16% of the students failed to apply grammar rules correctly, and the majority of the control group 80% in total obtained average scores which range from 2 to 3.5. This reflects exactly average use of the grammar rules and the English tenses with some minor mistakes which do not hinder the intended meaning.

The effects of grammar are direct and subjective over the scores of syntax. This is particularly true since the rate of the students who produced almost incorrect grammatical sentences during speaking is 20% in total. However, a total of 68% of the students produced good grammatical sentences, and it is noticed that emphasize on grammar is probably a characteristic of foreign language learners. Meanwhile, table 26 shows the difficulty exposed by the task narrating stories, together with the rhetorical function of describing, over the main components of fluency. The results were also inconsistent with those obtained in accuracy as the scores are low at the level of all aspects in fluency. In the first component, speed of delivery, 20% of the students were reading the ideas directly from the papers, and make conclusions depending on a compilation of events discussed by their classmates. Therefore, they obtained low scores which are inconclusively adopted and this was considered as misconception of the presentation skills of the task. Additionally, 73.33% of the students

speak with a normal speed of delivery, but the speaking product is interrupted by irrelevant pauses and hesitations which prevent the flow of ideas and language as well.

The proceduralization of information was done in almost the same manner. Though 24.3% in total failed to use the intended communicative events of the task, and communicative purposes in their presentation. A proportion of 80% were given average scores, as they identified the relation between the information, and this was done in two stages:

Narration: identifying mainly: events, characters and plot summary.

Talking about Experiences: describing experiences or events in a chronological order.

The overwhelming majority of the students dealt only with one stage and identified some parts of the required rhetorical functions of the task. The task is accomplished very easily, but it resulted in materials (stories) which are logically disorganized.

The achievements in topic familiarity are not convincing. Despite the fact that students were free to choose any topic, we expected both groups to achieve better results specifically in this aspect. Accordingly, during presenting the topics, the researcher noticed lack of collaboration among the students themselves. Basically, they did not handle the topic in the same manner. A proportion of 20% got average scores, and these students' degree of topic familiarity was evaluated according to the collaboration within the group on the basis of unity, clarity, and coherence. In the same line of thought, 73.33% obtained average scores which exhibit their performance as they managed to communicate ideas in only one aspect which is clarity.

### 2.1.1 Areas of Difficulty for the Control Group in Fluency and Accuracy

All the difficulties presented by the students of the control group in fluency and accuracy are presented in the following table:

Accuracy Difficulties	Category	Number of Students	Percentage per Each Category
Vocabulary Difficulties	A-word meaning	11	36.6%
	B-Pronunciation	9	30%
	C-choice of words	14	46.6%
Grammar Difficulties	A-Grammar Rules	15	50%
	B- The use of verb forms and tense agreement.	13	43.3%
Syntax Difficulties	A-Sentence meaning	12	40%
	B-Sentence structure	14	46.6%
	C-Arabic interference	7	23.3%
Fluency Difficulties			
Speed of delivery difficulties	A-Smoothness of language and ideas	14	46.6%
	B-Pauses and hesitations.	18	60%
	C-Discourse Markers	8	26.3%
Proceduralization of information	A-Automaticity	17	56.6%
	B-Information connection	16	53.3%
Topic Familiarity difficulties.	A-language	12	40%
	B-Ideas	15	50%
	C-Meaning	14	46%

**Table 22: Accuracy and Fluency Areas of Difficulty for the Control Group.**



The areas of difficulty in both fluency and accuracy are related to the range of mistakes committed in their components. The most difficult component of the aspect accuracy is vocabulary, and the difficulty was mainly high at two levels, the meaning and the choice of words. The meaning of words was difficult to understand for 36.6% out of the total number of students, while this problem is diagnosed in terms of comprehension deficit and the difficulty of the story. While at the second level, the difficulty embodies the choice of words in terms of use, 46.6% out of the total number of students used a variety of words which misrepresent the true meaning of their everyday life use.

Likewise, grammar rules are also misused in the control group as 50% in total misused grammar rules and did not produce good grammatical sentences. As a result, 43.3% of the students found obstacles in tense agreement and verb forms (for example: instead of saying to succeed they say to success). These difficulties contributed in the declining of syntax components in one way or another. Hence, in syntax there are two major difficulties: the grammatical difficulty effect was clearly noticed in sentence structure, and the mistakes were committed by 46.6% of the total number of students. The latter is definitely correlated with the difficulty of sentence meaning; the mistakes committed at the level of structure hindered the shaping of the correct meaning of the sentences. So, 40% of the students transmitted unclear messages. In a nutshell, despite all the nagging difficulties encountered by the control group, the performances were average as the total mean of accuracy is 7.54 with divergence of + 0.04 from the medium. The mean of the components of accuracy, in turn, are 2.48 in vocabulary, 2.50 in grammar, and 2.56 in syntax, while the divergence of them from the medium equals -0.02, 0.00, and + 0.06 respectively.

As it was predicted in the hypothesis, the performances of the control group in fluency are not satisfying as table 22 demonstrates, and the rate of the difficulties is high in all the components of fluency. Apparently, the most important aspect of fluency, which is speed of

delivery, is the most difficult of all. Since there is lack of preparation, in schema knowledge 60% of the students used pauses and hesitations as a kind of self repair to correct committed mistakes in the first place and to plan information and what to say next. The effects of these pauses and hesitations contributed in creating smooth language formulation for the control group in the other two components. The rate of the difficulty is a bit high in smoothness of language and ideas, and it is 46.6% in total. This rate is correlated with the rate of difficulty in discourse markers where 26.3% of the total number of students misused discourse markers in association with smoothness of meaning.

The rate of difficulty is also high in proceduralization of information. In automaticity, for example, the rate of difficulty is 56.6%, and the rate of difficulty in information connection is 53.3% in total. For the same reason, greater task difficulty led to the inappropriate use of the rhetorical functions in the task of describing past experiences. Sometimes, the students were not aware of the logical sequence of these rhetorical functions.

The last component of fluency, topic familiarity, is a prominent determiner of the task feasibility and the extent to which students are exposed to comprehension and production. Thus, it is evident that topic familiarity works on the basis of language familiarity and ideas familiarity to fetch the negotiation of meaning. Accordingly, the rates of the difficulty of ideas and meaning were a bit high, 50% for ideas and 46% for meaning. Meanwhile, the nature of the task shaped the kind of language used to accomplish it, and 40% of the students in the control group encountered mostly grammatical difficulties.

### 2.1.2 Narrating and Describing Scores of the Control Group

We expected the task of narrating stories and describing past experiences to be less demanding and less complex and this can result in better scores. The following table summarizes the results of the control group:

Student N	R F	PO	PS	Total
Student 1	2	1.5	2	5.5
Student 2	2.5	2.5	2	7
Student 3	2.5	2	2.5	7
Student 4	1.5	2	1.5	4.5
Student 5	3	3	3	9
Student 6	3	2.5	2.5	8
Student 7	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5
Student 8	2	2.5	2	6.5
Student 9	1.5	2	2	5.5
Student 10	2.5	3	3	8.5
Student 11	3	3	2.5	8
student 12	2	2	2	6
Student 13	2.5	2.5	2.5	7.5
Student 14	3	2	2.5	6.5
Student 15	3	3	2.5	8.5
Student 16	3.5	3	3	9.5
Student 17	4	3.5	3.5	11
Student 18	1.5	1.5	2	4.5
Student 19	2	2	2.5	6.5
Student 20	2.5	2	2.5	7
Student 21	2	2	2	6
student 22	1	1	1	3
Student 23	1.5	1.5	2	5
Student 24	1.5	2	1.5	4.5
Student 25	2	1.5	2	5.5
Student 26	4	3.5	3.5	11
Student 27	2	2	2.5	6.5
Student 28	1.5	2.5	1.5	5
Student 29	2.5	2.5	2.5	7.5
Student 30	2	2.5	2	6
Means	2.30	2.36	2.40	7.06

**Table 23: The Scores of Describing and Narrating of the Control Group**

Table 23 represents the scores obtained by the control group for narrating and describing stories, and their performances in the classroom. The scores of narrating and describing were not convincing at all, in comparison with the scores obtained by the experimental group in argumentation. In the component of rhetorical functions, 53.33% of the total number of students got scores up to 2 since they did not exactly exploit the rhetorical functions required for the task of narrating and describing which is in contradiction with what Luoma (2004:140) said about description tasks: “Description tasks are very common in all kinds of speaking tests.” Likewise, narrative tasks are very common also in different speaking tasks. The question with these tasks is to advocate language knowledge over a number of real (like pictures) or virtual (retrieved from the mind) images. In addition, the rate of students who obtained scores which range from 2.5 to 3 is 36.11% while two students (i.e. 6.66% of the students) obtained the score 4 since they performed well in this task.

Despite the amount of time given to them, planning and organization are always neglected no matter the nature of the task. Therefore, 53.33% of the students got scores which are up to 2 only. They show weak patterns of planning and organization of the events or experiences in the stories narrated, and these patterns should represent the relationship between the events and the logical development of the story itself. While, the rate of the students who managed to obtain scores which ranged from 2.5 to 3.5 is 46.66%, and most of them elaborated one pattern of planning and organization, which is either the relationship between the events or the logical development of the story. No, student, however, achieved both of them.

The achievements of the component PS (presentation Skills) resemble the effects of the two previous components of the task. Accordingly, the achievements of the students are average-rated, and the rate is exactly 50% in total. In general, the students’ presentations were characterized by a number of deficiencies including: anxiety and stress; this resulted in

minimizing their performance in the classroom, specifically in front of their classmates. The rate of the other students' achievement is 50% of the total number, and the students performances were considered as average. They possessed self confidence to speak freely and spontaneously.

### 2.1.3 Areas of Difficulty in Narrating and Describing for the Control Group

Fluency Difficulties	Category	Number of Students	Percentage per Each Category
Rhetorical Functions	a-Describing past experiences	9	30%
	b-Narrating stories	7	23.33%
	c-Recalling information	20	66.66%
Planning and organization	A- Planning what to say.	18	56%
	B-Organization	14	46.66%
Presentation Skills.	a-Self- confidence	15	50 %
	b- Manner of Speaking	19	63.33%

**Table 24: Areas of Difficulty in Narrating and Describing for the Control Group.**

It is apparent from table 24 that the main area of difficulty for the control group in the task of narrating stories and describing is in recalling information with 66.66% of the

students, while it is also clear that students are confronted with minor difficulties in the task narrating stories with 23.33%, and even in describing past experiences with 30% of the total number of students. So, the problem of recalling information participated in deepening the information gap in the task narrating stories and describing.

In addition, lack of planning and organization during information processing was significantly noticeable. The rate of the difficulties is a bit high in both planning and organization. In planning and organization, the rates vary significantly in between 56% in total, and 46.66% in information organization, and they are altogether related to proceduralization of information. Mostly, the difficulty is found in the criterion of patterning information into types and planning what to say next.

In the component presentation skills, the component self confidence affected to a large extent the students' manner of speaking. Henceforth, our students cannot say whatever they like, simply because they are restricted to achieving the task at hand. This makes the task more complicated, and they lost self confidence as table 23 shows that 50% of them were anxious. In turn, the manner of speaking of 63.33% out of the students changed abruptly and they started making mistakes unconsciously.

### **3.1The Coefficient Correlation**

The coefficient correlation statistics are done on the basis of calculating fluency and accuracy achievements (X) with its mean ( $\bar{X}$ ), and task achievements (Y) with its mean ( $\bar{Y}$ ). The calculations made help identify the relationship between the research variables fluency and rhetorical argumentation and accuracy and rhetorical argumentation.

Group	Fluency and accuracy X	Means $\bar{X}$	Task Achievements Y	Means $\bar{Y}$
Experimental Group	248.5	7.1	242	6.9
Control Group	207.75	6.7	205	6.8

**Table 25: The Coefficient Correlation Statistics Results**

The above table represents the sum of accuracy and fluency scores obtained by the students in both groups during the pre-test. To make the calculations clear, the items fluency and accuracy are referred to as X and the means as  $\bar{X}$ . Furthermore, the task achievements are referred to as Y and the means as  $\bar{Y}$ .

The correlation between the variables X and Y was calculated according to Pearson's correlation coefficient. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient ( $r$ ) is one of the statistical values that indicate the strength, and the direction of the relationship between the variables. It can be as high as (+1) when the relationship is positive. This implies that if the value of one variable increases, so does the other one and vice versa. When the relationship is negative, ( $r$ ) can have a value as high as (-1), and this means that when one variable increases the other decreases and vice versa. To sum up, the nearer is ( $r$ ) to (1) the stronger is the relationship between the variables (Brown, 1988; Cohen and Manion, 1980). The calculation of the coefficient led to a number of statistical measures through which we identify the following calculations:

-Means  $\bar{X}$

-Variance

- T-test

Hence, the correlation between the variables is calculated on two levels. The first level is X and Y which are used to calculate the relationship between accuracy and argumentation, and the second level is X<sup>2</sup> and Y<sup>2</sup> used to calculate the relationship between fluency and argumentation.

Accordingly, we used the following formula to calculate the coefficient correlation (r). The value of this element is calculated through the following equation:

$$r = \frac{n (\sum xy) - (\sum x) (\sum y)}{\sqrt{[n \sum x^2 - (\sum x)^2][n \sum y^2 - (\sum y)^2]}}$$

$$r = \frac{35 (1917.37) - (248.5)(242)}{\sqrt{[35 * 2103.92 - 61752.25][35 * 1904.75 - 58546]}}$$

$$r = \frac{6970.95}{9812.99}$$

$$r = 0.7$$

### 3.3 Means Comparison

Means comparison is the description of the comparison made between the dependent variables of both groups. These are each group's mean, the difference between both means, the standard deviation of each group's scores, and the square value of each (SD).

- A group's mean formula is:  $\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{N}$

Where  $\bar{X}$ = mean, X=Scores, N=Number of scores.

- Experimental group mean ( $\bar{X}_a$ ) =  $\frac{248.5}{35} = 7.1$
- Control group mean ( $\bar{X}_b$ ) =  $\frac{207.75}{30} = 6.9$



• Difference between means =  $\bar{X}_a - \bar{X}_b = 7.1 - 6.9 = 0.2$

The standard deviation is calculated as follows:  $SD = \sqrt{\frac{\sum(X - \bar{X})^2}{N}}$

Standard deviation, then, requires that the mean ( $\bar{X}$ ) is subtracted from each score ( $X - \bar{X}$ ). Each of the resulting values is squared ( $(X - \bar{X})^2$ ) then added up ( $\sum$ ). After this, the sum ( $\sum$ ) is divided by the number of scores (N=35 for the experimental group, and N=30 for the control group) the result of the square root gives us the standard deviation.

$$SD_A = \sqrt{\frac{162.9}{35}}$$

$$= \sqrt{4.65} \quad SD_A = 2.15$$

$$SD_B = \sqrt{\frac{153.59}{30}}$$

$$= \sqrt{4.38} \quad SD_B = 2.09$$

The T-ration formula is calculated as follows:

$$T = \frac{\bar{X}_a - \bar{X}_b}{\sqrt{\frac{SD_a^2}{N_a} + \frac{SD_b^2}{N_b}}}$$

$$T = \frac{0.2}{\sqrt{\frac{2.15^2}{35} + \frac{2.09^2}{30}}}$$

$$T = 0.55$$

Since the sample size is 65, the degree of freedom is  $(df = n - 2) = 63$ . Therefore, comparing the critical value of T which is 0.55 and the sample size divided by 100 to get the Alpha level:

$$\frac{63}{100} = 0.63 .$$

Statistically speaking, to prove the validity or invalidity of the first hypothesis:

H<sub>1</sub>: if students are taught how to organize information rhetorically, then they will master fluency and accuracy.

We compare the difference between the critical value  $T= 0.55$  and the value  $r=0.70$ . Since that  $r= (0.70 < 0.55)$  and the significance of the relationship between the variables should be as equal as 0. There is a strong correlation between the variables, when we say that 70% of the factors which contributed in this correlation did not happen by chance. Accordingly, only 30% of the factors occurred by chance, or it is the effect of unwanted variables like: lack of motivation, anxiety, and topic unfamiliarity. Consequently, the first hypothesis is validated.

Moving to validating the second and third hypothesis, we are now going to analyze speeches which have been recorded by the researcher to evaluate their proficiency and to measure their progress concerning fluency and accuracy.

### **3.4 Measures of Fluency and Accuracy for Each Task**

In the following research, the measures of fluency and accuracy were adopted from a number of researchers like Skehan (2001), Skehan and Foster (1997) and De Jong & Perfetti (2011). The measures of fluency are adopted to fit a wide variety of testing contexts, and it can suit students from different levels of proficiency. Therefore, we selected the most appropriate measures of fluency and we adopted them to fit our research purposes. The following table summarizes the main measures adopted in calculating fluency and accuracy:

Skehan and Foster (1997).	Accuracy	AS unit accuracy		Proportion of Error free AS units	AS unit Level
Foster (2001)	Accuracy	clause accuracy A2		Proportion of error free clauses	Clause level
De Jong and Perffetti (2011)	Fluency	Phonation ratio	time	Speaking time divided by total time	Global
De Jong and Perffetti (2011)	Fluency	Mean Length of pause (F2)	of	Average length of filled and unfilled pauses (> 200 ms)	Fluency breakdown
De Jong and Perffetti (2011).	Fluency	Mean length of fluent run (F3)	of	Average number of syllables in utterances bounded by pauses > 200 ms	Fluency proceduralization

**Table 26: Summary for Measures of Fluency and Accuracy.**

The primary concern of this research is to establish a coherent relationship between argumentation as a classroom task with fluency and accuracy as components of communicative performance. Measuring fluency and accuracy, in this research, is based on identifying the speaking time of each student. Then, all mistakes including grammar, pronunciation and syntax were counted and measured to obtain the difference between each student's proficiency since the more the students make mistakes, the less accurate they are. Meanwhile, we measured fluency by counting the number of pauses (including filled and unfilled pauses, repetitions and false starts) divided by the total time of speaking. Therefore, the Pearson's correlation coefficient of fluency and accuracy is also counted, to exhibit the effects of the tasks rhetorical argumentation and narration in both group work and individual work.

### **3.5 Fluency and Accuracy Speech Analysis Results of both Groups in the Post-test**

So far, the results of the experiment have been predictable since the first hypothesis was validated to be true. The merit of rhetorical argumentation as a classroom task equipped the students with much time to think and express themselves clearly. Eventually, the

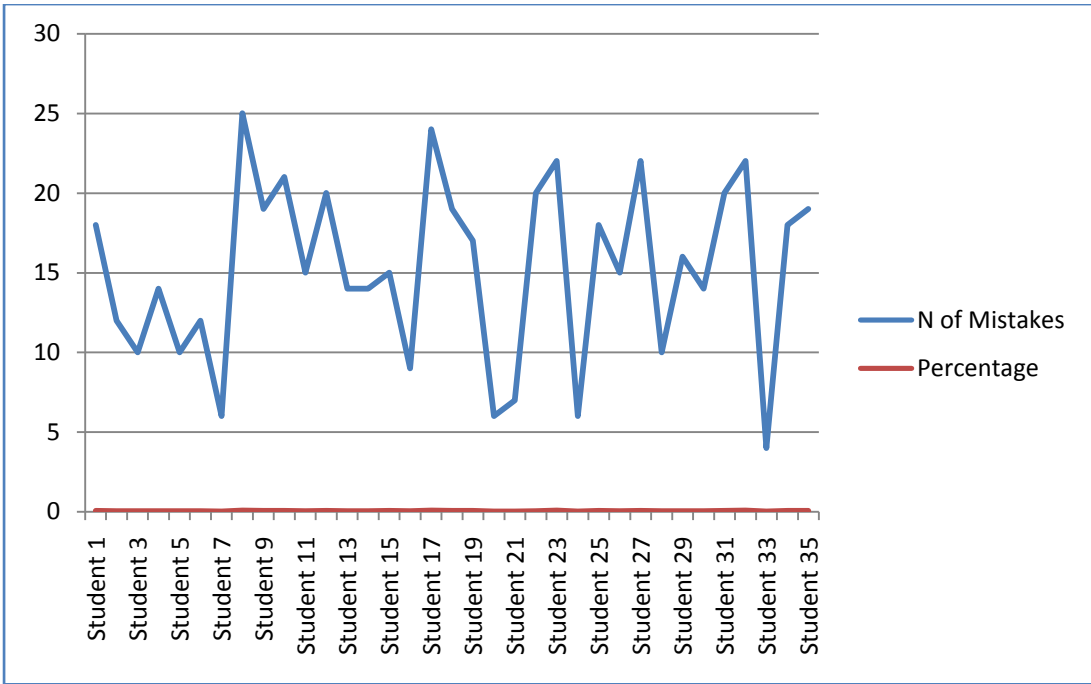
negotiation of meaning is done through stages, starting by generating and organizing the ideas, and planning what to say next, providing the listeners with as much examples and illustrations as possible in an attempt to convince the listener or at least change his point of view. But, when we speak about the difference between information processing in both tasks, rhetorical argumentation is more difficult than narration. In narration, the stimulus already exists in the mind of the narrator. Whatever the story is, the narrator can recall the information from the memory and tell the story even if it is not organized. In contrast, rhetorical argumentation is a more complex task which requires topic familiarity and language knowledge; otherwise, the ideas will not be understood very appropriately.

In addition, the complexity of the task may also affect aspects of language proficiency like fluency and accuracy. When more time is needed to think about the topic, or when the topic is not familiar, more mistakes, more pauses, and more repetitions can be made and they prevent the flow of ideas and language as well.

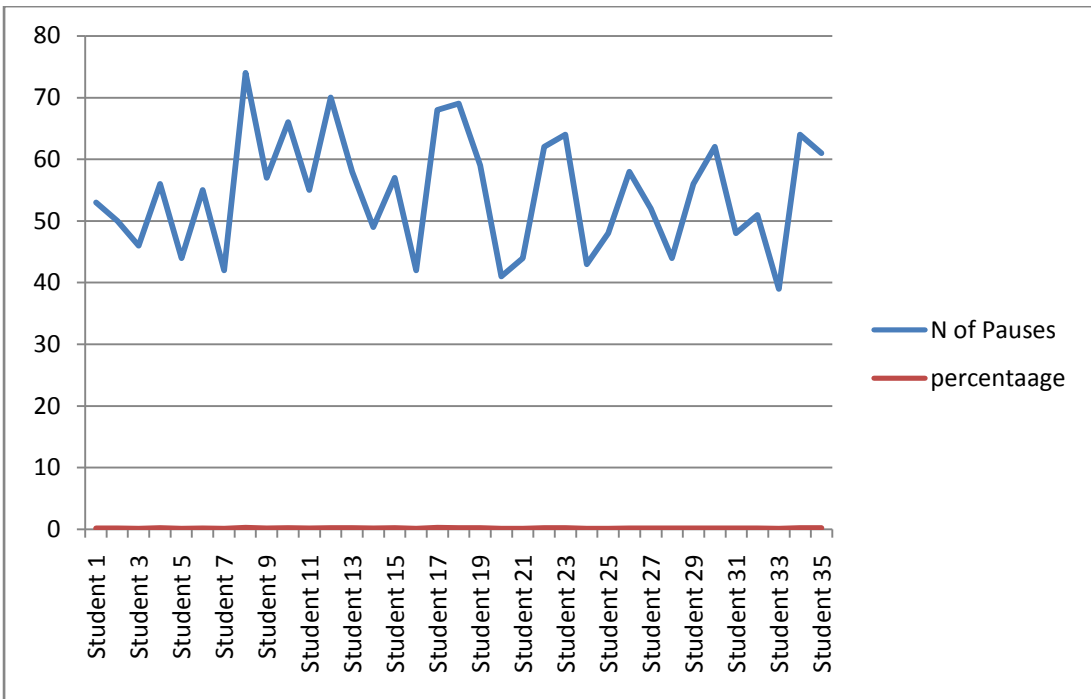
In this research, two main measures were made to count fluency. First, speech rate (total time of speaking) is calculated by Pratt (it has already been explained). Second, within speech rate itself we distinguished between all types of hesitation phenomena namely: pauses, filled pauses, short pauses, repetitions and reformulations. All these types of pauses are counted together in the speech rate. Likewise, the basic grammatical mistakes counted in accuracy are grammatical, syntactic (word order), and vocabulary. The criterion for choosing these particular measures was to capture the maximum variance in the data which was analyzed across both tasks. The following table summarizes the results the experimental group:

Student N	N of Pauses	Speaking Time	Percentage %	N of Mistakes	Percentage %
Student 1	53	5,12	16%	18	5,76%
Student 2	50	5,17	15,77%	12	3,78%
Student 3	46	5,34	13,77%	10	2,99%
Student 4	56	5,06	18,30%	14	4,57%
Student 5	44	5,44	12,79%	10	2,90%
Student 6	55	5,2	17,18%	12	3,75%
Student 7	42	5,17	13,24%	6	1,89%
Student 8	74	5,36	22,02%	25	7,44%
Student 9	57	5,58	15,92%	19	5,77%
Student 10	66	5,1	21,29%	21	6,77%
Student 11	55	5,33	16,51%	15	4,50%
student 12	70	5,27	21,40%	20	6,11%
Student 13	58	5,22	18,02%	14	4,34%
Student 14	49	5,12	15,07%	14	4,48%
Student 15	57	5,05	18,68%	15	4,91%
Student 16	42	5,15	13,33%	9	2,85%
Student 17	68	4,45	23,85%	24	8,13%
Student 18	69	5,32	20,78%	19	5,72%
Student 19	59	5,25	18,15%	17	5,23%
Student 20	41	5,13	13,03%	6	1,91%
Student 21	44	5,55	12,39%	7	1,97%
student 22	62	5,38	18,34%	20	3,71%
Student 23	64	5,11	20,57%	22	7,07%
Student 24	43	5,14	13,69%	6	1,91%
Student 25	48	5,46	13,87%	18	5,20%
Student 26	58	5,38	17,15%	15	4,43%
Student 27	52	5,17	16,40%	22	6,94%
Student 28	44	5,08	14,28%	10	3,24%
Student 29	56	4,49	16,04%	16	4,11%
Student 30	62	5,31	17,66%	14	4,22%
Student 31	48	5,22	14,90%	20	6,21%
Student 32	51	5,13	16,19%	22	7,02%
Student 33	39	5,26	11,96%	4	1,22%
Student 34	64	5,33	19,21%	18	5,40%
Student 35	61	5,29	18,54%	19	5,77%

**Table 27: Post-test Results of the Experimental Group**



**Figure 2: Accuracy Mistakes of the Experimental Group**



**Figure 3: Fluency Pauses of the experimental Group**

Table 27 summarizes the rates of the accuracy mistakes and fluency pauses of the experimental group. The speaking time of the students is enclosed between .285 seconds and .358 seconds, and we used a program named “Pratt” to count speaking time, phonation time, and the number of syllables produced per words. While the calculation of the mistakes and pauses was done manually, and we counted all kinds of accuracy mistakes including grammatical, pronunciation and syntax. We counted also pauses, hesitations, false starts and repetitions. The number of the accuracy mistakes is enclosed between 4 mistakes (i.e.1.22% from the total time of speaking) and 25 mistakes (i.e. 7.44% of the total time of speaking). Concerning the number of pauses, it is between 39 pauses (i.e. 5.26% of the total time of speaking) and 74 pauses (i.e. 22.02 of the total time of speaking).

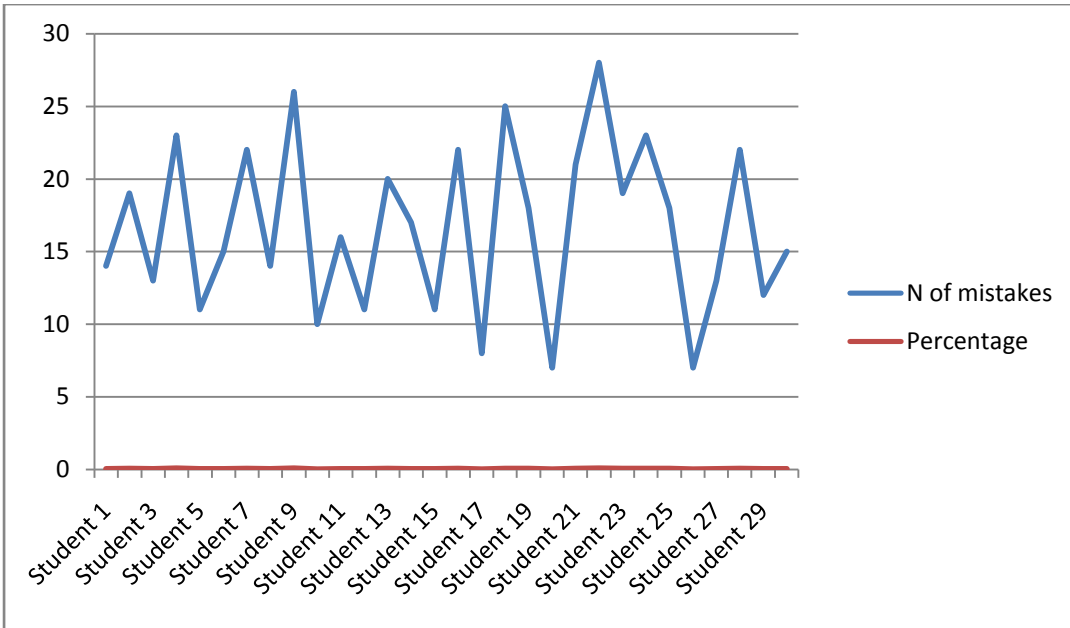
It is crystal clear that there is a correlation between fluency and accuracy. Through table 26, we can notice how close the rates of pauses are when we compare them to the number of mistakes produced in the total time of speaking. Likewise, the more the student produces mistakes, when we take into account the total time of speaking, the more pauses, hesitations and false starts are made. The reason is that, the proficiency of the student together with the difficulty of the task at hand, determine the quality of speaking produced. Likewise, students with poor English proficiency produce more mistakes, and produce more pauses because they need more time to think about what to say next than proficient students. As an example, student 8 committed 25 mistakes, and the rate of pauses reached 74 pauses, while student 33 committed only 4 mistakes and the rate of pauses is 39 pauses.

The following table demonstrates also the results of speech analysis of the control group:

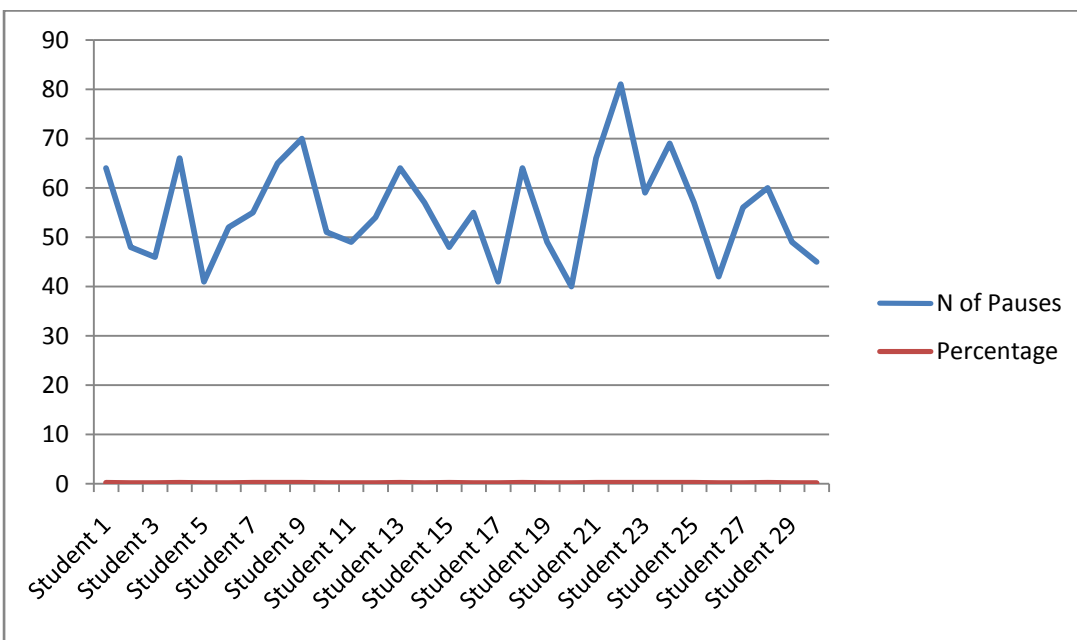
Student N	N of Pauses	Speaking time	Percentage	N of Mistakes	Percentage
Student 1	54	5,16	20,25%	14	4,43%
Student 2	48	5,43	13,99%	19	5,53%
Student 3	46	5,49	13,18%	13	3,72%
Student 4	66	5,16	20,88%	23	7,27%
Student 5	41	5,33	12,31%	11	3,30%
Student 6	52	5,25	16,09%	15	4,61%
Student 7	55	5,19	17,24%	22	6,89%
Student 8	65	5,37	19,28%	14	4,15%
Student 9	68	5,17	22,08%	26	8,20%
Student 10	51	5,31	15,40%	10	3,02%
Student 11	49	5,24	15,12%	16	4,93%
student 12	54	5,27	16,51%	11	3,36%
Student 13	64	5,09	20,71%	20	6,47%
Student 14	57	5,41	16,71%	17	4,98%
Student 15	48	5,16	18,35%	11	3,48%
Student 16	55	5,57	15,40%	22	6,16%
Student 17	41	5,44	11,91%	8	2,32%
Student 18	64	4,49	18,33%	25	7,16%
Student 19	49	5,19	15,36%	18	5,64%
Student 20	40	5,05	13,11%	7	2,29%
Student 21	66	5,12	21,15%	21	6,73%
student 22	81	5,47	23,34%	28	8,06%
Student 23	59	5,32	17,77%	19	5,88%
Student 24	60	5,29	20,97%	23	6,99%
Student 25	47	5,15	18,09%	18	5,71%
Student 26	42	5,06	13,75%	7	2,28%
Student 27	46	4,32	16,86%	13	3,91%
Student 28	60	5,28	18,29%	22	6,70%
Student 29	44	5,16	15,50%	12	3,79%
Student 30	45	5,23	13,93%	15	4,64%

**Table 28: Post-test Results of the Control Group**





**Figure 4: Accuracy Mistakes of the Control Group**



**Figure 5: Fluency Pauses of the Control Group**

The results of speech analysis were made to discover the impact of the tasks argumentation, and narration over fluency and accuracy. In so doing, we are able to compare the strengths and weaknesses of the students' proficiency level, the relationship between fluency and accuracy, and the number of pauses and mistakes committed by the students. Hence, the analysis led to a number of pinpointed results. First, the control group achieved better results in fluency than the experimental group. The reason is that, the number of pauses and hesitations of the experimental group outweighs slightly those obtained by the control group. Though, the biggest rate of all pauses was made by student 22 where he reached 81 pauses (i.e.23.34% of the total time of speaking). While the smallest rate of all pauses was made by students 5 and 17 with only 41 pauses for each (i.e. 12.31% and 11.91% respectively out of their speaking time). As a matter of fact, the mean of pauses for the control group is 53.9, and it is slightly better than the mean of the experimental group 54.48.

Second, the experimental group achieved better results in the post-test than the control group. As it has been mentioned previously (see table 20), the rates of accuracy in the experimental group are enclosed between 4 and 25 mistakes with a mean of 15.22. Meanwhile, we can see that accuracy rates of the control group represents the number of mistakes which is enclosed between 7 mistakes, and those mistakes were made by student 20 and student 26 (i.e. 2.08% of the total time), 28 mistakes were made by student 22 (i.e.8.06% of the total time of speaking), and the mean of accuracy is 16.33. When we compare the mistakes committed, pauses made, and the means of accuracy and fluency. We may say that the number of mistakes does not correspond with the rate of pauses made in this group. But, it corresponds in the experimental group, specifically, when we look at the rates obtained by student 3, 5, 8, 10, 11, 12, 9, 13, 16, 17, 20, 22, 25, 28, 29, 31, and 33. Thus, we can notice the high correlation between the number of pauses and mistakes in the students' speech performances.

### 3.6 Discussion of the Results

The trade-off between fluency and accuracy is based entirely on the students' performance and the complexity of the task itself (Ahmadian & Tavakoli, 2011; Yaun & Ellis 2003). The effects of the tasks may also comprise the students' proficiency and the components of the speaking task. That is to say, students may prefer one component of the task over the others. In another study, Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) found that the key explanation is a question of priority; the instructions of the task lead the students to prioritize one component over the others, sometimes accuracy and complexity are prioritized over fluency, specifically when the task is complex. However, when the task is easy, students focus on fluency more as it is easy for them to generate ideas.

Likewise, the students of the experimental group did not achieve good results in fluency (and this is obvious in the mean 54.48), which is bigger than that of the control group (53.9). The complexity of the task of rhetorical argumentation is represented mainly by achieving different communicative purposes, and using different rhetorical functions like illustrating and exemplifying. What affected the students directly is the time spent on planning what to say next, as Ellis (2005) called this type of task "time pressured planning", or the limited time for the students to finish the task, mainly when they are engaged in planning and restricted by time. In this research, 66% of the committed hesitations are pauses between 0.25 milliseconds and 4 seconds, and most of these pauses are filled pauses with words like (uhm and ahaaa) which are used to delay speech and generate ideas. The other types of hesitations produced are divided in between repetitions 21%, false starts 6% and fillers 7%. On the other hand, 58% of students in the control group achieved the task of narrating stories very easily. We believe that since they are dealing with the rhetorical function of narration, they already possess background knowledge concerning the stories they are narrating. Henceforth, they did not need much time in planning. The primary target of the

experimental group students in the task is argumentation, but it was difficult for them to shape the ideas properly in different contexts. They relied on examples and illustrations to give counter arguments and defend a point of view. The rates of the rhetorical functions which are implemented in the task rhetorical argumentation are as follows: argumentation (34%), exemplification and illustration (45%), explanation (31%) comparison and contrast (14%). Since a significant number of the students in the experimental group used examples and illustrations, more than 30% of them used conjunctions which express direct examples like: for example, as an example, to illustrate the point, to make it clear, as a result, and consequently. They overemphasized the use of the most common cohesive devices to ensure the smoothness of ideas like: but, and, and or.

Concerning the control group, the task was straightforward with direct story-telling; thus, the percentage of the rhetorical function of narration dominated the whole communicative purposes of the task, and the percentage of the students reached 72% of the control group. Besides, 28% of the total number of the students used other rhetorical functions like exemplifying, and explaining, specifically when it comes to describing places and characters in the stories, or to remember past experiences. This rate is considered enough to illustrate things which are new or unknown in the stories.

On the other hand, when we speak about the trade off of accuracy, the experimental group achieved better results than the control group. This is quite clear in the means achieved by both groups which are 16.33 for the control group, and 15.22 for the experimental group and this equals 5.07% and 4.45% of the total time of speaking respectively. We believe that, both the difficulty of the task and the time spent on planning participated to a large extent in changing the students focus, and shifting from generating fluency to building accuracy. Since the task of rhetorical argumentation was more difficult than narrating stories, students dedicated more time to planning. More pauses were created and the level of fluency

decreased, and the main concern of students was procedural fluency. Guilot (1999) claimed that procedural fluency is achieved by increasing pauses to give learners time to think and generate ideas. The second type of fluency is called “automatic fluency” and was explained by Bailystock (1982) as speed of delivery through which knowledge is processed easily and quickly. Henceforth, when the students of the control group were engaged in processing the stories, they used a similar type of automatic fluency to tell their stories, and they focused on fluency at the expense of accuracy. The shift of emphasis between fluency and accuracy is determined by the type of the task, or the activity implemented because the roles of fluency and accuracy are interchangeable and it is always difficult for learners to focus on both of them.

### **3.7 Coefficient Correlation between Fluency and Accuracy**

To validate or invalidate the second hypothesis which is:

If rhetorical argumentation is used as a communicative task in the classroom, then the students’ level of fluency and accuracy will raise. We are going to calculate again the correlation coefficient ( $r$ ) which is based entirely on finding the relationship between the values  $X$  and  $Y$ . In our research, the value  $X$  stands for accuracy and the value  $Y$  stands for fluency. The correlation between fluency and accuracy is going to be calculated on two levels: the first level is calculated for the experimental group, to find the correlation between fluency accuracy and argumentation, and the second level is to calculate the correlation between the variables fluency and accuracy and narrating stories in the control group.

The other necessary calculations which we need to conduct in here are: the t-test the value of the standard deviation  $SD$  of each variable (fluency and accuracy), we will refer to the standard deviation of accuracy as  $SD_1$ , and we will refer to the standard deviation of

fluency as SD<sub>2</sub> in both groups. The following table summarizes all the statistical measures of the experimental group:

Student N	Accuracy(X)	Fluency(Y)	XY	X <sup>2</sup>	Y <sup>2</sup>	A( $\underline{X-X}$ ) <sup>2</sup>	F( $\underline{X-X}$ ) <sup>2</sup>
Student 1	18	53	954	324	2809	7,72	2,91
Student 2	12	50	600	144	2500	10,36	20,07
Student 3	10	46	460	100	2116	27,24	71,91
Student 4	14	56	784	196	3136	1,48	2,31
Student 5	10	44	440	100	1936	27,24	109,83
Student 6	12	55	825	144	3025	10,36	0,27
Student 7	6	42	252	36	1764	85	155,7
Student 8	25	74	1850	625	5476	95,64	381,03
Student 9	19	57	1083	361	3249	14,28	8,71
Student 10	21	66	1386	441	4356	33,4	132,7
Student 11	15	55	825	225	3025	0,04	0,27
student 12	20	70	1400	400	4900	22,84	231,04
Student 13	14	58	812	196	3364	1,48	12,93
Student 14	14	49	686	196	2401	1,48	30,03
Student 15	15	57	855	225	3249	0,04	8,71
Student 16	9	42	378	81	1764	38,68	155,7
Student 17	24	68	1632	576	4624	77,08	182,79
Student 18	19	69	1311	361	4761	14,28	210,83
Student 19	17	59	1003	289	3481	3,16	20,43
Student 20	6	41	246	36	1681	85	181,71
Student 21	7	44	308	49	1936	67,56	109,83
student 22	20	62	1240	400	3844	22,84	1600
Student 23	22	64	1408	484	4096	45,96	83,9
Student 24	6	43	258	36	1849	85	131,79
Student 25	18	48	864	324	2304	7,22	41,99
Student 26	15	58	870	225	3364	0,04	12,93
Student 27	22	52	1144	484	2704	45,96	6,15
Student 28	10	44	440	100	1936	27,24	109,83
Student 29	16	56	896	256	3136	0,6	2,31
Student 30	14	62	868	196	3844	1,48	1600
Student 31	20	48	960	400	2304	22,84	41,99
Student 32	22	51	1122	484	2601	45,96	12,11
Student 33	4	39	156	16	1521	125,88	239,63
Student 34	18	64	1152	324	4096	7,22	83,9
Student 35	19	61	1159	361	3721	14,28	42,51
Total	533	1907	30627	9795	117565	1076,52	6093,37

**Table 29: X and Y Statistical Measures of the Experimental Group**

Table 28 demonstrates the statistical measures implemented to calculate: the correlation coefficient (r) and the  $\sum$  of X (accuracy) and the  $\sum$  of Y (Fluency), and the rest of the calculations are made to help calculate the other equations in the correlation coefficient (r). These calculations include the sum  $\sum XY$  the sum  $\sum X^2$ , and the sum of  $\sum(X-X)$ .

- A group's mean formula is:  $\underline{X}: \frac{\sum X}{N}$

So, the mean of accuracy is  $\underline{X}: \frac{533}{35} = 15.22$

The mean of fluency is  $Y: \frac{1907}{35} = 54.48$

$$r = \frac{n(\sum xy) - (\sum x)(\sum y)}{\sqrt{[n\sum x^2 - (\sum x)^2][n\sum y^2 - (\sum y)^2]}}$$

$$r = \frac{35(30627) - (533)(1907)}{\sqrt{[35 * 9795 - (284089)][35 * 117565 - (3636649)]}}$$

$$r = \frac{61514}{167580.45}$$

$$r = 0.36$$

Now, we calculate the standard deviation SD of fluency and accuracy while the following formula is used to calculate the standard deviation:  $SD = \sqrt{\frac{\sum(X-X)^2}{N}}$

$$SD_1 = \sqrt{\frac{1076.52}{35}}$$

$$SD_1 = \sqrt{30.75}$$

$$SD_1 = 5.54$$

$$SD_2 = \sqrt{\frac{6093.37}{35}}$$

$$SD_2 = \sqrt{174.09}$$

$$SD_2 = 13.19$$

We can say that, the real negative effect, which appears, here, even before we start comparing the final achievements of both groups, is triggered by the unfamiliarity of the students with both the task and the topics discussed. This was discussed extensively by many researchers who investigated the area of second language acquisitions like Bygate (1987) and Krashen (1987). They agree on the fact that the unfamiliarity of the task may prevent the learners from expressing themselves clearly because even if they possess ideas about the topic, they are not proficient to process information faster.

The following table demonstrates the statistical measures of the control group which are implemented to calculate the relationship between the task of narrating stories, and the speaking production (fluency and accuracy) of the students. All the other statistical measures required to assemble this correlation are made in the table to help calculate the values of ( $r$ ) the mean  $\bar{X}$ ,  $\bar{Y}$ , and the standard deviation  $SD$ .



	Accuracy	Fluency	XY	X2	Y2	A (X-X)2	F (X-Y)2
Student 1	14	54	756	196	2916	5,42	0,01
Student 2	19	48	912	361	2304	7,12	34,81
Student 3	13	46	598	169	2116	11,08	62,41
Student 4	23	66	1518	529	4356	44,48	146,41
Student 5	11	41	451	121	1681	28,4	166,41
Student 6	15	52	780	225	2704	1,76	3,61
Student 7	22	55	1210	484	3025	32,14	1,21
Student 8	14	65	910	196	4225	5,42	123,21
Student 9	26	68	1768	676	4624	93,5	198,81
Student 10	10	51	500	100	2601	40,06	8,41
Student 11	16	49	784	256	2401	0,1	24,01
student 12	11	54	594	121	2916	28,4	0,01
Student 13	20	64	1280	400	4096	13,46	110,25
Student 14	17	57	969	289	3249	0,44	9,61
Student 15	11	48	528	121	2304	28,4	34,81
Student 16	22	55	1210	484	3025	32,14	1,21
Student 17	8	41	328	64	1681	69,38	166,41
Student 18	25	64	1600	625	4096	75,16	110,25
Student 19	18	49	882	324	2401	2,78	24,01
Student 20	7	40	280	49	1600	87,04	193,21
Student 21	21	66	1386	441	4356	21,8	146,41
student 22	28	81	2268	784	6561	136,18	734,41
Student 23	19	59	1121	361	3481	7,12	26,01
Student 24	23	60	1380	529	3600	44,48	37,21
Student 25	18	47	846	324	2209	2,78	47,61
Student 26	7	42	294	49	1764	87,04	141,61
Student 27	13	46	598	169	2116	11,08	62,41
Student 28	22	60	1320	484	3600	32,14	37,21
Student 29	12	44	528	144	1936	18,74	98,01
Student 30	15	45	675	225	2025	176	79,21
	500	1617	28274	9300	88969	1144,04	3563,5

**Table 30: X and Y Statistical Measures of the Control Group**

The mean is  $\underline{X} = \frac{\sum X}{N}$

$$\underline{X} = \frac{500}{30} =$$

16.33

53.90

$$\bar{Y} = \frac{1617}{30} =$$

$$r = \frac{n(\sum xy) - (\sum x)(\sum y)}{\sqrt{[n\sum x^2 - (\sum x)^2][n\sum y^2 - (\sum y)^2]}}$$

$$r = \frac{30 * (28274) - (500)(1617)}{\sqrt{[35 * 9300 - (250000)][35 * 88969 - (2614689)]}}$$

$$r = \frac{25109}{61396.45}$$

$$r = 0.40$$

The standard deviation of accuracy and fluency for the control group:

$$SD = \sqrt{\frac{\sum(X-X)^2}{N}}$$

$$SD_1 = \sqrt{\frac{1144.04}{30}}$$

$$SD_1 = \sqrt{38.16} \quad SD_1 = 6.17$$

$$SD_2 = \sqrt{\frac{3563.5}{30}}$$

$$SD_2 = \sqrt{118.17} \quad SD_2 = 10.89$$

Now, we need to calculate the T-ratio of the means obtained in fluency and accuracy.

$$T_1 = \frac{X - X}{\sqrt{\frac{(SD 1)^2}{Na} + \frac{(SD 2)^2}{Nb}}}$$

$$T_1 = \frac{15.22 - 16.33}{\sqrt{\frac{(5.45)^2}{35} + \frac{(6.17)^2}{35}}}$$

$$T_1 = 0.52$$

We are required to count the t-ratio in fluency as well

$$T_2 = \frac{54.48 - 53.9}{\sqrt{\frac{(13.9)^2}{30} + \frac{(10.89)^2}{30}}}$$

$$T_2 = \frac{0.58}{3.22}$$

$$T_2 = 0.18$$

In order to prove the rejection or acceptance of the second hypothesis:

H<sub>2</sub>: if rhetorical argumentation is used as a classroom task, students may develop fluency and accuracy in speaking. We opted to make a number of other statistical measures. First, the degree of freedom of the two groups is counted by subtracting 2 out of the total number of students df=65-2=63

Hence to get the alpha level A:

$$A = \frac{63}{100} = 0.63$$

Since the rate of the T-ratio in both fluency and accuracy is 0.18 and 0.52, and the rates are not bigger ( $\leq$ ) than the rate of the Alpha level the correlation between the variables

accuracy and fluency is weak. Therefore, we say that 65% of the factors occurred haphazardly. In this case, the hypothesis is rejected by saying that the means obtained by the experimental group in fluency and accuracy are not significantly higher than that obtained by the control group. Finally, to validate or invalidate the last hypothesis in this research which is:

Rhetorical argumentation is more suitable than narrating stories for teaching fluency and accuracy in academic contexts. The measures for calculating the validity or invalidity were made, when we calculated the difference between the means of fluency and accuracy of both the control group and the experimental group:

Group	SD X	SD Y	Means <u>X</u>	Means <u>Y</u>
Experimental Group	5.54	13.19	15.22	54.48
Control Group	6.17	10.89	16.33	53.90

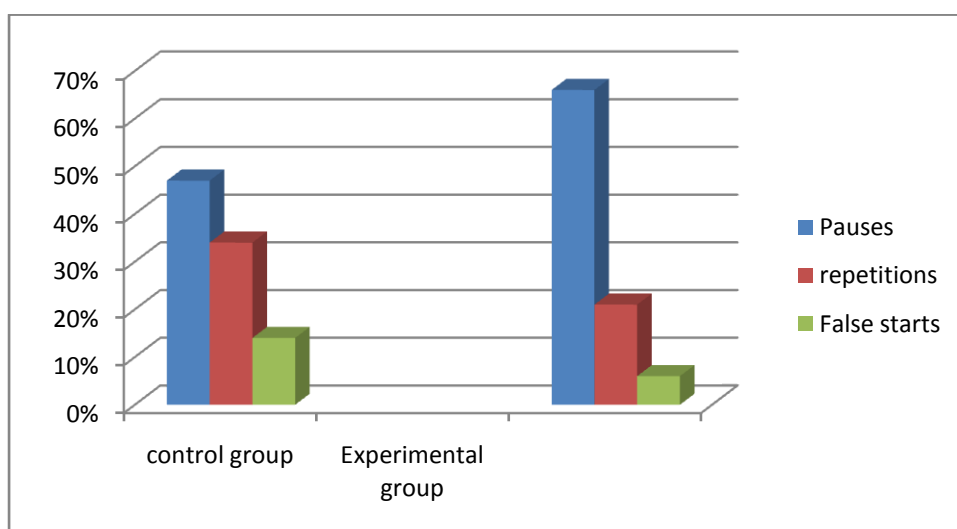
**Table 31: The Coefficient Correlation Statistics Results.**

Looking at the previous calculated Pearson's coefficient correlation ( $r$ ) as the rate of the experimental group is 0.36, while the rate of the control group is 0.40. When we compare the two rates  $0.36 \geq 0.40$ , we can say that the rate of the experimental group is less than that obtained by the control group. Thus, rhetorical argumentation is as equally important as the task narrating stories. The null hypothesis  $H_0$  is also rejected since narrating stories is suitable for fluency and argumentation is not suitable for accuracy.

### 3.8 Discussion of the results

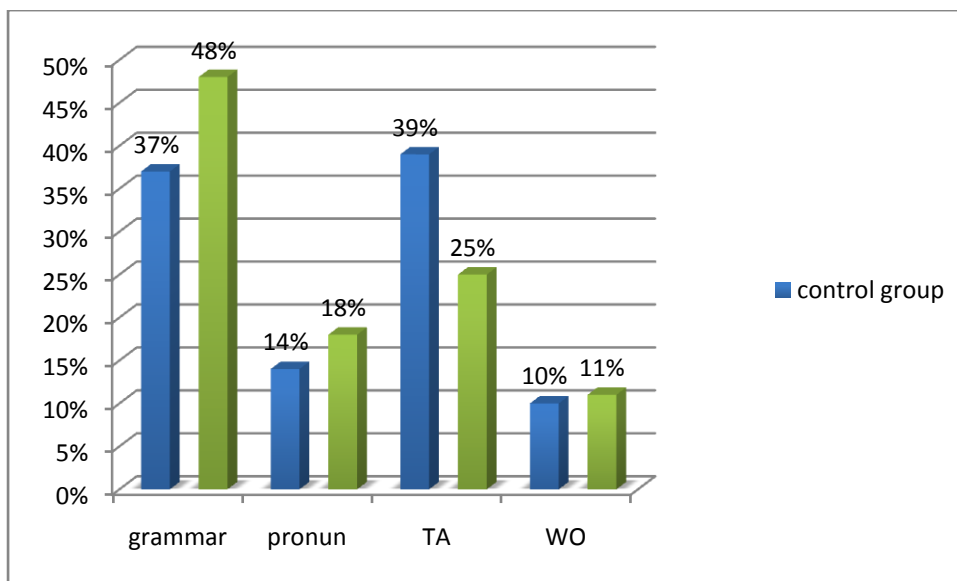
The results of the post-test were unpredictable. First, the second hypothesis is rejected and there is no correlation between accuracy and the task of rhetorical argumentation.

Statistically speaking, the control group achieved better results than the experimental group in fluency and this is due to pauses and length of pauses. In the post-test, the experimental group needed more time for the task rhetorical argumentation. Evidently, it is very clear that the difficulty of the task contributed in increasing the number of pauses as the mean is  $\Sigma$ : 54.48 against  $\Sigma$  53.9 and the experimental group got a slightly better mean in accuracy. Generally speaking, the time spent in pausing during speaking is between 0.60 millisecond (about half a second) and 4 seconds, while the experimental group produced more and longer pauses than the control group. As it has been mentioned before, 66% of the hesitation phenomenon for the experimental group are pauses. Most of them are long pauses stretching from 1.5 to 4 seconds the rest are fillers, and false starts. Meanwhile, the control group hesitation phenomenon rates are divided in between 47% pauses, 39% are repetitions, and 14% false starts. The length of pauses is enclosed between 0.75 milliseconds and 3 seconds, and the pauses produced by the control group are less long and less frequent. Besides, the standard deviation of both groups show how difficult the task of rhetorical argumentation is, and it significantly shows the relationship between planning, producing pauses and making mistakes.



**Figure 6: Percentage of Fluency Indices.**

Second, the analysis shows that students of the experimental group are more accurate when it comes to grammar and spelling mistakes. The mean of the mistakes committed in the experimental group is 15.22, while the mean of the control group is 16.33. The number of the mistakes is inconsistent in both groups, and it does not match the tasks with their communicative complexity. The experimental group committed grammatical mistakes, while the control group committed pronunciation and tense agreement mistakes. The following figure summarizes accuracy mistakes in both groups:



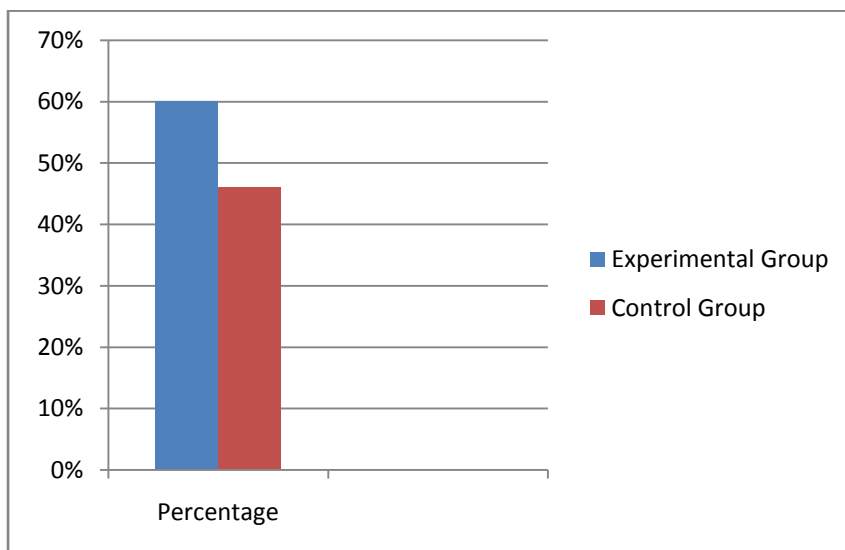
**Figure 7: Percentage of Accuracy Indices**

### 3.9 Comparative Achievements of the Post-Test

#### 3.9.1 Planning Time

Planning strategies are meta-cognitive strategies which are not directly involved with language use. Strategies which differed were organizational planning, and they are used to plan the macro structure of the task and organize what should be said. It is divided into pre-time planning and in-time planning.

In the posttest, the amount of time spent by students in planning was mainly divided into two categories. The first category is called “pre-task planning”, and this is the most crucial time of the task, the measurement of this time starts when the students are given the task till when they start speaking. In this time, students are busy brainstorming and generating as much ideas as possible very quickly, and this time lasts from 30 to 60 seconds for the control group, and 30 to 100 seconds for the experimental group not exceeding 2 minutes, but the students are free either to take the most of it, or leave it. Students of the experimental group used planning time more than students of the control group in both categories since 60% of them used most of their planning time in the experimental group, and equally 46% of the students adopted planning what to say next before speaking in the control group. The results are demonstrated in the following figure:



**Figure 8: Planning Time Ratio Scale**

The reason behind the use of organizational patterns of planning is that the task rhetorical argumentation is more open for idea generation which requires organization and planning, so students prepared a lot before the discussion of the topics. On the task narrating stories, due to its closed interactive design for less planning, as the task was predictable and it

was mainly developed in the course of interaction. This meaning was evident and they needed the task only to search for the appropriate language, while in the task rhetorical argumentation more time was needed to think about the meaning of the elements of the task as well as language. The students exerted themselves in planning to achieve the following:

Understanding the Task: getting a general idea of the task

Planning and Organization: generate and organize the ideas according to importance and visualize the speaking headlines of the task.

Setting goals and recognizing the communicative purposes: preparing notions and concepts, like examples and illustrations.

When we compare the time spent on planning and organizing activities (planning and generating ideas), we noticed that these activities require much time. The students focused on only the first two activities since they are simple and do not take too much time, while the other activities were done randomly in the second planning time category.

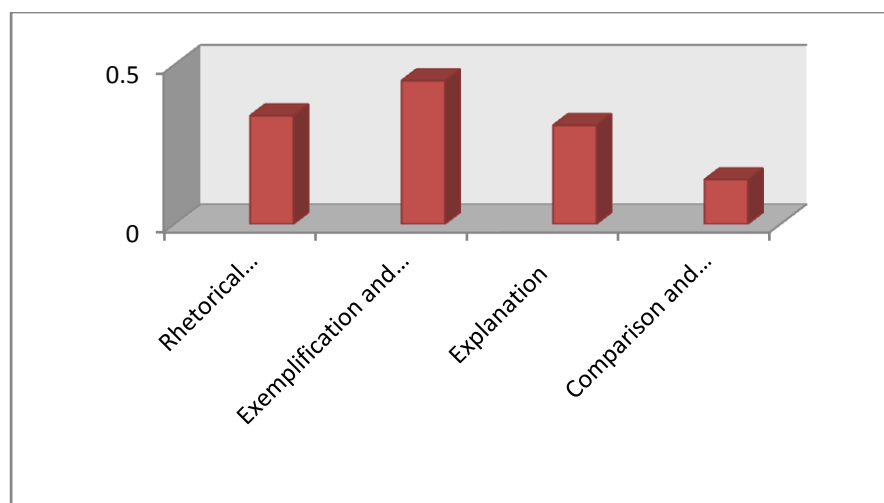
During the tasks, the experimental group is charged with two functions: focusing on fluency and accuracy, and producing as much ideas as possible in a limited period of time. To be more specific, both groups were given the same amount of speaking time, except some minor differences in pre-planning time. What has been noticed is that, students in both groups spoke faster than usual, and the speaking production of the students in the control group was characterized by lexical variety, complexity in accuracy, and language fluency. There is a relationship between lexical complexity and lexical accuracy in the control group. It is evident from the statistics that the control's group standard deviation is 6.17, and the total of all accuracy mistakes in the group is  $\Sigma$ : 500 while the mean is 16.66. If the control group students did not find it very difficult to produce smooth English, this is mainly because they



are not required to organize the stories chronologically. The standard deviation of the control group in fluency is 10.89, and the mean is 53.9, and it is better than the mean of the experimental group. On the other hand, we found a high correlation between planning and fluency. The more students use planning (to think about what to say next), and the more they produce hesitation phenomenon like pauses and repetitions when they speak. This also affected accuracy since students of the experimental group had much time to focus on what they are saying, the mean of accuracy is 15.22 which makes a divergence of 1.44 from that of the experimental group, while the mean of fluency is 54.48 which makes a divergence of + 0.58. The divergence between the groups in the standard deviation is -0.63 in accuracy and - 2.3 in fluency. The divergences of the groups indicate that the the control group achieved better in fluency and the experimental group achieved better in accuracy.

### 3.9.1 Rhetorical Functions

The aim of both tasks is to achieve fluency and accuracy. The nature of both tasks is different. The experimental group achieved a number of communicative purposes which are generated under the main purpose of the task rhetorical argumentation which is persuasion. The following diagram summarizes the rhetorical functions used:



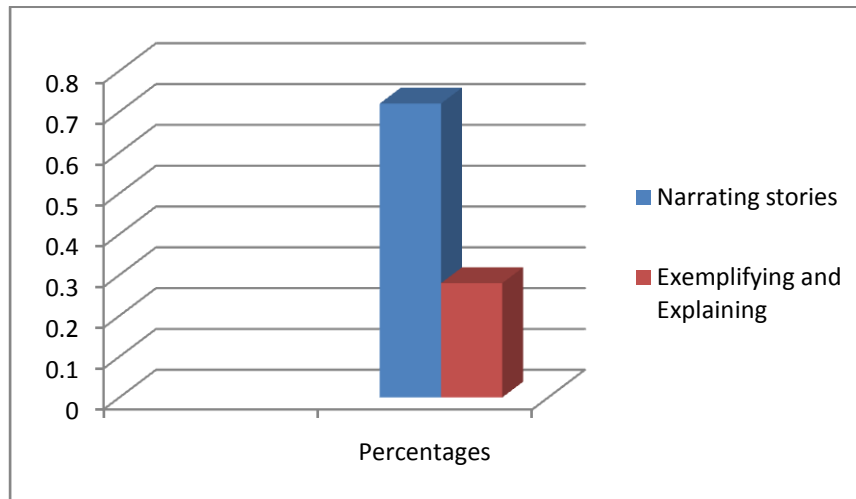
**Figure 9: Rhetorical Functions Employed by the Experimental Group**

The divergence in the use of rhetorical functions was expected as it extends its boundaries to communicative purposes and strategies as well. Most of the communicative purposes assembled together with rhetorical argumentation are persuasive. The students carried out discussions via negotiating the meaning and such type of information gap are characterized by employing a lot of communicative purposes. In addition to persuasion, the rhetorical functions of exemplifications and illustration are always needed in highly-demanding tasks. These rhetorical functions are used to complete problem-solving situations, when the speaker is obliged to give more supporting ideas and examples to convince the listeners. Although, the task rhetorical argumentation requires a lot of explanations, our students used it only occasionally as it was substituted by exemplification and illustrations.

Clearly, most of the communicative strategies which accompanied the process of negotiating the meaning are set around information gap and problem-solving. As a result, students used interactional strategies such as information comprehension and expressing difficult ideas. These strategies are very helpful with the interpretation of the message, specifically when difficult, illogical or unaccepted ideas are discussed.

The results show that 45% the experimental group students employed exemplification and illustration more than any other rhetorical function. The second highest rate is recorded in rhetorical argumentation as 34% of students employed argumentation, while other students used explanation (31%) as equally important as the main rhetorical function of the task. Other students used comparison and contrast (14%) as a means to convey meaningful messages.

### 3.9.2 Rhetorical Functions



**Figure 10: Rhetorical Functions Employed by the Control Group**

We notice from figures 9 and 10 that the rhetorical functions used in the task rhetorical argumentation outweigh those used in the task of narrating stories. The control group employed only two rhetorical functions: narrating stories 72% of the students, and exemplifying and explaining 28% of students. However, students of the experimental group were involved in a complex task. They have to adapt a given point of view, try to defend it through explanations and examples, and speak fluently and accurately. The overall aim of the task of rhetorical argumentation is to promote the negotiation of meaning. Unfortunately, students of the experimental group could not cope with the outcomes of the task of rhetorical argumentation. It is cognitively demanding, and it requires good language planning in addition to a sufficient amount of time. The requirements of the task do not conform to the amount of time given for planning.

On the other hand, the task subjected for the control group was not highly demanding, and it does not require too much planning. The students are required to achieve two communicative purposes narrating stories and recalling past experiences. The task was not

cognitively demanding because the students already possess schema knowledge about the topic. They started narrating the stories as they know them; they were not even asked to organize the content. This led to accuracy complexity when most of the students used lexical variety when they received ideas. The fact is that, in narrating stories, students already possess stimulus (schema knowledge), and all they have to do is to start speaking automatically, they even borrowed some difficult words to use in their stories, and they were completely engaged in automatic fluency.

### **3.9.3 Anxiety and Motivation**

Despite the difference between the tasks and their implementation in the test, the students' level of anxiety in both groups was recorded low. The researcher noticed that most of the students in both groups were not anxious, and did not show great level of fear and anxiety, although they knew that the marks they obtained are counted as their exam marks. This distinction was noticed as follows: in the experimental group, 74.68% of the students felt at ease, they spoke spontaneously; among these students 20% used gestures and facial expressions as part of the whole communicative process. The rate of students who were a bit nervous is 25.71%, and this affected their proficiency directly as they said things randomly and they committed too many mistakes. In the control group, 60% of the students were relaxed specifically because they found the task of narrating stories easy. The behavior of the other 12 students was divided into two categories: 10 were a little nervous and they started messing with the ideas of their stories, and the last 2 students were very nervous till we could not understand their stories.

Concerning motivation, the results show that the students of the experimental group were more motivated than the control group. Accordingly, 40% in the control group were motivated and willing to impress the teacher with new information. This shows that the

rhythm of telling the stories was the same, and there was no interaction between the researcher and the students, and it was a one way conversation between the speaker and listeners. In contrast, 65% of the experimental group was motivated for many reasons:

- The task was not new and they liked it.
- The task was in the form of a discussion, so it is two-way information.
- Students devote the task time to defending their points of view.
- They received counter arguments and comments and even judgments during the task.
- The questions they asked are interesting and they were not clumsy or awkward.
- They received different questions.

### **3.9.4 Task Complexity**

As it has been discussed before, the complexity of the tasks is sketched in two criteria: planning time and the rhetorical functions used in each task. The time limit created complexity in both accuracy and fluency. In total, the complexity in accuracy was found among students of the control group, and 60% of its students committed a high range of mistakes. This rate is considered high for second year students who studied English for two years. In the experimental group, 42% of the students committed grammatical mistakes. The complexity in accuracy is regarded as a result of the lack of planning, and this was mainly during the implementation of the communicative purposes of task as a prerequisite in the presentations and the examination.

Furthermore, the task was easy for the control group and a bit difficult for the experimental group. This complexity is partly caused by the effects of the task cognitive loads or demands. As stated by Brown et.al (1984) and Prahbu (1987) the task demands impose complexities for learners, and this depends mainly on their proficiency. Likewise,

rhetorical argumentation imposed on the students of the experimental group procedural fluency, in which time planning is important to think about what to say next and to process information quickly, and, here, they used long pauses to process information. Besides, students were not informed about the nature of the topics before the test; consequently, they did not possess any cognitive loads and they were obliged to use real life examples and explanations to keep the language flowing. Further, the task subjected to the control group was not highly demanding and the students used automatic fluency since they had background information about their stories in their minds.

Generally speaking, the students of the experimental group were confronted with a difficult task to achieve some communicative purposes like: convincing, arguing, judging, and commenting. They were obliged to embed other rhetorical functions like: explaining, exemplifying and illustrating. Unexpectedly, the difficulty of the task of rhetorical argumentation affected more fluency than accuracy. Swain (2001) discussed the impact of task difficulty over the learners' proficiency achievements, he discussed the difference between one-way, two-way, and multi-way classification of language tasks, and he argued that multi-tasks are more difficult when teachers use them to provide core meaning in more complex contexts which assimilate real life situations. The difficulty is determined by a whole range of task features or conditions that must be manipulated in the task, to compare their impact upon discourse variation and language variation.

The complexity of the task of rhetorical argumentation was crystal clear, and the difficulty of achieving the task was higher in the experimental group. As a result, 51.32% of the students completed the task with great difficulty. They provided a lot of efforts to plan for what to say, and how to say it. The difficulty of the task affected fluency, and the students did not achieve the expected results in it. They produced more pauses than the rest of the students. Only 20% of the students controlled the effects of the task and its complexity.

Mostly, they opted for arguing while they used online-planning (planning during the task), and they expressed themselves freely and spontaneously. The performance of 28% of the students was considered 'medium', as it is characterized by pauses and hesitations.

The students of the control group achieved better results in fluency and not in accuracy. The task of narrating stories was easier than the task of rhetorical argumentation. The students skipped many information processing stages like planning, while some other students used only online-planning. In the control group, 36.66% of the students provided great efforts specifically to magnify their stories from short to long. They used stretches of some spoken discourse from the stories, and a sample of ideas from real life situations. This is due to lack of both pre-task planning and online planning. Most of the other students narrated the stories properly, and this gave them self confidence to speak fluently and with less mistakes. The communicative events were achieved accurately by 43.33% of the students as they understood the purpose of the task and narrated the stories very smoothly.

Finally, 20% of the students achieved poor proficiency in terms of both fluency and accuracy. The cognitive demands of the task of rhetorical argumentation have clearly affected the performance of the students. The relation between the cognitive demands of the task and the performance of the students was discussed by Skehan (2001) as they are divided into three categories: code complexity, cognitive complexity and communicative stress.

Code complexity is mainly linguistics complexity which occurs with the lack of linguistic competence, and it should be substituted with communication strategies to avoid all kinds of ambiguities. Both the control group and experimental group were exposed to the lack of linguistic competence and they are significantly correlated with the nature of the tasks. Accordingly, the students used a number of communicative strategies namely:

avoidance strategies and compensation strategies (the strategies are discussed in section 3.9.5).

Skehan (2001) explained cognitive complexity with two dimensions which are cognitive familiarity and cognitive processing. Cognitive familiarity is the extent to which learners are familiar with the task, the topic and the discourse genre which is not required in this research. In cognitive processing, the main focus is information. It starts with the organization of information (brainstorming and planning), to make sure the information are clearly presented during speaking, while it ends with information sufficiency as the speaker tries to include as much examples and illustrations as possible.

The dimension of communicative stress is concerned with the type of pressure the task may impose participants due to the length of the time available to do the task, the number of participants involved in the communication, the length of texts involved, and the mode of communication (through speaking, listening, reading, writing or a combination of skills). These factors are related to the stakes, such as doing an exam (high stakes) compared to an informal discussion at the end of the class (low stakes). All these factors are based on how much participants can control or change task implementation.

### **3.9.5 Communication Strategies**

#### **3.9.5.1 Avoidance Strategies**

The nature of the tasks determined the extent to which the students are involved in adopting their knowledge, in general and language use, in particular. This kind of language maneuvers were optimal to help either in completing or understanding the message across. In the experimental group, 51.42% of the total number of students used avoidance strategies as a means to make the message clear, to avoid ambiguity and lexical difficulty. This is noticed in



the type of words repeated continuously in some discussions mostly 'I think', and 'I believe' to express opinions. Further, in an attempt to avoid grammatical errors, these students used avoidance strategies to prevent the use of challenging structures which provoke grammatical errors. To avoid complexity, 22.85% employed reduction strategies, and reduces most of their sentences into simple sentences with subject, verb, object, and a complement.

The control group used avoidance strategies, and they were specifically obliged to bring about some difficult lexicon or vocabulary which is part of the whole story. Therefore, 43.33% of the students used difficult vocabulary which they could not avoid during the discussion.

We noticed also that the students adopted the strategy of message reduction whenever they needed to express some notions, in English, which they assimilate the expressions and ideas in Arabic. This strategy was used specifically by the experimental group as they discussed a variety of topics. The rate of students who used this strategy reached 42.28% in total. In contrast, the strategy of message reduction was not prevailing among the students of the control group, where only 26.66% of the total number of students used this strategy in their performances. The reason is that, during their discussions students recalled some expressions which complete the crucial meaning of the utterance. In this case, they have used one word for a whole expression as in the following example: "the uniform" instead of "school uniform", and "station" instead of "bus station." The students, here, are obliged to be more specific when it comes to using such a lexical variation.

In addition to that, the control group opted for language shift more than the experimental group, as the rates were varied between 30% in the control group and 17.33% in the experimental group. Here, the use of language shift among the students of the experimental group was characterized by the use of words which have a French origin like:

“LMD”, “rattrapage”, and “BAC.” These words are borrowed from French and they are used in the middle of English sentences, while some of these words do have synonyms in English (BMD, instead of LMD, Make up or Resit Exam instead of rattrapage). Borrowings, in the control group, were also made through the eminent use of some Arabic words. This criterion accompanied the translated-from-Arabic stories which carry wisdom, or a cultural fact. Hence, students used words like: “Sheik” (A knowledgeable man in Arabic), and “Sultan” as they are culturally-bound to the students’ mother tongue, and there are no direct equivalences for these words in the English language.

Avoidance strategies are considered as risk-taking strategies, since they are adopted to overcome communication gaps in language knowledge and topic knowledge. In fact, the avoidance strategies adopted by the students are used to verify certain normative social, affective and communicative actions. As an example, since the task of rhetorical argumentation was very difficult to cope with, 25.71% of the students adopted affective strategies to lower anxiety and enhance self esteem, as they started to modify their behaviors and actions to get a good impression from the audience and the teacher.

Besides, the importance of these risk taking strategies is to improvise fluency and accuracy in communication. These strategies are used to emphasize speech clarity, through paying attention to speech forms in accuracy and pronunciation, while including in some other cases non-verbal strategies like gestures or facial expressions, and students attempted to give hints or achieve the message indirectly. The results of the use of these strategies are clear in the psychological state of the students, so it affects their performance and either increases or decreases it.

The strategies discussed previously, like repetition and language shift are circumlocution strategies for paraphrasing or describing the properties of foreign language

linguistic notions. Likewise, they are also help-seeking strategies specifically when they are used for clarification, confirmation or to back up the arguments with concrete examples. They are the most commonly used among students as they are the only solution for linguistic difficulty in case there is lack of vocabulary, language knowledge or topic knowledge.

### **3.9.5.2 Compensation Strategies**

Compensation strategies are used to refer to those strategies advocated by Dornyei and Scott (1997) which are used to overcome lexical deficit. They included strategies such as code switching and language translation in L1-based strategies, approximation together with structuring and avoidance strategies. These strategies generally occur during the planning and message encoding phases of the pre-verbal message. Despite being less used, more compensation strategies are used with rhetorical argumentation it is all about information gap strategies. The students used these strategies to negotiate the meaning in the topics discussed in the task. The need to express ideas appropriately guided the students towards lexical variation in the task rhetorical argumentation, and the rate of lexical variation is 9% of the students.

The overall statistics of strategy use indicated that the use of compensation strategies by students in both groups was low in most cases. Unfortunately, students in both groups are not familiar with compensation strategies, specifically when and how to use them in different contexts. First, students did not use too many gestures or mimes as part of the communicative process to paralinguistically complete the intended message. Of course, we expected the use of gestures to be higher in rhetorical argumentation which is accompanied by discussions. Unfortunately, this was not the case with low proficiency students. The rate of using gestures is 13% for the control group and only 10% for the experimental group. As a matter of fact, students are not to be blamed in this case, as there was absolutely no practice on the use of

gestures. Thus, they substituted this strategy by other strategies like switching to the mother tongue or a foreign language (French) to express difficult words and phrases.

The adaptation of the French language is a question of retrieval. The more the students retrieve information easily, the less code switching is used during speaking. Code switching is due to complex message formulation which exposes students to more pressure on the smooth flow of lexical retrieval. This was not a problematic issue for students of the control group as they possess enough schema knowledge which substituted for this strategy.

As it has been mentioned in avoidance strategies, students switched to the mother tongue from time to time, to compensate for difficult words by pronouncing them phonemically as they are in Arabic (rates are stated in section 3.5.9.1). The use of language shift is sometimes accompanied by paraphrasing, and the experimental group used this strategy more than the control group in many cases. Meanwhile, the rate of the experimental group in paraphrasing (or language translation) is 23% and the rate of the control group is only 13% in this strategy. This makes it very clear how much paraphrasing and explaining are important in rhetorical argumentation (see appendix 15 of the experimental group), and they are precisely used to substitute the weakness in topic knowledge. It is always very crucial to consider paraphrasing and explaining as core strategies in the process of speaking fluently.

The influence of the difficulty of the task rhetorical argumentation is subjected to the use of different communicative strategies. The experimental group used the strategies of substitution and word explanation which are basically used to help understand the main theme of the topics discussed. Therefore, students tried to substitute very long and complex sentences with short phrases and sometimes words and abbreviations. The rate of this strategy is 17% in the experimental group, but the rate is low in the control group since only 5% employed it, as this strategy was not needed very much and the emphasis is on automatic

fluency. The students opted also for the strategy of word explanation which is used to compensate for the broad meaning of difficult words in different contexts.

### **3.9.5.3 Production Strategies**

Production strategies encompass a number of formally accepted strategies which are used mainly during the production phase as a result of the accumulation of information, or when something unexpected comes up and they represent the category of problem solving. In other words, they are used in spoken discourse in the form of reformulations and question. They are applied most specifically in face-to-face discussions and during the negotiation of meaning around a point of view. Hence, it has been noticed to be used specifically among students of the experimental group in relation to the nature of the task and the topics.

In this type of speaking strategies, message reformulation is much more commonly used among students of the experimental group with 22.25%, which is divided in between 10% of those who repeated the same information in different ways, and 12.25% of those who adjusted the message to conform to the communicative purposes of the task. These reformulations are accompanied by explanations and examples. However, the use of reformulations is less frequent among the students of the control group with 9.42%, since they used only the category of message reformulations when they are asked questions and when they tend to repeat something on purpose.

In relation to message formulation, the least utilized production strategy is message reduction or message abandonment with 7% for the experimental group and 5.3% for the control group. This strategy is used all together with three other sub strategies which are word coinage, seeking help and using gestures or mimes. During the presentations, most of the students who used gestures relied on them in partial message abandonment to complete the message and substitute the deficiencies. The use of this strategy is accompanied either by

seeking help from the others and the teacher or explaining difficult words. No word coinage was recorded with the students' performance.

#### **3.9.5.4 Achievement Strategies**

As a matter of fact, achievement strategies are used to solve problems in communication by expanding the communicative resources, rather than reducing the communicative goals (Færch & Kasper 1983). Generally speaking, the total number of times of achievement strategies use shows indeed some level of control over the foreign language. The numbers are actually promising and they reveal that the subjects were occasionally able to restore breakdowns in communication. Færch & Kasper (1983) believed that the originality of most of the achievement strategies like paraphrasing, time gaining devices, using cohesive devices and linking words is traced to the mother tongue, and they can be applied in learning a second language or a foreign language respecting, of course, the context and the background knowledge of the target language.

The use of paraphrasing strategies among the subjects in both groups was a little high. The rate of the use of paraphrasing is 32.33% in the experimental group, and 27.40% in the control group. Yet, it is in a way commendable to have such high rates, specifically for the experimental group who needed this technique all the time. An explanation of this is based on the believe that this technique is assimilated from first language acquisition, and applied in second language learning contexts. In communication predicament, students tend always to use the same strategies across different languages, as they share a lot of similarities and can be treated in the same way.

The use of time gaining devices is compulsory for the experimental group to gain time in speaking and organize the content as much as possible. Time gaining devices are represented in all types of hesitation phenomena, and speaking initiators like: well, in fact and

I think. All these devices were used to open up the lines of communication between the students, and give them time to think, about the topic and generate ideas. The rates of time gaining devices show how much they were used by the experimental group with 43.57% and less used by the control group with only 25.2% of the students. Time gaining devices are more frequent in communicative purposes which are based on the negotiation of meaning, and represent genuine real life communication.

The use of cohesive devices is certainly problematic as it extends its influence on sentence level and topic level. So, the students in both groups emphasized the use of coordinating connections which are known as ‘Fun boys’. The rate of the use of these conjunctions is 53.6% of the total use of cohesive devices, in comparison to the other types of discourse markers which are summarized in the following table:

Discourse markers	Conditional markers	Contrastive Markers	causal Markers	additive Markers	Total
Percentage	12.6%	13.3%	9.%	11.5%	46.4%

**Table 32: The rates of discourse markers**

The smoothness of both language and ideas was expressed via conjunctions and cohesive devices and the use of them depends on the familiarity of the user with these devices, and the appropriate rhetorical function they ought to express. Hence, students in both groups are familiar with coordinating conjunctions as they are easy, simple and functional. However, the students are not very familiar with the other types of discourse markers namely conditional, contrastive, additive and causal.

The most frequently used type of discourse markers is contrastive with 13.3% in total, as they appeal to the communicative purposes and rhetorical functions of both tasks, and very specifically the task of rhetorical argumentation. During the discussions, the students

overused the discourse marker ‘however’ as it is realized in all contrastive purposes, followed by ‘moreover’ and ‘but.’ The second highest discourse markers used are conditional markers with 12.6%, and students mostly used the following markers: if....then, unless, when and in case. They are tagged to give examples and explanations in most of the cases and they are used when students were engaged in translating, paraphrasing and summarizing their ideas. The least used cohesive devices are causal and additive which recorded the rates of 9% and 11.5% respectively. Despite being important and helpful during the discussions, the students neglected these markers as they focused only on “because” and “as a result”, in causal markers, and “in addition”, “further” and “besides” in additive discourse markers.

Generally speaking, discourse markers are always recommended during the use of different communicative purposes in the same task. In the case of the task rhetorical argumentation, the lack of some discourse markers (mainly contrastive, causal and additive) attributed in the building block of less proficiency in language maneuvers. This is particularly valid in the task of rhetorical argumentation; the task requires more cohesive markers and more conjunctions to make the negotiation of meaning more comprehensible and smooth. Accordingly, we can propose a desirable rank for the achievement strategies from the most important to the least important. First, the use of appropriate cohesive devices is a compulsory action in any piece of discourse, and it can never be neglected or misused, it maintains the flow of language and ideas altogether. Second, time gaining devices can be ranked in the second position according to their importance in speaking, as they allow the speaker to generate and organize the content. Finally, the strategies of paraphrasing and summarizing are ranked last because they are traced to the mother tongue, and they are used to extend spoken discourse as much as possible with example and explanations.

The analysis of the results of communication strategies shows which strategies should be ranked as important and which are less important. In the case of our research, achievement



strategies are the most important for fluency and accuracy. The fact is that, achievement strategies can be adopted during speaking to stretch spoken discourse as much as possible, with the help of cohesive devices and discourse markers from one hand, and with the strategies of paraphrasing and summarizing from the other hand. These strategies are useful, easy to use and do not require too much practice in the classroom.

In order to avoid complex structures and complex sentences, students use avoidance strategies at the lexical, grammatical and syntactic level. Avoidance strategies are mainly related to task demands, and the more the task is demanding, the more avoidance strategies are used, and the less demanding the task, the less these strategies are attributed during the production stage of speaking. Complexity is a feature of fluency and accuracy since both occur within less complex structures and easier contexts.

Compensation strategies are ranked in the last position. The nature of the tasks rhetorical argumentation and narrating stories had marked effects on the type of compensation strategies selected to increase proficiency effects. Therefore, the tasks require too much pre-verbal planning as a prerequisite to organize the content as much as possible. The students used also code switching to explain difficult words and expressions which have no direct equivalence in the English, but we consider this as lack of language knowledge since they can use translation strategy, which was neglected by the students instead of code switching. Compensation strategies are always called for whenever a problem comes up in language knowledge or topic knowledge.

## **Conclusion**

The results discussed in this chapter contradict with those hypothesized in the introduction, as the second and the third hypotheses were both invalidated. The results of the pre-test and post-test show a number of conclusive facts about the tasks of rhetorical argumentation and narrating stories and describing past experiences. In argumentation, students used various rhetorical functions namely: explaining, exemplifying and illustrating. They resort to these rhetorical functions to produce extended stretches of discourse and fill pauses with talk. The task of rhetorical argumentation engages the students with procedural fluency. As a result, they produced a lot of pauses and hesitation (this contributed in invalidating the hypotheses) which are used to think about what to say next, and organize the information rhetorically. However, the control group achieved better results than the experimental group. The task of narrating stories is easier than the task rhetorical argumentation and it does not require too much planning in automatic fluency.

## **Chapter Seven: Pedagogical Recommendations**

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Conclusion

## **Introduction**

The final chapter draws some pedagogical recommendations from the multiple findings and acknowledges the limitations of this study. Some suggestions are also made for future research within this field of enquiry. Throughout this research, a theoretical background of speech production has been presented and applied in the practical part. The focus of this chapter is to discuss relevant issues to task-based learning, and how they can be implemented to improve language teaching depending on the results and findings of this research. The discussion of task-based teaching reveals the roles of fluency and accuracy in the context of task-based teaching and learning. Finally, the application of the tasks rhetorical argumentation and narrating stories was accompanied by many challenging limitations, and they are referred to in this chapter to give future researchers insights of how to avoid them.

## **Pedagogical Recommendations**

### **1. Task Based Learning and Teaching**

Task based teaching is a compulsory course in foreign language learning and teaching, as it extends the limits of language use to cross the classroom borders. There are a number of tasks each is used in a different context, and discovering the real benefit of a given task is based on dividing language knowledge into components namely: fluency and accuracy. Accuracy, in turn, is divided into: vocabulary, grammar, and syntax. Fluency in speaking is the ability to utter words and sentences very quickly, and accurately as well, as a result of strong proficiency. As a matter of fact, fluency for native speakers was explained by Chomsky (1965) as an act of performance, as it represents smoother performances with fewer false starts, and this is a characteristic of fluid speech, while this characteristic is taken as a predominant idea for fluency. In foreign language learning, fluency is an observable characteristic of real life speech behavior. This behavior reflects the execution and avoidance of indices and how they are manipulated in speaking. These indices (Pauses, hesitations and false starts) occur only when they are needed in speech, and if overused they interrupt abruptly the flow of language.

Fluency is divided into: automatic fluency and procedural fluency. Automatic fluency is embodied in the transformation of information which already exists in the mind of the speaker. It depends on the student's ability to control language. Procedural fluency is composed of planning what to say next, generating and organizing the content. Pauses are very necessary in procedural fluency as it enables the speaker to think about what to say next. This assumption is critical and conventional at the same time as Roberts and Kirsner (2000) discussed the importance of macro-planning in different communicative situations. They agree that the more macro-planning a communicative situation requires, the more vulnerable

speech is to hesitation phenomenon when it comes to processing information and language altogether. This means that, learners who have difficulty using planning (speech preparation and execution) will need extra time to process language adequately. Micro-planning is categorized under cycles of speech production which is a very important area of research, and researchers should pay much more attention to the connection between planning and all other cycles of speech.

As a starting point, there are always updates about the recommendations in language teaching and learning since the focus of this research was on the implementation of two different classroom tasks (rhetorical argumentation and narrating stories) on the performance of the students in fluency and accuracy. Therefore, effective classroom tasks are those which are carefully chosen to fit the objectives of learning and to help raise the level of the students. The tasks should also cater for the students' needs. If the task does not match the students' needs, the teaching objectives and the learning purposes differ and this may result in a negative wash back in testing as well.

As an example, in this research the task of narrating stories was claimed unsuitable for fluency but accuracy. The reason is that, during narrating stories the students had already schema knowledge (they know the stories), and all they have to do is to start speaking automatically, thinking only about language knowledge. Accordingly, this task does not assimilate real life communication, when turn-taking takes place between people in different contexts. Communication in real life is not only about telling stories. It takes place in different forms. We may argue, comment, suggest, recommend, invite, judge, propose, and give our point of view. All these forms of speaking are done when speakers accommodate between language knowledge and topic knowledge. In such forms of speaking, there are an infinite number of sentences and expressions, and these expressions are used according to the context of speaking and the relationship between the speaker and the listener. In the task of

narrating stories, the students recall the topic of the story easily since they know the events and the characters of the story, and they are involved in automatic fluency.

Moreover, the task of rhetorical argumentation is more difficult than the task of narrating stories. The task of rhetorical argumentation requires too much planning to generate and organize the content. Thus, its implementation is done with students who are more proficient in language knowledge, to lessen the difficulties for language knowledge only. The type of fluency which is practised in rhetorical argumentation is known as “procedural fluency.” This type of fluency is characterized by the use of many pauses as they are used to think about what to say next, and this type of pauses is very common among foreign language learners. In this research, we intended to reduce the number of pauses in procedural fluency by adopting a number of communicative strategies like: using thinking words (I think, I guess, well), and linking sentences and expressions via cohesive devices. The purpose behind these words is to fill in the pauses (which are used for thinking) with full words, to keep the flow of language and ideas. Such strategies are used effectively to overcome communication interruptions and to ensure the flow of language as well.

We said previously that rhetorical argumentation is more difficult than narrating stories, in a sense where the task of narrating stories does not assimilate genuine real life communication. As a prerequisite aspect in the teaching of speaking, the task of rhetorical argumentation requires too much instruction and practice. Instructions in task- based teaching are based on determining to the students the how and what to do to achieve the tasks appropriately. Hence, in teaching difficult tasks like rhetorical argumentation the instructions focus on how the task is going to be achieved through: generating ideas, planning and organizing the content as part of language knowledge. What to do in a task is represented mainly in the communicative purposes and the most suitable communicative strategies for it. The instructions provided in the task help the students cope with the difficulties of this task.

The communicative strategies implemented in both tasks are completely different. In the task of narrating stories, the focus of the students is on borrowing words from Arabic and French (the original language of some stories), and using them directly as they are in English. This strategy was noticed very much and it was classified in terms of “ignorance strategies” which are mainly used when students ignore the direct translation of some words in English, and use them as they are to keep the real meaning. As a matter of fact, the task of rhetorical argumentation is homogenous as it requires different communication strategies on top of which are avoidance strategies, where students opt for avoiding difficult words and expressions by using simple words and structures. In some cases, when students are obliged to use difficult words and expressions, they can use another strategy which is “compensation strategy”, in which they use explanations and illustrations to explain the difficult words and also give examples. The use of these strategies is very crucial in the process of effective communication. Canale and Swain (1980: 3) defined it as “verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or insufficient competence.”

Thus, strategic competence encompasses a limitless number of communication strategies which can be used in any context and under any circumstance to compensate for weaknesses and deficiencies when it comes to using the language in real life communication. However, foreign language speakers have to decide on their message and communicate it without wasting time, and this evidently results in language that is more grammatically fragmented and contains formulaic phrases and expressions (commonly used), as it tolerates the repetition of words and phrases within the same extract of discourse.

As it has been stated in the theoretical backgrounds of speaking, Levelt (1989) indicated that speaking is based on conceptualization, formulation, articulation, and self monitoring. Conceptualization is planning in a broadest sense while formulation and



articulation stand for topic knowledge and language knowledge. The last element is “strategic competence” when speakers adjust and correct mistakes accordingly. All the previous processes happen very quickly, and it is difficult for elementary foreign language learners to manage speaking fluently and accurately. Since they lack automation (or automaticity), as they are in dire need to process conceptualization, formulation, articulation and self monitoring slowly; otherwise, they will come up with disorganized speech and inaccurate speech performances.

Overall, the underlying system of processes, sub-processes and mechanisms of fluency which are depicted from the learners’ internal and external influences of behavior require more attention. Thus, further research is recommended, here, to determine how much these features manifest themselves in fluency and accuracy, and the limits of their participation in speaking. For example, what categories of external influences fluency and accuracy are exposed to, and what are the internal influences imposed on fluency during speaking. The important idea is that it is possible to view the behavior of the speaker, who is attempting to communicate in a second language, as supported by a complex and dynamic systems.

To sum up, comparing the performances of proficient users of English and non-proficient users, the task of rhetorical argumentation is suitable for proficient users to develop automaticity naturally in different communicative contexts. Automaticity, here, is achieved via the procedures adopted in rhetorical argumentation and the communicative purposes of the task itself. The task of rhetorical argumentation engages the students in genuine and real life communication. The main communicative purpose of rhetorical argumentation is the negotiation of meaning where we expect the speakers to send and receive information simultaneously. As a matter of fact, there is strong support for the beneficial effect of internationally modified knowledge on comprehension and acquisition through the negotiation of meaning.

### **3. Rhetorical functions**

The overall focus of this research has been directed to establish a clear cut relationship between the implementation of the tasks rhetorical argumentation and narrating stories on the components fluency and accuracy in the classroom. We observed that the task of narrating stories is easy to achieve; therefore, it is more suitable for students with few background knowledge and who are not proficient users of the English language. It is important to mention that, the practice of the task of narrating stories adheres to two main rhetorical functions which are: narration and description. The rhetorical function of narration is never complete without the use of the rhetorical function of description, as it is needed to describe places or characters in the stories. Hence, the rhetorical function of narration does not need much explanation or exemplification since it is replaced by description. The overall communicative purpose of the task narrating stories is to narrate the events of the stories; henceforth, the organizational patterns of speaking are centered mainly on the clarity and directness of the story. Meanwhile, the narrator's focus during the task is to make logical connections between the events of the story clearly and to maintain a clear image of the places, time, and even the characteristics of the story.

The task of rhetorical argumentation is built around different communicative purposes namely: arguing, commenting, suggesting, comparing, judging, and explaining. Consequently, all these communicative purposes cannot be realized unless a number of rhetorical functions are used including: defining or introducing (a point of view), explaining (reasons and argument), exemplifying (real life experiences via narration or description), stating counter arguments (to defend a standpoint). As a result, we recommend teachers to give extensive instructions when using these rhetorical functions, and practice alternatively the organizational patterns of rhetorical argumentation like: generating ideas, planning and organizing what to say next.

All these organizational patterns are crucial steps in the building up of arguments and rhetorical functions during speaking. Meanwhile, mastering the rhetorical functions in rhetorical argumentation requires time and deserves practice. It requires time because students should be aware of the importance of using different rhetorical functions, to back up and support each point of view stated with arguments and examples. Practicing the rhetorical functions of this task is based on identifying the discursive moves of debates, and the communicative purposes of the task, and since the task of rhetorical argumentation is a multi-purpose task, the students' focus is always on the negotiation of meaning. In the negotiation of meaning, implying all the previously mentioned rhetorical functions is almost impossible; as a result, the negotiation of meaning in this context imposes the use of two rhetorical functions or more (mainly arguing and explaining).

### **3. Recommendations for Teaching Fluency and Accuracy**

The teaching of fluency and accuracy has always been based on task and syllabus design. Hence, in this research we discovered that the teaching of fluency and accuracy is not only based on designing tasks for them, but it is also based on dividing the fluency and accuracy into components. We divided accuracy in this research into: Vocabulary with pronunciation, Syntax, and grammar. While fluency is divided into: planning and organization, Speed of delivery, and hesitation phenomena. Accordingly, when the teacher knows exactly the strengths and weaknesses of his students from the components of fluency and accuracy, he can choose from the variety of the tasks available, and the task should address a given component directly. In the case of our research, and depending on the components of fluency and accuracy, we do not recommend teachers to use the task of narrating stories for teaching fluency because fluency cannot be realized by this task. The focus of it is only on language knowledge. Therefore, the task of narrating stories is more suitable for accuracy (specifically vocabulary and grammar) than fluency.

Further, we make teachers aware of the fact that the teaching of fluency is based on tasks which provoke the use of language knowledge and topic knowledge in everyday life communication. The purpose of the task of rhetorical argumentation is to negotiate the meaning which assimilates real life communication where discussions over a point of view take place. There are also other types of tasks which are also suitable for fluency according to its components: like discussions between peers and groups in the classroom, turn taking of real conversations from different contexts.

The task of rhetorical argumentation is useful in building students thinking abilities in procedural fluency. The teaching of procedural fluency is realized on a clear cut distinction between thinking about the topic, planning and organizing what to say next in a form of language knowledge (saying it in plain correct English grammar), and delivering the message with a smooth movement between the ideas discussed. Accordingly, teachers are obliged to practise extensively planning and organization when teaching fluency to give room to students to be aware of how to generate ideas easily and effectively. In fact, teachers are also required to teach their students how to fill in pauses and hesitations during delivering the message with language starters as “ well, I think, and I guess”, and they are very important language starters which fill in pauses and give students time to think about what to say next.

Procedural fluency requires also the practice of communicative strategies to achieve the desired communicative purposes like: suggesting, recommending, justifying, arguing, and classifying to avoid as much as possible communication breakdowns, and to make students aware of the social rules of arguing in any situation. As a result, these procedural training strategies will enable the students to enhance their communicative skills, by adopting different communicative strategies (avoidance strategies and compensation strategies), and through the use of these strategies teachers can give a credible evaluation of the students’

performances either as fluent or not fluent. Even students will have the tendency self assess their performance in the activities.

The limitations of time that usually impact oral production could always be diminished by selecting topics which are familiar to students in terms of ideas, specifically if the students are not proficient in the English language. Hence, it will be easier for students to deal with the pressure of thinking about what to say and how to say it. Besides, the practice of idea generation would help students focus on time management. During the application of these two tasks, we noticed that time limit did not affect the task of narrating stories. The subjects did not require too much planning and organization. Though the problematic orientations of the task are not cognitive, but lexical and grammatical when the students' focus is on lexical encoding and grammatical accuracy.

As a matter of fact, the teaching of the task of rhetorical argumentation is achieved together with teaching strategic competence. The more students use different communication strategies in speaking, the more they manage to keep communication going and overcome a lot of lexical and grammatical complexities. As it has been noticed in this research, the task of rhetorical argumentation was designed to elicit compensation strategies and avoidance strategies. These strategies seemed to get the task done since they helped them avoid saying difficult expressions and compensate them by using less complex expressions with examples and illustrations.

In the same way, negotiating the meaning promotes correct communication strategies and encourages second language acquisition. But, the problem with speaking for foreign language learners is the form of knowledge transforming, or message delivering as they share the same L1 they can deliver the message wrongly (in form or meaning), but still they can understand it among them.

Task-based teaching is a very comprehensive area of research which deserves more investigations to unveil the secrets behind its teaching methods and techniques. It covers teaching from a variety of aspects and it treats teaching as means to an end. It is also worth investigating, as it is influenced by types of motivation (integral and instrumental), and it addresses participation in the classroom and how to make students less anxious to strengthen self-esteem, to create an appropriate learning environment both educationally and psychologically. Therefore, further studies on task characteristics or particular task features are needed, in here, as they are responsible of the contribution of building fluency and accuracy with applicable scaffolds of prominent language components. These task features (like planning and generating has not been dealt with as isolated variables to measure fluency and accuracy. Although it is very difficult to design research tasks so that particular variables may be studied in isolation, this is an area which is particularly interesting because of its immediate implications in the classroom and syllabus design.

Furthermore, what is interesting about task based teaching is that it is applied on the behalf of communicative language teaching. The latter is being used extensively in the domain of second language teaching to raise the quality of learning. Accordingly, it is important to consider the suitability of this method in teaching the components of speaking fluency and accuracy and which is more inclined for CLT. These questions address particularly how fluency and accuracy are taught in Second Language Acquisition.

Finally, studies which address the importance of task-based teaching in communicative classrooms are very important in second language teaching and learning. Hence, tasks elicit what kind of communicative strategies can be amended to practise fluency and accuracy in different contexts. Choosing the suitable task for students is also based on dividing fluency and accuracy into components. Accuracy comprises grammar, syntax and phonology, while fluency is divided into planning, speed of delivery, hesitation phenomena

and smoothness of ideas. Besides, there are two types of fluency procedural and automatic fluency. In automatic fluency, students deal with language knowledge since they already possess topic knowledge while procedural fluency is based on both language knowledge and topic knowledge. Taking all the aforementioned explanations, it would be easy for teachers to design more comprehensive tasks for EFL classrooms.

Conducting research in the area of fluency and accuracy is always interesting, but it is never good enough unless they are accompanied by complexity. Complexity joins the characteristics of accuracy and fluency, as it can be applied with words, phrases and sentences. A remarkable recent work has been conducted by Vercellotti (2012) when she tries to combine complexity, accuracy and fluency. This study has shown the way they are connected and the way they are measured in second language speaking, as they are affected by the structure of the language and level of proficiency. As a matter of fact, this interesting area of research is still in need of more exploration and investigation, as it extends its boundaries to reach measurements of individual differences and learning orientations.

#### **4. Limitations of the Study**

This research has encountered a number of limitations which will be acknowledged in this section. They are generally concerned with the application of the tasks in the classroom, and the measurements of fluency and accuracy in the pre-test and post-test achievement results. We noticed a prerequisite requirement for the isolation of some variables like: planning and communicative strategies as they need a thorough and complete investigation.

Firstly, the most obvious limitation is the measurement of fluency and accuracy in the pre-test and post-test. As in the pre-test and post-test we dealt with calculating time spent on speaking divided by hesitation phenomena produced by students. We found easily software for calculating time spent on speaking, but it was difficult to find software which helps

identify all types of pauses; specifically those which have a small time of interval between words and phrases. Therefore, we counted most of the pauses manually and the result in here could be translated wrongly as it was difficult to calculate all the committed pauses. Besides, the sample in this research was only 65 students out of approximately 400 students in total, and the sample is only a small amount as the results of this research may change if it is applied with a bigger sample.

Another limitation which is very clear in this research is the divergence of the purposes behind tasks applies for measuring fluency and accuracy. The task of narrating stories is a collection of stories set to give detailed information when narrating a story. While the task rhetorical argumentation is considered as information gap and students negotiated the meaning. If we compare the purposes behind both these tasks, we can see that there is a discrepancy between their communicative objectives, and we may expect this discrepancy to create different results not only with fluency and accuracy, but also with communicative strategies as if they are tested in isolation using these tasks. Further, the unfamiliarity of the task rhetorical argumentation created a misbalance between communicative events adopted by students to express their points of view. They found difficulties generating ideas and organize them in the allotted amount of time (in the form of planning), and they could not manage to organize their rhetorical functions appropriately.

Further, a minor limitation is found concerning the tools used in data analysis. In the classroom observation it was very difficult to observe the variables fluency and accuracy without including other variables like: motivation, participation and seriousness. They are used to cover classroom interaction thoroughly. In the pre-test and post-test the variables are no longer used, as the focus shifted towards language knowledge and topic knowledge (fluency, accuracy, and the tasks rhetorical argumentation and narrating stories).



Finally, the study is conducted to prove three hypotheses by calculating the Pearson's coefficient correlation between the variables. Other data analysis tools are expected to be more suitable like triangulation and T-Test experiment as they show a clear cut distinction between the variables introduced and the tasks applied. These methods may indicate a close relation between the tasks with fluency and accuracy directly, because they summarize the results of the tasks and the communicative strategies of each task. In this research, the contribution of the tasks was clear with the communicative strategies, but not very clear with fluency and accuracy. These are basically the results of task difficulty as students were familiar with the task narrating stories, and unfamiliar with rhetorical argumentation. The introduction of new tasks in language learning should always be accompanied by extensive instructions and carefully-selected materials.

## **Conclusion**

The process of speaking in foreign language learning is an ongoing process which requires time to achieve proficiency in it. In contextualizing the roles of fluency and accuracy in task based teaching, it is highly recommended to project focus on communicative language teaching. It is a resourceful method which focuses on developing the communicative functions and purposes of the tasks presented in it. The aim communicative language teaching is to establish a critical value in teaching which combines a diversity of classroom tasks and activities for eloquent fluency and accuracy. Task based teaching is a type of communicative language teaching enlightened the process of teaching with innovative ideas, and it prepares with fully equipped syllabuses to relate directly teaching with learning in the classroom.

## Summary and General Conclusion

As a final conclusion for this research work, we can say that task based teaching is a collaborative work based on a mutual communicative understanding between the teachers and learners because each task is used in its specific context and addresses specific communicative purposes, and the proficiency level of the students determines which task is more appropriate for them. The results of this study show that the task of rhetorical argumentation is more suitable for students to learn how to process information, think about the topic (generate ideas), and practise the flow of ideas and thoughts. All these procedures are done within a very limited period of time. Consequently, the task of rhetorical argumentation is a complex one, and this complexity is predominantly related to the components of language knowledge and the time limit for processing topic knowledge.

During the classroom observation, we noticed that the task of rhetorical argumentation is more provoking. This is particularly due to the nature of the task which grabs the students' attention and this led to more participation in the classroom. The main communicative event in the task of rhetorical argumentation is the negotiation of meaning which expresses exactly the same notion "negotiation of meaning" in fluency. The communicative purposes which underlie the negotiation of meaning are: arguing, judging, commenting, explaining, exemplifying and illustrating. While negotiating the meaning in fluency is thinking about the topic, planning and organizing what to say next, and processing information smoothly. All these steps are characteristics of 'procedural fluency'. Hence, if these components are practised extensively in the classroom, the students thinking abilities will raise and the students may develop their topic knowledge and this, in turn, will lessen pauses and hesitations in fluency during speaking.

The task of narrating stories is less complex and less demanding when it comes to thinking about the topic, planning and organizing what to say next and processing information smoothly. Hence, during the task narrating stories students of the control group did not spend a lot of time to think about the topic, and organize the ideas smoothly, but they managed to narrate the stories automatically. The main communicative purpose involved in this task is narration, but this task cannot be used very clearly without the description of people and places. The task of narrating stories did not pose too many difficulties in terms of language knowledge since the students already memorize the stories in their minds and they have what is known as schema knowledge. Thus, students were engaged mainly in automatic fluency which is not very difficult and does not require too much planning or organization. The students in this task were mainly interested in transforming ideas into language, and did not exploit as much communicative strategies as those of the experimental group, and this of course depends on the communicative purposes of each task.

Though we categorized the task of narrating stories as easy; the task did not grab the students' attention. Students' rates of motivation and seriousness are low when we compare them to the easiness of the task. The task of narrating stories can be described as stereotypical and it is not provoking since there is no negotiation of meaning, and even the narrated stories are very common and students did not pay attention to them very much. The overall focus of the students in the task of narrating stories is to tell a story, and not to transform a message. Thus, information organization is not very important in this situation, and the students focus shifts from fluency to accuracy. The main communicative strategies employed by the students are "compensation" and "avoidance." Students avoided difficult grammar structures and difficult expressions of the original stories, but they explained these expressions using their own words. Concerning those expressions which students did not find any equivalent for

them, they were either omitted or pronounced in English as they are used phonologically in Arabic.

In this research, we assumed that if students are taught how to organize information rhetorically, then they will master fluency and accuracy. This hypothesis was validated as it states that the task of rhetorical argumentation can be used to help students master fluency and accuracy. The second assumption in this research holds that if rhetorical argumentation is used as a communicative task in the classroom, then the students' level of fluency and accuracy will improve. This assumption is invalidated through chapter number five as it deals specifically with the variables rhetorical argumentation and fluency and accuracy. The third assumption states that teachers should be made aware that rhetorical argumentation is more suitable than narrating stories for teaching fluency and accuracy. The last assumption is also invalidated since argumentation is not always suitable for fluency specifically when it is practiced with low proficiency students.

The teaching of the task of rhetorical argumentation takes time and deserves practice. Teaching rhetorical argumentation should be applied for students who are proficient in English and do not face critical problems with accuracy. To make it easier for teachers to focus on building up their fluency, and advocate all the necessary procedures for the negotiation of meaning. More importantly, the teaching of rhetorical argumentation requires good command of the rhetorical functions like arguing, judging and commenting. Besides, students should also be taught how and when to explain and give concrete examples to transform the message correctly and keep the flow of ideas and language. While the teaching of narrating stories is intended to focus on building up vocabulary stock since they always encounter new words and expressions in stories.

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## **Appendixes**

### **Control Group Appendixes**

**Appendix 1: Participation**

**Appendix 2: Motivation**

**Appendix 3: Seriousness**

**Appendix 4: Accuracy**

**Appendix 5: Fluency**

**Appendix 6: Rhetorical Functions**

**Appendix 7: Schema knowledge**

**Appendix 8: X Y Statistics of the Control Group**

**Appendix 9: Marks Statistics of the Control Group**

### **Experimental Group Appendixes**

**Appendix 10: Participation**

**Appendix 11: Motivation**

**Appendix 12: Seriousness**

**Appendix 13: Accuracy**

**Appendix 14: Fluency**

**Appendix 15: Rhetorical Functions**

**Appendix 16: Schema knowledge**

**Appendix 17: X Y Statistics of the Experimental Group**

**Appendix 18: Marks Statistics of the Experimental Group**

## Control Group Appendixes

### Appendix one

#### Participation

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Student 1	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
Student 2	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+
Student 3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 4	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	+
Student 5	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 6	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	+
Student 7	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 8	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+
Student 9	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+
Student 10	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+
Student 11	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 12	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 13	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 14	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+
Student 15	-	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	-
Student 16	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 17	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+
Student 18	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	+
Student 19	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 20	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	+
Student 21	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	-	-
Student 22	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 23	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 24	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 25	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+
Student 26	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 27	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	-
Student 28	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
Student 29	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+
Student 30	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

## Appendix 2

### Motivation

Sessions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Student 1	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 2	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+
Student 3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 4	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	+
Student 5	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	+
Student 6	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+
Student 7	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 8	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+
Student 9	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+
Student 10	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+
Student 11	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 12	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+
Student 13	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 14	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	+
Student 15	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+
Student 16	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 17	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+
Student 18	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	+
Student 19	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 20	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	+
Student 21	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
Student 22	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 23	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 24	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 25	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+
Student 26	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 27	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	+
Student 28	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 29	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+
Student 30	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

## Appendix 3

### Seriousness

Sessions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Student 1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 2	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+
Student 3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 4	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	+
Student 5	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 6	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	+
Student 7	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 8	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 9	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+
Student 10	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	+
Student 11	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 12	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 13	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 14	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	+
Student 15	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 16	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 17	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+
Student 18	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 19	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 20	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+
Student 21	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-
Student 22	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 23	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 24	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 25	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+
Student 26	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 27	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	+
Student 28	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 29	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	+
Student 30	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

## Appendix 4

### Accuracy

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Student 1	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
Student 2	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+
Student 3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 4	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	+
Student 5	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 6	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 8	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+
Student 9	-	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	+
Student 10	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	+
Student 11	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 12	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 13	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 14	-	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	-
Student 15	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	+	-
Student 16	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 17	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	-
Student 18	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	+
Student 19	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 20	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	+
Student 21	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	-
Student 22	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 23	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 24	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 25	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+
Student 26	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 27	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	-
Student 28	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
Student 29	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+
Student 30	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-



## Appendix 5

### Fluency

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Student 1	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
Student 2	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+
Student 3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 4	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-
Student 5	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 6	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 8	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 9	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+
Student 10	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+
Student 11	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 12	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 13	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 14	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	-
Student 15	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	-
Student 16	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 17	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	-	-
Student 18	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	+
Student 19	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 20	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	+
Student 21	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
Student 22	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 23	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 24	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 25	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 26	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 27	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-
Student 28	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 29	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+
Student 30	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

## Appendix 6

### Rhetorical Functions

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Student 1	Nar+Des	Nar+Exe	Nar+Cla	Des+Exp	Des+Exp	Des	Des+Exp	Des	Exp+Cla	Nar+Des
Student 2	Nar+Exp	Nar+Exp	Nar+Des	Des+Nar Cla	Des+Exp	Des+Exp	Des+Ex	Exp+Ex	Exp+Cla Ex	Nar+Exp
Student 3	Des+Cla	Des+Cla	Nar	Des+Exp	Des+Cla	Des+Cla	Des+Exp	Cla+Ex	Exp+Cla	Nar+Cla
Student 4	Nar+Exe	Nar+Des	Nar+Exp	Nar+Cla Ex	Des+Exp Cla	Des+Exp	Des	Cla+Ex	Nar+Exp	Nar+Exe
Student 5	Nar+Exp	Nar+Exe +Jus	Nar+Des	Des+Exp Ex	Des+Exp Ex	Des+Nar Ex	Des+Ex	Des+Exp	Nar+Exp Ex	Nar+Exp
Student 6	Nar+Exp	Nar+Des	Des+Exp	Des+Exp	Des+Exp	Nar+Exp	Des+Exp	Nar	Nar+Exp	Nar+Exp
Student 7	Des+Exe	Des+Cla	Nar+Ex	Des+Exp	Nar+Cla Ex	Nar+Ex	Des	Exp+Ex	Exp+Cla	Des+Exe
Student 8	Nar+ Exp	Nar+Des	Nar+Exp	Des+Nar Ex	Des+Exp	Des+Exp	Nar+Exp	Exp	Exp+Cla Ex	Nar+ Exp Ex
Student 9	Nar+jus	Des+Cla	Des+Cla	Nar+Exp	Des+Exp	Des+Nar	Des+Nar	Nar	Nar+Exp Jus	Nar
Student 10	Nar+Cla	Nar+Exp	Nar+Des	Des+Exp Cla	Des+Exp Cla	Des+Exp	Des+Ex	Des+Ex	Nar+Exp	Nar+Cla Arg
Student 11	Nar	Nar+Exe	Nar+Exp	Des+Exp	Des+Exp Cla	Des+Exp Cla	Des+Exp	Cla	Exp+Cla Ex	Nar+Exp
Student 12	Nar+Exp	Nar+Des	Nar+Des	Des+Exp Ex	Des+Exp Cla	Des+Exp	Des+Exp	Cla+Ex	Des+Exp Ex	Nar+Exp
Student 13	Nar+Des	Des+Exp	Des+Cla	Des+Nar Ex	Des+Cla Ex	Des+Cla Ex	Des+Nar	Exp	Exp+Exp	Nar+Des Exp
Student 14	Des+Cla	Nar+Des	Nar+Des	Nar+Exp	Des+Exp Cla	Des+Exp Cla	Des	Cla	Nar+Exp Ex	Des+Cla Ex
Student 15	Nar+Exp	Nar+Des	Nar+Exp	Des+Exp Cla	Nar+Cla Ex	Des+Cla Ex	Des+Ex	Des+Exp	Nar+Exp	Nar+Exp
Student 16	Des+Cla	Nar+Exp	Nar +Ex	Des+Exp	Des+Exp Cla	Des+Exp Cla	Des	Nar+Ex	Nar+Cla Ex	Nar+Cla Arg
Student 17	Nar+Exp	Nar+Exp	Nar+Exp	Des+Nar Ex	Des+Nar Cla	Des+Nar Cla	Des+Exp	Cla	Exp+Cla Ex	Nar+Exp
Student 18	Des+Exp	Des+Exe	Nar+Exp	Des+Exp	Des+Exp	Des+Exp	Des+Ex	Exp+Ex	Nar+Exp Arg	Des+Exp
Student 19	Des+Exe	Des+Exp	Nar	Nar+Cla Ex	Des+Ex Cla	Des+Ex	Des+Nar	Exp+Ex	Nar+Exp	Des+Exe
Student 20	Nar+Exp	Nar+Arg	Nar+Exp	Des+Exp	Des+Exp	Des+Exp	Des+Exp	Exp	Exp+Ex	Nar+Exp
Student 21	Des+Exe	Nar+Exp	Des+Cla	Des+Exp	Des	Des+Arg	Des+Exp	Cla	Des+Exp Arg	Des+Exe Arg
Student 22	Nar+Cla	Nar+Des	Nar+Jus	Des+Exp Cla	Des	Des	Des	Cla+Ex	Nar+Cla	Nar+Exp Ex
Student 23	Nar+Exp	Nar+Exp	Nar+Exp	Des+Exp	Des+Exp Ex	Des+Exp Ex	Des+Ex	Exp+Ex	Nar+Cla Ex	Nar+Exp

Student 24	Nar+Exe	Nar+Des	Nar+Ex	Nar+Cla	Des+Nar Cla	Des+Nar Cla	Nar+Exp	Nar	Nar+Cla	Nar+Exe
Student 25	Nar+Exp	Nar+Arg	Nar+Cla	Des+Exp Ex	Des+Exp Ex	Des+Exp Ex	Des+Exp	Exp	Exp+Ex	Nar+Exp
Student 26	Des+Cla	Nar+Exp	Des+Ex	Des+Exp	Des+Exp	Exp	Des+Exp	Exp	Exp+Cla	Des+Cla
Student 27	Nar +Jus	Des+Exe	Nar+Exp	Des+Exp Cla	Des+Exp Ex	Des+Exp	Des+Cla	Des+Ex	Nar+Cla	Nar
Student 28	Nar+Exp	Nar+Arg	Nar+Cla	Des+Nar	Nar+Cla	Nar+Cla	Des+Nar	Nar	Nar+Cla Jus	Nar+Exp
Student 29	Nar+Exe	Nar+Jus	Nar+Des	Nar+Cla Ex	Des+Exp	Des+Exp	Des+Exp	Exp	Des+Cla Ex	Nar+Exe
Student 30	Nar+Arg	Nar+Exp	Nar+Exp	Des+Exp	Des+Cla	Des+Cla	Des+Exp	Cla+Ex	Exp +Cla EX	Nar+Arg Ex

## Appendix 7

### Schema Knowledge

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Student 1	Poor	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Poor	Fair	Poor	Fair	Fair
Student 2	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Fair	Good	Good	Good	Good
Student 3	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor
Student 4	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Poor	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair
Student 5	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good
Student 6	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor
Student 7	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor
Student 8	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good
Student 9	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair
Student 10	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Fair	Good	Fair	Good	Good
Student 11	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor
Student 12	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Poor	Good	Good
Student 13	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor
Student 14	Fair	Good	Good	Fair	Good	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair
Student 15	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair
Student 16	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor
Student 17	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair
Student 18	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good
Student 19	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor
Student 20	Fair	Fair	Good	Fair	Good	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Good
Student 21	Poor	Fair	Fair	Poor	Fair	Fair	Fair	Poor	Poor	Fair
Student 22	Fair	Poor	Poor	Fair	Poor	Poor	Fair	Fair	Fair	Poor
Student 23	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair
Student 24	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor
Student 25	Fair	Good	Good	Fair	Good	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Good
Student 26	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor
Student 27	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Good	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Good
Student 28	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor
Student 29	Poor	Fair	Fair	Poor	Fair	Fair	Fair	Poor	Poor	Fair
Student 30	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor

## Appendix 8

### X Y Statistics of the Control Group

	Accuracy	Fluency	XY	X <sup>2</sup>	Y <sup>2</sup>	A (X-X) <sup>2</sup>	F (X-Y) <sup>2</sup>
Student 1	14	54	756	196	2916	5,42	0,01
Student 2	19	48	912	361	2304	7,12	34,81
Student 3	13	46	598	169	2116	11,08	62,41
Student 4	23	66	1518	529	4356	44,48	146,41
Student 5	11	41	451	121	1681	28,4	166,41
Student 6	15	52	780	225	2704	1,76	3,61
Student 7	22	55	1210	484	3025	32,14	1,21
Student 8	14	65	910	196	4225	5,42	123,21
Student 9	26	68	1768	676	4624	93,5	198,81
Student 10	10	51	500	100	2601	40,06	8,41
Student 11	16	49	784	256	2401	0,1	24,01
student 12	11	54	594	121	2916	28,4	0,01
Student 13	20	64	1280	400	4096	13,46	110,25
Student 14	17	57	969	289	3249	0,44	9,61
Student 15	11	48	528	121	2304	28,4	34,81
Student 16	22	55	1210	484	3025	32,14	1,21
Student 17	8	41	328	64	1681	69,38	166,41
Student 18	25	64	1600	625	4096	75,16	110,25
Student 19	18	49	882	324	2401	2,78	24,01
Student 20	7	40	280	49	1600	87,04	193,21
Student 21	21	66	1386	441	4356	21,8	146,41
student 22	28	81	2268	784	6561	136,18	734,41
Student 23	19	59	1121	361	3481	7,12	26,01
Student 24	23	60	1380	529	3600	44,48	37,21
Student 25	18	47	846	324	2209	2,78	47,61
Student 26	7	42	294	49	1764	87,04	141,61
Student 27	13	46	598	169	2116	11,08	62,41
Student 28	22	60	1320	484	3600	32,14	37,21
Student 29	12	44	528	144	1936	18,74	98,01
Student 30	15	45	675	225	2025	176	79,21
	500	1617	28274	9300	88969	1144,04	3563,5
	16,33	53,9					

## Appendix 9

### Marks statistics of the control group

	X	Y	XY	X <sup>2</sup>	Y <sup>2</sup>	(X-Y) <sup>2</sup>
Student 1	6,5	5.5	35,75	42,25	30,25	0,16
Student 2	6,25	7	43,75	39,06	49	0,42
Student 3	8,5	7	59,5	72,25	49	2,56
Student 4	4	4.5	18	16	20,25	8,41
Student 5	9	9	81	81	81	2,1
Student 6	6,5	8	52	42,25	64	0,16
Student 7	5	4.5	22,5	25	20,25	3,61
Student 8	7	6.5	45,5	49	42,25	0,01
Student 9	4,75	5.5	26,1	22,25	30,25	4,62
Student 10	9,75	8.5	82,8	95,06	72,25	8,12
Student 11	8,25	8	66	68,06	64	1,82
student 12	7	6	42	49	36	0,01
Student 13	6,25	7.5	46,87	39,06	56,25	0,42
Student 14	7,5	6.5	48,75	56,25	42,25	0,36
Student 15	9,75	8.5	82,87	95,06	72,25	8,12
Student 16	8,25	9.5	78,37	68,06	90,25	1,82
Student 17	8,25	11	90,75	68,06	121	1,82
Student 18	3,5	4.5	15,75	12,25	20,25	11,56
Student 19	5	6.5	32,5	25	42,25	3,61
Student 20	8	7	64	64	49	1,21
Student 21	6,25	6	37,5	39,06	36	0,42
student 22	3,75	3	11,25	14,06	9	9,92
Student 23	5,5	5	27,5	30,25	25	1,96
Student 24	6,25	4.5	28,12	39,06	20,25	0,42
Student 25	5,75	5.5	31,62	33,06	30,25	1,32
Student 26	11	11	121	121	121	16,81
Student 27	7,25	6.5	47,12	52,56	42,25	0,12
Student 28	6,75	5	33,75	45,56	25	0,02
Student 29	9,25	7.5	69,37	85,56	56,25	5,52
Student 30	7,75	6	46,5	60,06	36	0,72

## Experimental Group Appendixes

### Appendix 10

#### Participation

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Student 1	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 3	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 4	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	+
Student 5	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	-
Student 6	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
Student 7	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+
Student 8	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 9	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-
Student 10	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+
Student 11	-	-	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	-
Student 12	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-
Student 13	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	+
Student 14	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 15	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 16	-	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	+
Student 17	-	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	-
Student 18	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 19	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
Student 20	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 21	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 22	-	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+
Student 23	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 24	+	+	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	-
Student 25	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-
Student 26	-	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+
Student 27	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	-
Student 28	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+
Student 29	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 30	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 31	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 32	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 33	-	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	+
Student 34	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-
Student 35	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

## Appendix 11

### Motivation

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Student 1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 3	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 4	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	+
Student 5	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	-
Student 6	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+
Student 8	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 9	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-
Student 10	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	+
Student 11	-	-	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	-
Student 12	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-
Student 13	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	+
Student 14	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 16	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	-
Student 17	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	+
Student 18	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 19	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 20	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	+	+
Student 21	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 22	-	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+
Student 23	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 24	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	+	+
Student 25	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	-
Student 26	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	+	+
Student 27	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	-
Student 28	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	+
Student 29	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 30	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+
Student 31	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 32	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 33	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+
Student 34	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-
Student 35	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-



## Appendix 12

### Seriousness

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Student 1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 3	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 4	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	+
Student 5	-	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	+	-
Student 6	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
Student 7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+
Student 8	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+
Student 9	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-
Student 10	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	+
Student 11	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-
Student 12	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
Student 13	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+
Student 14	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 15	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 16	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	-	+	+
Student 17	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-
Student 18	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+
Student 19	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
Student 20	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 21	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 22	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	+
Student 23	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 24	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
Student 25	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
Student 26	-	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	+
Student 27	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	-	-	-
Student 28	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+
Student 29	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 30	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+
Student 31	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 32	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 33	-	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	+
Student 34	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	+	-
Student 35	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

## Appendix 13

### Accuracy

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Student 1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 3	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 4	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+
Student 5	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-
Student 6	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-
Student 7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 8	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	+	+
Student 9	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-
Student 10	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	+
Student 11	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-
Student 12	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
Student 13	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+
Student 14	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 16	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	-
Student 17	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	-
Student 18	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	+
Student 19	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
Student 20	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 21	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 22	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+
Student 23	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 24	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
Student 25	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
Student 26	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	+	+
Student 27	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	-	-	-
Student 28	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	-
Student 29	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 30	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+
Student 31	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 32	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 33	+	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	+
Student 34	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
Student 35	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

## Appendix 14

### Fluency

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Student 1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 3	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	-	+
Student 4	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 5	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
Student 6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 9	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 10	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+
Student 11	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 12	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 13	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	-	-
Student 14	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 16	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 17	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 18	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	-	+
Student 19	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 20	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 21	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 22	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 23	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 24	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+
Student 25	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 26	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 27	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 28	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 29	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 30	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Student 31	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 32	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 33	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	-	-
Student 34	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Student 35	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

## Appendix 15

### Rhetorical Functions

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Student 1	Jus	Arg+Jus	Jus	Ex		Cla	Jus	Jus	Jus	Cla
Student 2	Jus	Jus+Cla	Jus	Ex	Jus	Ex	Arg+Cla	Jus	Jus	Ex
Student 3	Arg+Ex	Arg+Exp Nar	Arg+Ex	Arg+Ex	Arg+Exp Ex	Arg+Ex	Arg+Ex	Arg	Arg+Exp	Arg+Ex
Student 4	Arg+Ex	Arg+Exp	Arg+Ex	Arg+Cla	Jus+	Arg	Arg	Arg+Ex	Jus	Arg
Student 5	Arg+Exp	Arg+Jus Nar	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp	Arg+Ex Cla	Arg+Ex	Arg+Ex Cla	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp	Arg+Ex
Student 6	Arg+Cla	Arg+Jus	Arg+Cla	Arg+Ex	Jus+Ex	Arg+Ex	Jus	Arg+Cla	Exp+Nar	Arg+Ex
Student 7	Jus	Jus+Cla	Jus	Jus+Cla	Arg+Jus	Arg	Jus	Jus	Arg+Ex	Arg
Student 8	Arg+Ex	Arg+Exp Ex	Arg+Ex Exp	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp Ex	Arg+Exp	Arg+Ex	Arg+Ex	Arg+Exp Ex	Arg+Exp
Student 9	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp Ex	Arg+Exp Jus	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp Ex	Arg+Exp	Arg+Cla	Arg+Exp
Student 10	Arg+Cla	Arg+Jus	Arg+Cla	Arg+Ex	Jus+Ex	Arg+Ex	Arg+Exp Cla	Arg+Cla	Arg+Cla	Arg+Ex
Student 11	Exp	Jus+Exp Ex	Exp	Arg+Cla	Arg+Ex	Arg+Cla	Jus	Exp	Jus	Arg+Cla
Student 12	Jus+Ex	Arg+Jus	Jus+Ex	Jus+Exp	Arg+Exp	Jus+Exp	Jus	Jus+Ex	Arg+Exp	Jus+Exp
Student 13	Arg+Ex	Arg+Jus Cla	Arg+Ex	Jus	Jus+Ex Cla	Jus+Nar	Arg+Exp	Arg+Ex	Arg	Jus
Student 14	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp Ex	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp Ex	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp Ex	Arg+Exp Jus
Student 15	Exp+Cla	Jus+Cla	Exp+Cla	Jus+Cla	Jus	Jus	Jus	Exp+Cla	Jus	Jus
Student 16	Arg+Ex	Arg+Exp Ex	Arg+Ex Jus	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp	Jus+Exp Ex	Arg+Ex Cla	Arg+Exp Ex	Arg+Exp Jus
Student 17	Exp+Ex	Arg+Exp Ex	Exp+Ex Jus	Arg+Cla	Arg+Exp Ex	Arg+Cla	Arg	Exp+Ex	Jus	Arg+Cla
Student 18	Arg+Ex	Arg+exp Ex	Arg+Ex	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp Cla	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp Ex	Arg+Ex Cla	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp
Student 19	Jus+Cla	Arg+Jus Ex	Jus+Cla	Jus	Arg	Jus	Arg+Jus	Jus+Cla	Jus	Jus
Student 20	Arg+Ex	Arg+Ex	Arg+Ex	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp Ex	Arg+Ex Jus	Arg+Nar	Arg+Exp
Student 21	Jus+Nar	Jus+Ex+ Nar	Jus	Jus+Ex	Jus	Jus+Ex	Arg+Jus	Jus+Nar	Jus	Jus+Ex
Student 22	Arg+Exp	Arg+Ex	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp Ex	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp Ex	Arg+Exp Jus	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp
Student 23	Arg	Arg+Jus	Arg	Jus	Jus	Jus	Jus	Arg	Jus	Jus
Student 24	Arg+Nar	Arg+Exp Cla	Arg	Arg+Cla	Jus+Exp	Arg+Cla	Arg+Exp	Arg+Nar	Arg+Cla	Arg+Cla

Student 25	Arg+Ex	Arg+Jus	Arg+Ex	Arg+Ex	Arg+Ex	Arg+Ex	Arg	Arg+Ex	Jus	Ex
Student 26	Jus+Ex	Arg+Exp	Jus+Ex	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp	Jus+Ex	Jus+Ex Cla	Arg+Exp Ex	Arg+Exp
Student 27	Arg+Ex	Arg+Exp Ex	Arg+Ex	Arg+Exp	Arg+Ex	Arg+Exp	Arg Cla	Arg+Ex	Jus	Arg
Student 28	Arg+Cla	Arg+Jus	Arg+Cla	Jus+Ex	Exp+Ex	Jus+Ex	Arg+Ex	Arg+Cla	Arg+Jus	Jus+Ex
Student 29	Jus+Ex	Jus+Cla	Jus	Jus	Jus	Jus	Arg+Jus	Jus+Ex	Exp	Jus
Student 30	Arg+Exp Cla	Arg+Ex Cla	Arg+Exp Cla	Arg+Exp	Arg+Ex	Arg+Exp	Arg+Ex	Arg+Exp Cla	Arg+Ex	Arg+Exp
Student 31	Arg+Nar	Arg+Jus	Arg	Jus	Cla	Jus	Jus	Arg+Nar	Jus+Nar	Jus
Student 32	Arg+	Jus+Ex	Arg+	Cla	Jus	Cla	Arg	Arg+	Arg+Exp	Cla
Student 33	Jus+Ex	Arg+Jus	Jus+Ex	Jus	Jus+Cla	Jus	Jus+Nar	Jus+Ex	Exp	Jus
Student 34	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp Ex	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp	Arg+Exp	Arg+Ex Cla	Arg+Exp	Arg	Arg+Exp
Student 35	Jus+Nar	Arg+Jus	Jus+Nar	Jus+Cla	Jus	Jus+Cla	Jus	Jus+Nar	Nar	Jus+Cla

## Appendix 16

### Schema Knowledge

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Student 1	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Fair	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor
Student 2	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor
Student 3	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good
Student 4	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair
Student 5	Fair	Good	Fair	Good	Fair	Good	Fair	Fair	Good	Fair
Student 6	Fair	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Fair	Poor	Fair
Student 7	Poor	Poor	Fair	Poor	Poor	Poor	Fair	Poor	Poor	Fair
Student 8	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Poor	Poor	Fair	Fair	Poor	Fair
Student 9	Good	Good	Good	Good	Fair	Fair	Good	Good	Fair	Good
Student 10	Good	Fair	Fair	Fair	Good	Fair	Fair	Good	Fair	Good
Student 11	Fair	Fair	Good	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair
Student 12	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Fair	Fair	Poor	Poor	Fair	Poor
Student 13	Fair	Fair	Fair	Poor	Fair	Poor	Fair	Fair	Poor	Fair
Student 14	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good
Student 15	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor
Student 16	Fair	Poor	Fair	Poor	Fair	Fair	Poor	Fair	Fair	Fair
Student 17	Good	Good	Fair	Good	Good	Good	Fair	Good	Fair	Fair
Student 18	Good	Fair	Good	Good	Good	Fair	Good	Good	Fair	Good
Student 19	Fair	Good	Good	Fair	Fair	Fair	Good	Fair	Fair	Fair
Student 20	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Fair	Fair	Good	Fair	Good
Student 21	Poor	Poor	Fair	Poor	Poor	Poor	Fair	Poor	Poor	Poor
Student 22	Poor	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Poor	Fair	Poor
Student 23	Poor	Fair	Fair	Poor	Poor	Poor	Fair	Poor	Poor	Poor
Student 24	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Poor	Fair	Fair	Poor	Fair
Student 25	Good	Good	Good	Fair	Fair	Fair	Good	Good	Fair	Good
Student 26	Fair	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Fair	Good	Fair
Student 27	Good	Good	Good	Good	Fair	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good
Student 28	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor
Student 29	Fair	Good	Good	Fair	Fair	Fair	Good	Fair	Fair	Fair
Student 30	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good
Student 31	Poor	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Poor	Fair	Poor	Poor	Poor
Student 32	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor
Student 33	Good	Good	Good	Fair	Good	Good	good	Good	Good	Good
Student 34	Fair	Good	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair
Student 35	Poor	Fair	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor

## ملخص

هذا البحث هو عبارة عن مقارنة بين تأثير الحجج البلاغية وسرد القصص بطلاقة ودقة في التعبير الشفوي، ويهدف هذا البحث إلى تقديم فائدة هذه المهام في تدريس الدقة والطلاقة، وذلك عن طريق تحليل تأثيراتها المباشرة لهذه المهمة، ومؤشرات الدقة والطلاقة. وتتمحور مشكلة هذا البحث حول تأثيرات الحجج البلاغية، ومدى أهميتها كمهمة يجدر الاعتماد عليها في تدريس الكلام بسياقات أكاديمية، وقد استعملت نظريات في هذا البحث لتحقيق أهدافه وهي:

- 1) إذا دُرِّس للطلبة كيفية تنظيم المعلومات بلاغياً، فسيتحكمون في الدقة والطلاقة.
  - 2) إذا استعملت الحجج البلاغية كمهمة كلامية في القسم، فسيتحسن مستوى الطلاب من ناحية الدقة والطلاقة.
  - 3) لا بد من توعية الأساتذة بأن هذه المهمة أكثر أهمية من سرد الرواية.
- وقد تعاملنا في هذا البحث مع طلبة اللغة الإنجليزية سنة ثانية بجامعة الإخوة متتوري قسنطينة، وتتكون عينة البحث من 65 طالباً، وهي تنقسم بين فئة تجريبية ( 35 طالباً)، وفئة اختيارية (30 طالباً). وقد تم جمع البيانات بمنهجتين وهما: مراقبة الفصول الدراسية والتجربة، فقد استعملنا المنهجية الأولى لتقييم ثلاث وحدات رئيسية، وهي: المعرفة اللغوية، والمعرفة الموضوعية، والتفاعل في القسم (كالمشاركة، الانضباط، ...) أمّا المنهجية الثانية فقد استعملنا الاختبار الأولي والاختبار الرسمي للتحقق من صحة الفرضيات، وذلك عن طريق حساب معامل الارتباط لبيرسون. وقد أظهرت النتائج أنّ هناك نوعين من الطلاقة في الكلام، وهما الطلاقة الإجرائية والطلاقة التلقائية، فتتوافق الحجج البلاغية مع تدريس الطلاقة الإجرائية، وأمّا سرد القصص فهو للطلاقة التلقائية.
- مفتاح الكلمات: الحجج البلاغية، سرد القصص، الطلاقة، الدقة، التعبير الشفوي.

## Résumé

Cette recherche est une comparaison entre l'influence de l'argumentation rhétorique et la narration des histoires avec fluidité et précision dans l'expression orale. Elle vise à présenter l'importance de ses deux actions dans l'étude de la précision et la fluidité, et à partir de l'analyse de ses effets directs, et les signes de la précision et la fluidité.

La problématique de notre recherche consiste à chercher l'influence des arguments rhétorique, et son importance comme une action qu'on doit compter sur elle pour faire étudier la parole académiquement.

Nous avons utilisés plusieurs théories pour but de :

1/Si nous enseignons aux étudiants la manière d'organiser les informations d'une manière rhétorique donc ils vont maîtriser la précision et la fluidité.

2/Si nous utilisons les arguments rhétoriques comme une mission dans la classe, si bien que le niveau des étudiants s'améliore grâce à la précision et la fluidité.

3/Il faut sensibiliser les enseignants que cette opération est plus importante que la narration des histoires.

Nous avons traité cette recherche avec les étudiants de la deuxième année de lettre Anglaise de l'université de Constantine, l'échantillon de cette recherche contient 65 étudiants, dont laquelle est divisé en deux catégories. La première catégorie est empirique contient 35 étudiants et la deuxième est arbitraire contient 30 étudiants et nous avons rassemblé les données à partir de deux méthodes sont :

La surveillance des semestres scolaire et l'expérience, nous avons utilisé la première méthode pour évaluer les trois unités fondamentales qui est la connaissance langagière et la connaissance subjective et l'interaction dans la classe comme (la participation, la discipline)

Mais dans la deuxième méthode nous avons utilisé l'évaluation première et l'évaluation officielle pour confirmer les hypothèses à partir des calculs des coefficients corollaire de Pearson et selon les résultats, il existe deux types de fluidité, la fluidité opérationnelle et la fluidité spontanée. Donc l'argumentation rhétorique correspond bien avec l'enseignement de la fluidité opérationnelle, mais la narration des histoires concerne la fluidité spontanée.

Mots Clés : Argumentation Rhétorique, Narration des Histoires, Fluidité, Précision, Expression Orale.