CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review is divided into five sections. The first section is about the theoretical framework that this study has been based on which are the Task-based Learning and Teaching (TBLT) and Social Constructivism Theory (SCT). Their concepts or notions, collaborative learning and social interaction are also included in this section. The second section discusses the framework of Task-based Learning and Teaching which has been suggested by three scholars. The course syllabus, needs assessment, course organization, task-based course design, materials preparation, and lesson planning are provided in the third section. The oral communication skills including Levelt's Model of speaking and ability of speaking effectiveness, theoretical constructs of oral proficiency, communication strategies, language anxiety, the speaking assessment, and speaking tests are reviewed in section four. Finally, the section five is about the quantitative and qualitative data analysis methods.

2. 1. Theoretical framework

2.1.1. Task-based Language Learning and Teaching (TBLT)

The contemporary research findings in both linguistics and psychology show that language learners do not acquire the target language in the order it is presented to them, and their errors are part of the natural process of interlanguage forms gradually moving towards target language forms (Foster, 1999: 69). These views have led to the development of TBLT. Its common ideas are to engage learners in meaningful tasks as well as provide an environment which best promotes the natural language learning process. Then their interlanguage system will be stretched and encouraged to develop.

According to Richards and Rodgers (2001:228-229), the underlying assumptions of task-based instruction are that tasks provide full opportunities for both input and output processing and negotiation of meaning necessary for language acquisition. Tasks are believed to enhance learner's motivation and promote their learning. Lastly, specific tasks can be designed to facilitate the use and learning of particular aspects of language.

The values of task-based instruction are unique by its own right when drawing from the two very different theories of learning: psycholinguistic and social constructivism theories. From the psycholinguistic perspective, a task is "a device that guides learners to engage in certain types of information-processing that are believed to be important for effective language use and/or for language acquisition from some theoretical standpoint" (Ellis, 2000: 197). Long's interactional hypothesis (1989), Skehan's cognitive approach (1996), and Yule's model of communicative effectiveness (1997, cited in Ellis, 2003: 76) considered tasks as external devices that demonstrate how learners process, communicate, and acquire language. However, there are some drawbacks in approaching from the psycholinguistic view as Skehan (1998) has pointed out that it fails to show a direct relationship between task-design and second language acquisition except for in longitudinal studies. Other drawbacks have been cited by Ellis (2000) that examining tasks will also involve learner factors and the setting. On the other hand, the Social Constructivism does not pay much attention on a "task" per se, but rather on the interaction between individuals and task, and on the co-construction of the meaning by learners when they are engaging in that task. The Social Constructivism perspective focuses on "how task participants achieve intersubjectivity with regard to goals and procedures, and on how they collaborate to scaffold each other to perform functions that lie outside their individual abilities" (Ellis, 2000: 211). Ellis (2000) also comments that the drawback of this theory may be that it has been trying to explain the social interactions during the participants' performance of the task instead of the contribution of these social interactions to the acquisition.

The users of task or those who are concerned with the task also vary. Essentially, there are three major groups who are concerned with the use of task (Skehan, 2003: 2). He indicates that the three major groups are researchers, testers, and teachers respectively. As a result, there are many definitions for "task". Its definitions depend on the learning theory it is based on and its specific user.

2.1.1.1. Task definitions

Though many second language acquisition researchers have defined "task" in different ways depending on their perspectives, that is, whether the definitions are for the purpose of research or pedagogy (Bygate, Skehan & Swain, 2001: 1-9), the common goal of using task in the language classrooms is similar. It is to foster the target language learning of the learners because task promotes naturalistic learning and provides a close fit with communicative language teaching (Rubdy, 1998: 264). A summary of the definitions of "task" is as follows (Ellis, 2003: 4):

Table 2.1: Definitions of "task"

Breen (1989) A task is a structured plan for the provision of opportunities for the refinement of knowledge and capabilities entailed in a new language and its use during communication.
Long (1985) 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, filling out a form, buying a pair of shoes, making an airline reservation, borrowing a library book, taking a driving test, typing a letter, weighing a patient, sorting letters, taking a hotel reservation, writing a cheque, finding a street destination, and helping someone cross a road. In other words, by "task", it is meant the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play, and in between. "Tasks" are the things people will tell you they do if you ask them and they are not applied linguists.
Richard, Platt, and Weber (1985) A task is an activity or action which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding language, i.e., as a response. For example, drawing a map while listening to a tape, and listening to an instruction and performing a command, may be referred to as tasks. Tasks may or may not involve the production of language. A task usually requires the teacher to specify what will be regarded as successful completion of the task. The use of a variety of different kinds of tasks in language teaching is said to make teaching more communicative…since it provides a purpose of classroom activity which goes beyond practice of language for its own sake.
Crookes (1986) A task is a piece of work or an activity, usually with a specified objective, undertaken as part of an educational course, at work, or used to elicit data for research.
Prabhu (1987) "A task is an activity which required learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought, and which allowed teachers to control and regulate that process."
Nunan (1989) A communicative task is a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right.
Skehan (1996) A task is an activity in which: meaning is primary; there is some sort of relationship to the real world; task completion has some priority; and the assessment of task performance is in terms of task outcome.

Lee (2000)
A task is (1) classroom activity or exercise that has: (a) an objective obtainable only by the interaction among participants, (b) a mechanism for structuring and sequencing interaction, and (c) a focus on meaning exchange; (2) a language learning endeavor that requires learners to comprehend, manipulate, and/or produce the target language as they perform some set of workplans.
Bygate, Skehan, and Swain (2001)
A task is an activity which requires learners to use language, with emphasis on meaning, to attain an objective.

Ellis (2003: 2-9) concluded that the exemplary definitions above address a number of dimensions, that is, (1) the scope of a task – in a narrow term, "tasks" are activities that focus primarily on meaning of language use; (2) the perspective from which a task is viewed which is either from the task designers or participants; (3) the authenticity of a task which means tasks should be situationally authentic and/or seek to achieve interactional authenticity; (4) the linguistic skills required to perform a task; (5) the psychological processes involved in task performance. Tasks clearly involve cognitive processes such as selecting, reasoning, classifying, sequencing information and transformation from one form of representation to another; and (6) the outcome of a task which refers to what the learners have achieved when they have completed a task by using the target language.

However, in order to be more specific in the meaning of "task" in this study, it is defined according to Lee (2000, cited in Ellis, 2003: 5) which is a classroom activity or exercise that has an objective obtainable only by interaction among participants, mechanism for structuring and sequencing interaction, and a focus on meaning exchange. In addition to these definitions of what constitutes a task in general, another way of looking at tasks is to categorize them according to the type of task.

2.1.1.2. Types of tasks

Despite the ample definitions of tasks, they have also been grouped in a variety of ways. Willis (1996 b) categorized tasks into six types such as listing, ordering and sorting, comparing, problem-solving, sharing personal experiences and creative tasks. Tasks can be classified according to the types of interaction which are classified as jigsaw, information-gap, problem-solving, decision-making, and opinion exchange tasks (Pica, Kanagy, & Falodun, 1993, cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Other types of tasks that have been mentioned are one-way and two-way tasks which involve a one-way or two-way exchange of information, convergent and divergent tasks which relate to a common goal or several different goals, and finally collaborative and competitive tasks in which task participants will collaborate or compete with each other to carry on with those tasks.

Whatever types of tasks they are, it is believed that giving learners tasks to transact, rather than items to learn, provides an environment which best promotes natural language learning processes. By engaging in meaningful activities, such as problem-solving, discussions, or narratives, the learner's interlanguage system is stretched and encouraged to develop (Foster, 1999: 69). One task type that has gained a lot of recent interest in the area of language teaching is narrative tasks because of their rich and meaningful contexts. When combined with the need for meaningful classroom activities and greater learner involvement, narrative tasks should be suitable for the second and foreign language classroom by virtue of motivating the basic need for communication.

2.1.1.3. Narrative tasks

Narrative tasks or story-telling tasks have been selected for this study because they can create a sense of shared knowledge and draw people together. Narratives provide entertainment and insight as well as help people discover values and motives. Roland and Barthes (2004) explained:

> "Narratives is present in myth, legend, fable, tale, novella, epic, history, tragedy, drama, comedy, mime, painting, stained glass windows, cinema, comics, news item, conversation... Moreover, under this almost infinite diversity of forms, narrative is present in every age, in every place, in every society; it begins with the very history of mankind and there no where is, nor has been, a people without narratives."

The words *narrative*, *narration*, and *narrate* have Latin roots which suggest a close connection with knowledge and expert or skillful practice (Whyte, 1981, cited in Gudmundsdottir, 1995: 24). Narrative refers to the structure and knowledge as well as the skill required to construct a story. *Story* and *narrative*, in everyday language, are taken to refer to the same thing which accounts of action usually involving humans or humanized animals (Gudmundsdottir, 1995: 24).

Narratives are also useful in a field of second or foreign language acquisition. Wajnryb (2003: 3) has indicated that stories can be used specifically as a means of teaching language in the classroom. Narratives are related to both language and second/foreign language acquisition. We use language as a means to narrate stories, and we can use narratives as the "comprehensible input" to improve second/foreign language of the learners. Wajnryb (2003) has associated the use of narratives or stories with the conditions for language learning based on the TBLT framework of Willis, and suggested that a story lends itself readily to the fulfillment of Willis' conditions of learning under her three notions which are exposure, use, and motivation. Richard-Amato (1988: 128) also added that story-telling enables students to "explore their inner resources and use their own experiences as scaffolds upon which to build credible action."

Furthermore, telling stories can help refine speaking skills. Shimojima (1977: 13) has indicated that story-telling can refine the oral or speaking competency of high school graduates so that they will be able to speak clearly and expressively through appropriate articulation, pronunciation, volume, rate, and intonation; to organize messages so others could understand them; to use and understand spoken language appropriate to the context; to use nonverbal cues that emphasized meaning; and to clarify and support ideas with necessary details.

Zaro and Salaberri (1995: 47) also indicated that when learners were allowed to spend a certain amount of class time telling stories, the educational benefits would be that learners developed their storytelling ability, and they feel more in control of emotional factors such as self-confidence and inhibition.

Labov (1972: 359-60) has suggested a narrative framework, based on discourse analysis of oral narrative, to be used as a tool for analyzing narrative structures. This model consists of six parts which is presented in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Model of a narrative framework

Abstract	What was this about? (summarizes the point or states a general proposition which the narrative will exemplify) [optional element]
Orientation	Who? When? What? Where? (gives details of time, persons, place, situation)
Complication	Then what happened? (gives the main event sequence and shows a crisis, problem, turning point)
Evaluation	So what? (highlights the point, shows listeners how they are to understand the meaning and reveals the teller's attitude by emphasizing parts of the narrative)
Result	What finally happened? (shows resolution to crisis)
Coda	[Optional way of finishing by returning listeners to present]

The narrative genre has received attention in task-based researches and pedagogical purposes (Tavakoli[Online]) including this study. By considering the narrative framework of Labov, the narrative task used in this study is a story-telling activity in which the participants will not only describe the events in a sequence, but also provide a turning point and a conclusion of the study using their own ideas.

Apart from that are studies that further investigate the repetition of narrative tasks on different aspects of language learning. Among these researchers are Skehan and Foster (1999) who explored the effects of task structure and processing load on performance of a narrative retelling task, Gass et al. (1999) who investigated the effects of task repetition on linguistic output, and Bygate (2000a) who studied the effects of narrative repetition on English oral performance of non-native students.

2.1.1.4. Task repetition

The relevant issue related to the study of the development of oral skills is consideration of how the parts of the speaking model affect the focus of attention and fluency of second or foreign language learners. Second language learners, in most of the cases, will be facing a "trade-off" effect (Skehan, 1998: 109), that is, they can focus on form of the target language at the expense of its meaning, or vice versa. Second or foreign language learners have to manage form-meaning relations complying with the target norms while processing the messages. Suppose the speakers are familiar with a topic and its concepts, their main tasks of speaking will be on the selection, assembly, and articulation of the target language. Their speeches will become more fluent in terms of speed and general smoothness of delivery since the information or knowledge is ready to be pulled out from their long-term memory. As a result, the processes of formulation and articulation of the target language are likely to be easier in various ways (Bygate, 2001a: 27). Skehan (1998) has hypothesized that familiarity of information will lead to greater fluency and accuracy of performance. He explained that the easy access to information will allow material to be assembled more easily, and with greater attention to form. Alternatively, speakers may choose to produce a more complex or sophisticated formulation of the message. Therefore, Bygate (2001a: 26) has emphasized in his study that, "a central issue of language teaching is how to provide learners with learning experiences which will better enable them to relate form to meaning while they keep control of the anomalies of the language they are learning." Learners are pressured to deal with cognitive difficulty which means that they have to identify relevant forms for speakers' meaning and the anomalies of the target language's regularities while they have to pay attention to what is redundant and unimportant to the communication of meaning.

Task repetition relates to "repetitious" and "repetitive" which are hardly the most exciting adjectives to apply to a classroom task in the TESOL context (Lynch & Maclean, 2001: 159). According to the study, task repetition is the kind of task or activity "experienced by learners when they find themselves repeatedly in highly similar communication situations and with the opportunity to build on their previous attempt at completing the task" (Bygate, 2001a: 29). Bygate (2001a) proposed that there were two distinct ways that repetition could affect the learners' performance. Firstly, experience of a particular task on one occasion can help learners handle the same task on a subsequent occasion. Secondly, work on a particular type of task can help learners deal with new versions of that task type. Studies on task repetition (Gass & Varonis, 1985; Yule, Powers, & McDonald, 1992, cited in Ellis, 2003: 97-98; Gass et al., 1999; Bygate 2001a; Lynch & Maclean, 2001) showed that performance on a later occasion became more complex and/or fluent. Students expressed themselves more clearly and fluently. Repetition of the same task type leading to task familiarity of the learners can lessen their cognitive load and facilitate successful task completion (Council of Europe, 2001: 160).

In the study of task repetition on the linguistic output, Gass et al. (1999) explored whether the second learners would focus on form rather than on content if they were familiarized with the content by watching the video with no audio. They also further explored whether this second language production form would be carried over to a new context. The findings were that the overall proficiency of the experimental group was better, there was more accuracy in the morphosyntax, and the lexicons used became more sophisticated. These findings corresponded with the two key findings on the task repetition of Bygate (2001a). His non-native English speakers were divided into 3 groups. For ten weeks, the first experimental was asked to work on narrative tasks, the second one was on interview tasks, and the last group received no treatment apart from doing the tasks on week 1 and 10. The first and the second groups were asked to repeat the same narrative task and interview task of week 1 on week 10. He found that the experience of earlier task could elaborate more complex and/or fluent performance. Interestingly, Lynch and Maclean (2001) also suggested from their studies that repetition of the task may give rise to changes in performance in terms of fluency, accuracy, and/or complexity. The participants were paired up, and each pair was given a research article to prepare a poster. After that, one participant of each pair would visit each and every poster booth and ask questions while the other one stayed in their own booth to receive other visitors and answer the questions. When the participant completed the visits, she or he would stay in the booth to answer the questions, and let her or his partner to take turns. Their findings were that only the participants with low grammar scores made syntactic improvement, and all participants were more fluent.

In his article, Bygate (2001b: 19) even exerted that there were two major directions for research on English oral language that deserve fuller study in the future. Firstly, there should be consideration of the oral language syllabus due to the relatively few materials available. Secondly, there should be further exploration of how fluency, accuracy, and complexity can be integrated since studies into the impact of tasks on students' processing skills are in their infancy.

Considering the positive effects resulted from the empirical studies on the task repetition together with the suggestions of Bygate (2001b) for the research on English oral language, one thing that should be given attention to is the efforts of the English language teachers in helping the students improve their English speaking skills. If the task repetition is effective in enhancing the proficiency of second or foreign language learners, it is interesting to see how it would affect the target language of the Thai learners on the fluency, accuracy, and complexity. And if the narrative task can help students learn in a meaningful way, our Thai learners should be trained to practice this type of task in their English language classrooms. In addition to that, a course syllabus using the narrative task and its task repetition to improve the English oral language performance of Thai students will be particularly developed which will in turn become very useful for both the teachers and students in the future.

The Task-based Language Teaching approach for second language acquisition is said to be amenable to social constructivism. Nunn (2001) indicated that Task-based Language Learning and Teaching (TBLT) and Social Constructivism (SCT) share many points of connection and compatibility which are their attempts to re-contextualize the classroom, their focus on activities or tasks as a place for studying and developing language, and their focus on meaning. With this in mind, therefore, SCT will be discussed further to see how it supports TBLT.

2.1.2. Social Constructivism/Socio-Cultural Learning Theory (SCT)

In order to fully understand the underlying principles of TBLT approach to second/foreign language teaching, Foley (1991: 62) has suggested that the Social Constructivism or Vygotskan framework could be helpful since, "second language learning is seen as essentially an internal, self-regulating process which will vary according to the individual." While task properties emphasize language learners' performance and acquisition, SCT theory focuses on how language learners accomplish task, and how this process of accomplishment might contribute to language acquisition. As Ellis (2000: 215) and Nunn (2001: 6) have mentioned that from a pedagogic perspective, TBLT and SCT are highly compatible.

Vygotsky introduced the social and cultural aspects of learning into Constructivism. Therefore, these two theories should not be seen as different and unconnected. Before discussing the SCT theory, the fundamental concepts of Contructivism will be mentioned as backgrounds for SCT. In constructivist classrooms, learners are encouraged to construct their own understanding and knowledge of the world through experiencing things and reflecting on those experiences. They are encouraged to use active techniques such as real-world problem-solving tasks, and so on to create more knowledge and then to reflect on and talk about what they have done and how their understanding is changing. The concept of constructivism has its root in classical antiquity, back to Socrates' dialogues with his followers, in which he asked directed questions that led his students to realize for themselves weaknesses in their thinking. The Socratic dialogue is still an important tool constructivist educators use to assess their students' learning and to plan new learning experiences (What is constructivism? [Online]).

Social Constructivism is based on the following assumptions: reality is believed to be constructed through human activity, knowledge or a human product is socially and culturally constructed, and learning is viewed as a social process (Kim, 2001). According to Vygotsky, language and culture play essential roles both in human intellectual development and in how humans perceive the world. Language and culture are the frameworks through which humans experience, communicate, and understand reality. He believed that language and the conceptual schemes which are transmitted by means of language are essentially social phenomena. Knowledge is not simply constructed, but it is co-constructed. He saw that it was not possible to separate learning from its social context. Learning was not simply the assimilation and accommodation of new knowledge by learners. Instead, it was the process by which learners were integrated into a knowledge community:

> Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level and, later on, on the individual level: first, between people (interpsychological) and then inside the child (intrapsychological). This applies equally to voluntary attention, to logical memory, and to the formation of concepts. All the higher functions originate as actual relationships between individuals.
>
> (Vygotsky, 1978: 57)

Vygotsky's theory of learning implies that "learning is also a form of language socialization between individuals and not merely information processing carried out solo by an individual" (Donato, 2000: 33).

Ellis (2003: 175-203), on the other hand, has summarized the key notions of SCT theory which are as follows:

1) *Mediated learning*. Mediation involves higher forms of mental activity or the instrument of cognitive change (Kozulin, 1990, cited in Huong [Online]). Individuals exercise or control such mental activities as attention, playing, and problem-solving through social activity. Mediation occurs through the use of tools or objects as well as interaction with others and language (Vygotsky, 1989, cited in Daniels, 2001: 7-29). Therefore a task can be viewed as both a means of accomplishing social interaction and of managing mental activity. Lantolf (2000) further suggested that mediation is used in private speech (learner's response to a question that the teacher addressed to other learners, or mental rehearsal), and artifacts (e.g. technology, tasks etc.). This suggests that tasks can accommodate learning by providing opportunities for learners to use new language structures they have internalized, and to finally use the structures in cognitively more complex tasks.

2) *Zone of proximal development* (ZPD) is the difference between an individual's actual and potential levels of development (Vygotsky, 1978, cited in Social Constructivism [On line]; Foley & Thompson, 2003: 61). ZPD is the key construct in SCT which implies that tasks alone do not create context for learning. Tasks are simply tools that can be used by instructors to identify where assistance can be profitably provided in order to enable appropriate ZPD to be created which, in turn, implies the grading of tasks.

3) *Scaffolding, collaborative dialogue* (termed by Swain, 2000: 102, cited in Ellis, 2003: 182) or *instructional conversation* (termed by Tharp & Gallimore, 1988, cited in Ellis, 2003: 182) is the dialogic process by which one speaker assists another in performing a function that she or he cannot perform alone (Ellis, 2003: 180-182). According to Donato (1994: 41, cited in Mitchell & Myles, 2004: 197) a scaffolded performance is a dialogically constituted interpsychological mechanism that promotes the novice's internalization of knowledge co-constructed in shared activity. Thus when tasks result in scaffolding, collaborative dialogue or instructional conversations, opportunities for learners to extend their knowledge of the second language will be increased through co-construction.

Swain and Lapkin (1998: 321) have mentioned that the co-construction of linguistic knowledge in dialogue is language learning in progress. Gourlay (2005: 209-210) has mentioned "co-construction" in his study of classroom process by observation, recording and interviews to investigate the norms of discourse and participations in groups. Co-construction is the formation of classroom norms that emphasizes the learners of this process. Learning takes place in a double context: external context and internal context of language. Students learn words and grammatical structures that refer to established distant culture, the external context of language. On the other hand, they use these words and structures to communicate with others in the classroom, the internal context of language. This internal context of language brings about an interaction between students and teachers or among the students themselves. It is through this interaction that language is used and learned. In turn, it is through the use of the language that the social group is given a social identity and a social reality (Kramsch, 1984: 170, cited in Gourlay: 2005: 210). In other words, the classroom discourse becomes a mediational tool for language development.

Since Vygotsky believed that learners were scaffolded by other learners with greater capabilities in their "zone of proximal development", which he explained to be the distinction between the learners' actual development and their potential development level (Foley & Thompson, 2003: 61), the success of an individual learner, therefore, is a responsibility of every member in a group. Collaborative learning is emphasized as an essential component of the success of group learning because learning is viewed as a social process. It should be regarded as a process of peer interaction that is mediated and structured by the teacher. In the broadest sense, collaborative learning is a situation in which two or more people learn or attempt to learn something together (Dillenbourg, 1999: 2). Roschelle and Teasley (1995: 70, cited in Dillenbourg, 1999: 17) defined collaboration as "...a coordinated, synchronous activity that is the result of a continued attempt to construct and maintain a shared conception of a problem". Dillenbourg (1999: 9) further explains that a situation can be termed "collaborative" if peers are (i) more or less at the same level and can perform the same actions, (ii) have a common goal, and (iii) work together. The first characteristic which is, "peers are more or less at the same level and can perform the same actions" seems quite unclear when comparing to Vygotsky's concept of scaffolding in the zone of proximal development that children can be at their potential development "through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers (Vygotsky, 1978: 86, cited in Daniels, 1996: 4), and to Wertsch's "other regulation" (1978, cited in McCafferty, 1994: 424) which means that children are guided by adults or others capable of leading them through goal-directed activity. Therefore, collaboration under the umbrella of SCT should happen within the mixed-ability group, not the homogenous one. Dillenbourg's last criteria, which is students work together, distinguishes between "collaboration" and "cooperation" which sometimes are used interchangeably by some scholars and also in this study because the focus is on how learners do the work in their groups and in their co-construction of knowledge. In collaboration, learners do the work together whereas, in cooperation, they split the work, solve sub-tasks individually and then assemble the partial results into the final piece of work.

According to Dillenbourg (1999: 17-18), collaborative learning concerns four items: criteria for defining the situation (e.g. degree of division of labor), the interactions (e.g. negotiability), processes (e.g. rounding, mutual modeling) and effects. A more detailed explanation of this pedagogical approach is offered by Putnam's (1993:16-21) illustration of the characteristics of cooperative learning. Cooperative learning consists of positive interdependence, individual accountability, cooperative skills practice opportunity, shared leadership, responsibility for success of all group members, teacher observation and feedback, equal opportunity for success and review of group process to set goals for future.

In order to emphasize collaborative and cooperative language learning, pair or group work should be used by the students to practice and use their natural oral target language.

2.1.2.1. Group work. Pennington (1995, cited in Bailey, 2005: 38) indicated that pair work or group work can improve students' motivation, independence, and creativity. Small-group teaching is believed to be a flexible tool that can be adapted to both the affective and the learning needs of students. Classes are organized in groups of two to six students in order to fulfill a learning task cooperatively (Bejerano, 1987: 485). Students and teacher are in a state of dynamic cooperation and together build up an intimate learning and social atmosphere in the classroom.

Woodward (2001: 219) has recommended the following plans when doing group work:

1) Make sure that the whole class works together quite well before breaking down into smaller units.

2) Give the smaller units a chance to bond and form an identity.

3) Make sure the planned tasks are clear. Go through them beforehand to make sure that the instructions are unambiguous, the time given realistic and the outcome achievable by the group.

4) Make sure the tasks are interesting and explain to the students why they are useful. Students need to perceive the value of a task before they feel like putting in time, energy and commitment as well as, nearly always, suspending disbelief.

5) Make sure that pair and group tasks involve student interdependence. This means that no one student can complete the task on her/his own. She/he needs others to organize, complete or be graded on the task.

6) Work out who is going to work with whom and how to explain this to the students.

7) Plan clear step-by-step instructions with demonstrations and checks where necessary.

8) Work out clear timings and how to communicate these.

9) Work out who in the group is going to have what role. For example, one person can act as chair, another as scribe for the task, another as the ideas person. Ask one person to be responsible for writing down verbatim the main things that were said during the task work in the mother tongue (teacher should encourage each group to use the target language as much as possible).

10) Plan what to do on your own during the task work, for example, listen and write correction slips.

11) Remember to give timing warnings towards the end of the group work.

12) Plan how to check the work and make students accountable for it.

13) Plan an evaluation stage, which should include not simply an evaluation of language used, but also of task content, how well groups worked together, and which mother tongue utterances need translating into target language for next time, and so on.

In Bejarano's study (1987) of the effects of two small-group cooperative techniques, he initially discussed the difference between Slavin's (1978, cited in Bejarano, 1987: 485) Student Teams and Achievement Division (STAD) and Sharan and Lazarowitz's (1978, cited in Bejarano, 1987: 487) Discussion Group (DG) which were both techniques for small-group cooperative teaching. STAD was based on raising students' motivation for learning by cooperation among members of each team followed by competition among other teams in the class. The DG technique, on the other hand, was based on topics for discussion or problem-solving issues which required bilateral or multilateral communication, negotiation, and interaction among participants. The findings showed that the STAD technique promoted higher results on the discrete-point scale which supplemented as well as complemented the DG technique, which seemed to be more efficient for practicing global language skills. As a result, small-group discussion appeared to be a more meaningful social environment for promoting language use and comprehension than the traditional classroom. Bejarano also commented that small-group settings deserve intensive research, which "only microanalytic studies of peer interactions in groups can document"(1987: 496). Long and Porter (1985: 207-227) have also asserted psycholinguistic rationales for group work in second language learning that it can improve the quality of student's talk, help individualize instruction, promote a positive affective climate, and, finally, motivate learners. Concerning the studies of group work, there are some studies which are trying to explain on the value of learner-learner interaction in language classrooms as well as to describe the strategies they use during their social interaction in order to develop their target language.

2.1.2.1.1. A model of group development

As a consequence of an interest in collaborative or cooperative learning, many studies on the group work development have been given attention to. And one of them was the study of Gersick (1988, cited in Burn, 2004: 183-185). He observed the special project groups to study the developmental phases of time-limited task groups. From his study, he created a model of group development called, "Punctuated Equilibrium Model", where the small groups were given tasks to work on with specific deadlines for their completion. His phase model of group development is as follows:

Table 2.3: Gersick's Model of group development

First Meeting & Phase 1	Midpoint Phase 2: Transition	Phase 3	Final Meeting & Phase 4: Completion
At the first meeting, members display the framework through which they approach their projects for the first half of their calendar time. A period of inertia results where group moves on the course suggested by its initial framework.	Midpoint between the time it starts work and its deadline, the group undergoes change. Sense of urgency about finishing on time. Contacts between organizational contexts lead to reframing of strategy and new agreement about how to complete the task. Little conflict	Execution of plans created in transitional phase. Interpersonal conflicts likely. A second period of inertia occurs where group moves according to the revised framework.	Focus on preparation of final product for presentation. Discussion of outsider expectations prominent.

(Gersick, 1988, cited in Burn, 2004:185)

His model was mainly divided into four phases. Phase 1 was the First Meeting Phase in which the members firstly meet and discuss about the framework of which they will use to approach their project. This Phase then lead to the Transitional Phase where the members reframe the strategy and make new agreement of how to complete the task. There is also a little conflict during this stage. In Phase 3, the reframed plan that has been created in the Transitional Phase is revised. Finally, the members will prepare the final product for presentation in the last Phase.

2.1.2.2. Social interaction

It is believed that the way peers interact collaboratively in second language classrooms is important for both theoretical and pedagogical reasons (Porter, 1986: 200), particularly when they help each other trying to accomplish a task. Under the SCT, learners will transact the task through co-construction (Foster & Ohta, 2005) and assistance. The second or foreign language development, then, will progress within individual's zone of proximal development through the process of social interaction (Vygotsky, 1978; Ohta, 1995; Lantolf, 2000). In order to understand the relationship between peers' social interaction and their second/foreign language development, many studies have been conducted by focusing on a particular aspect of this interaction based on the theoretical constructs of SCT such as scaffolding, tutoring, intersubjectivity, and internalization (Pontecorvo, 1997: 170-175).

Rulon and McCreary (1986) investigated the negotiation of both meaning and content in small-group and teacher-fronted activities in ESL classroom. Since their students were assigned a contextualized task and they were familiar with the topic background knowledge and vocabulary of the task, the time spent was on the discussion of the task's content rather than on the negotiation of meaning. They found that there were more significant content confirmation and clarification checks in small-group classes than those of teacher-fronted. Foster and Ohta (2005) also investigated the negotiation of meaning with American college students studying Japanese. They found that, quantitatively, the incidence of negotiation of meaning was not significant. However, through the qualitative analysis, it was found that learners actively assisted each others to transact the task through co-construction by pooling their resources to promote each other's language development.

In Donato's study (1994, cited in Swain & Lapkin, 1998), students were asked to plan for an oral activity that would take place in the following week. By examining the transcripts, he found that 75% of the language structures involved in scaffolding was used correctly in the following week. Swain and Lapkin (1998) also found that when two French immersion students were working together to develop the story line, they used language not only to co-construct the language they needed to express the meaning they wanted, but also knowledge about that language.

Peers social interaction in language classrooms could lead to the collaborative construction of language knowledge for the learners. However, Naughton (2006:171) has argued that it is possible that small-group interaction does not necessarily yield language co-construction or language-learning opportunities. According to Skehan (1998: 20), this may be possible because to attend to both meaning and linguistic form at the same time may become a cognitive overload for students.

2.1.3. Summary

The underlying assumptions of the theoretical framework of Task-based Language Teaching and Learning including the definitions of "tasks" from other researchers have been discussed. Moreover, the narrative tasks and its repetition, which have been selected for investigation in this study, have also been mentioned regarding what they are composed of and what other researchers have found from using the task repetition in their studies.

The key notions of Social Constructivism or Socio-Cultural Learning Theory (SCT) have been summarized since it helps understand the underlying principles of the Task-based Language Learning and Teaching. These notions are the mediated learning, zone of proximal development, scaffolding, and co-construction. Within these notions, more detailed characteristics are also discussed such as the collaborative learning, group work, and social interaction.

In addition to the above considerations for implementing tasks, different frameworks of Task-based Learning are discussed.

2.2. Frameworks for task-based learning

The three well-known frameworks for task-based learning from Willis (1996a), Skehan (1998), and Ellis (2003) are reviewed as follows:

2.2.1. Willis's framework

Willis (1996a) has proposed a framework for Task-based Learning consisting of three stages which are the pre-task, task cycle and language focus stages respectively. In the pre-task stage, the class will be introduced to the topic and the task to which teachers will orient them with topic-related words and phrases. The task cycle offers learners the chance to use the language they already know in order to carry out the task and then to improve the target language under teacher's guidance, while planning their reports of the task. In the last stage, which is the language focus, the students will examine and discuss specific features of the language, and practice words, phrases, patterns and sentences from the analysis. The three components of the TBL framework are composed of:

1) The pre-task phase. This phase will last between two and twenty minutes, depending on the learners' degree of familiarity with the topic and the type of task. In the case of designing our own task, Willis (1996 b: 42-46) has recommended the following steps:

  1.1) Advance preparation by finding suitable pictures, prepare some vocabulary, or make a one- or two-minute recording of some fluent speakers doing the task as the students' models.

  1.2) Spend some time to help learners define the topic area if it is unfamiliar to the learners.

1.3) Lead a brainstorming activity to help students recall and activate useful words and phrases for doing the task. In order to actively involve all learners in doing the task, the following pre-task language activities can be used.

1.3.1) Classifying words and phrases. Write jumbled-up words and phrases which are connected with the topic and task, and classify them. Another alternative is called "odd one out" which is to add one word that does not fit in a set of related words and discuss with the students.

1.3.2) Matching phrases to pictures. Show the prepared picture(s) to the students. Then ask them to match phrases or captions to the picture(s) from memory.

1.3.3) Memory challenge. This activity is similar to 1.3.2., except that students have to specify verbally which picture they mean by describing it.

1.3.4) Brainstorming and mind-maps. Write the main topic word(s) in the center of the board while showing a picture, if possible, which is related to the topic. Encourage the students to recall other words and phrases and write them on the board.

1.3.5) Thinking of questions to ask. Elicit students' responses by asking students to write questions related to the topics, and let them exchange their questions with another pair. After that, the teacher will classify all of the questions.

1.3.6) Teacher recounting a similar experience. The teacher tells his/her story to the class.

1.4) Give task instructions. Teachers have to make sure that their learners understand what the task involves, what its goals are and what outcome is required. These can be done by asking students to read the instruction by themselves, demonstrating the task with a good student, playing audio or video recording of fluent speaker doing the task, or showing the class what previous students have achieved.

An interesting issue that Willis (1996b: 49) has mentioned in this stage is the balance between the target and mother-tongue languages. When the task is being tried out for the first time, banning the students' mother tongue may not be advisable. Her suggestions are that the mother tongue may be used:

- if a student has a question to ask the teacher that they cannot explain in English;
- if the teacher asks the class how they would say a word or phrase in their language, or to check that it has been understood correctly;

- if the teacher needs to explain something quickly;
- if students are comparing the target language with mother-tongue use; and
- if students are doing tasks that involve translation or summary of a target language text.

2) The task cycle phase. For language teachers who are not used to TBLT, this may be the hardest part since they have to monitor, not teach during this stage. Try not to stand too close nor too far from the groups of learners. The reasons are if teachers stand too close, students will tend to ask their teacher for words they don't know instead of trying to think by themselves. Conversely, if teachers stand too far, they will be unable to observe whether their students use too much mother-tongue, are doing the right task, and have equal roles in doing the task. An important issue within this phase for Willis (1996 b:55) is how far the task's output helps intake for students, in other words, how far the task situation can improve the language development and internalization of grammar for the students. Willis has suggested that the report stage will enable learners to strive for accuracy and fluency. Additionally, the weaker students can also get support. However, before the report stage, a planning session is allocated for them.

2.1) Allow preparation time. This session is flexible depending on the purpose of doing the task. If the teacher assigns students a spontaneous speaking task, the preparation time can be skipped. On the contrary, if the task is more complex and is less familiar to the students, preparation time is needed and learners may "benefit from the preparation time as long as ten minutes" (Willis, 1996b: 46). Some guidelines for this phase are:

2.1.1) Teacher should go round quickly at the beginning to check that all learners understand the instructions and the purpose for doing the task.

2.1.2) Don't offer help to students unless being asked in order to ensure that the teacher is responding to the learners' needs. This is a good opportunity for the students to practice independence.

2.1.3) The teacher should comment on good points and creative use of language.

2.1.4) If asked for advice, the teacher should suggest positive ways learners could improve their work at a general level.

2.1.5) If learners ask to be corrected, point out errors selectively.

2.1.6) Try to get learners to correct themselves rather than leaving it to the teacher.

2.1.7) Encourage learners to help, edit each other's work or listen to each other rehearsing.

2.1.8) Make sure they assign who will be the spokesperson or final-draft writer for the group.

2.1.9) Remind them occasionally how much time they have left.

2.2) Report stage. During the report stage, the teacher's main role is to be a chairperson. In the case of oral presentations, the following guidelines are given (Willis, 1996b: 59):

- Make sure that other students know the purpose of listening while others are presenting.
- Make a mental note of useful points for your summing up. Do not interrupt or correct during students' presentations.
- Keep an eye on the time.
- Stop the report stage early if it becomes repetitive, but ask the rest of pairs if they have anything different to add.
- Allow time for a summing up at the end.

3) Language focus phase. The language focus is provided to encourage learners to focus their attention to forms of the language which they have already processed for meaning. It starts with analysis activities and is followed by practice activities.

3.1) Language analysis activities are sometimes called consciousness-raising activities, language awareness activities or meta-communicative tasks (Willis, 1996b: 102). They can be arranged around:

3.1.1) main themes, notions and functions which are suitable for broadening students' vocabulary and their repertoire of lexical phrases.

3.1.2) words or parts of words which are suitable for developing students' grammar, sentence structure, and word formation.

3.1.3) categories of meaning or use which are suitable for developing students' collocations and idioms

3.1.4) intonation, stress and sounds which are suitable for practicing the main message-bearing words in the flow of speech.

3.2) Language practice activities. Some activities for English oral language are:
    3.2.1) Repetition of useful phrases or dialogue readings.
    3.2.2) Recording the report of their group, playing it back, listening to themselves and then recording it again with improvements.

2.2.2. Skehan's framework

Though the framework of task-based instruction of Willis (1996a; 1996b) is comprehensive and useful, there are some drawbacks (Skehan, 1998: 128-129). Firstly, it is minimally connected with wider-ranging theory of second language acquisition, the role of noticing, acquisitional sequences, and information processing. Secondly, there is no pedagogical research support. Her suggested activities seem to be based on experience, not on empirical findings of research. Lastly, there is little detail regarding the "nature of second language performance and the ways in which different pedagogical goals which are fluency, accuracy and complexity can be achieved" (Skehan, 1998: 129). As a result, Skehan has proposed five principles using the information-processing approach in implementing task-based instruction:

1) Choose a range of target structures. According to Skehan (1998), it is "futile" to fix on a particular structure to be learned though there is a need for systematicity in language development. His suggested resolution is to have some methods of keeping track of interlanguage development, but not in narrowly specific terms.
2) Choose tasks which meet the utility criterion. It is assumed that learners are good at evading the use of any particular structure, and to force them to conform is to render a task that is unnatural. Combined with 1, tasks can be designed and relevant support activities can be chosen to make use of language structures easier without their being compulsory.
3) Sequence tasks to achieve balanced goal development.
4) Maximize the chances of a focus on form through attentional manipulation.
5) Use cycles of accountability. The key concept is to draw learners into consciously engaging in cycles of evaluation.

The discussion should be raised in connection with the issue of what is done before the task, during the task, and after the task respectively. There are three major types of pre-task activities which are teaching, consciousness raising, and planning. The "during-the-task" phase consists of pedagogic decisions and manipulations which influence learner's attention. Finally, the post-task activities cover the issue of altering attentional balance and encouraging consolidation and reflection. Activities that can promote effective attention allocation are awareness of an upcoming public performance, awareness that task-based performance will be recorded and analyzed, and tests. On the other hand, reflection and consolidation can encourage learners to restructure as well as to use the task and its performance as input to help in the process of "noticing the gap" (Schmidt, 1990), and developing language to handle their shortcomings in the underlying interlanguage system that the noticing has revealed. When English language learners 'notice the gap', they realize that the way they are saying something in English differs from the way English-native or proficient speakers say it (Schmidt & Frota, 1986: 316). The difference that they notice can occur in any component of English language such as grammatical structures, idioms, appropriate words and phrases, pronunciation, and so on. Some researchers believe that this process happens before the language learners can make the necessary adjustments in their language development (Bailey, 2005: 126).

2.2.3. Ellis' framework of Task-based Language Teaching

Ellis (2003: 244) has mentioned that there are three principal phases in common with Willis' framework of Task-based instruction which are provided in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4: Framework for designing task-based lessons

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

A) Pre-task stage. The purpose of this stage is to prepare students to perform the task in ways that will promote acquisition. According to Lee (2000, cited in Ellis, 2003: 248), "framing" the task is to provide an advance organizer of what the students will be required to do and the nature of the outcome they will arrive at. A planning-time should be given for the students. Most importantly, they should be supported by having them performed a task similar to the one they will have to perform in order to be a model of how to perform the task.

B) During-task stage. Teachers can either allow their students to complete the task in their own time or set a time limit, but a strict time limit is strongly recommended (Lee, 2000, cited in Ellis, 2003: 249). And another consideration involves a decision of allowing the students access to the input data while they perform a task which depends on the difficulty of the task.

C) Post-task stage. The major goals of this stage are to have the students performed a task, to encourage reflection on how the task is performed, and to provide an opportunity for a repeat performance of the task respectively.

2.2.4. Proposed framework

The framework of Task-based lessons (Figure 2.2) used in this study has been modified from that of Ellis (2003) since it has integrated some parts of Skehan's framework to that of Willis. In other words, it is a combination of a simple and comprehensive framework with some adjustments for information-processing

Table 2.5: Proposed framework for task-based lessons

Phase	Options
1. Pre-task	Support learners in performing a narrative task through interaction of question-and-answer type. Planning time (ten minutes)
2. During task	Perform the task under time pressure.
3. Post-task	Encourage reflection on the task. Encourage focus on forms.

1) Pre-task stage in which the subjects will be introduced to the stimulus picture(s) which will be mostly taken from authentic sources such as newspaper or magazines and the topic or thematic content. Wright (1989: 2) asserted that things we saw through pictures played an important part in affecting us and in giving us information. Pictures can contribute to interest and motivation, a sense of the context of the language, and a specific reference point or stimulus. The teacher will question, encourage and give feedback to students on what they have seen. After that they will be given ten minutes time to plan for accomplishing the task.
2) During-task stage in which the subjects will perform the assigned task in front of the class for about five minutes.
3) Post-task stage in which the class together with the teacher will discuss any grammatical errors that they notice in their narratives. The purposes of having this stage are to give them opportunities to notice language errors and to be more aware of language accuracy which is not primarily emphasized in the communicative language teaching.

What is added into the Pre-task stage is the time allowed for planning in order to foster oral language development. Drawing on information-processing theory, it is claimed that second language learners, especially those with limited proficiency, find it difficult to attend to both meaning and form at the same time when they are performing, and thus have to make decisions by prioritizing one aspect of language over others (Yuan & Ellis, 2003: 1). Having the opportunity to plan the linguistic and propositional content of the upcoming task, they can compensate for these processing limitations and enhance their linguistic output (Skehan, 1996, cited in Yuan & Ellis, 2003: 1).

2.2.5. Summary

Three frameworks of Task-based Learning from Willis (1996a), Skehan (1998), and Ellis (2003) have been reviewed to give more information on how the task-based learning is sequenced and what the components of each sequence are. The simple and comprehensive TBLT framework is that of Willis which provides step-by-step information for the teachers who are interested in using task in their classrooms. However, her framework was criticized by Skehan who proposed five principles of using the information-processing approach to implement task-based instruction. Finally, a combination between the comprehensive framework and the information-processing integrated framework becomes the TBLT framework of Ellis.

Keeping in mind the framework of Task-based Learning and the goals of the course descriptions for the course named "Effective English Speaking" of Chulalongkorn University that focuses on English oral language performance in public, different types of course syllabuses and their designs are reviewed.

2.3. Syllabus design

Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 80-95) have defined a syllabus as a document which says what will (or at least what should) be learnt. There are six types of syllabi:

1) The evaluation syllabus which is handed down by ministries or other regulating bodies states the basis on which success or failure will be evaluated.

2) The organizational syllabus lists what should be learnt as well as the order in which it should be learnt.

3) The materials syllabus which is created by the materials writer makes assumptions about the nature of language, language learning and language use. The author decides the contexts in which the language will appear, the relative weightings and integration of skills, the number and type of exercises to be spent on any aspect of language, and the degree of recycling or revision.

4) The teacher syllabus which is used by the teacher to clarify, intensify and state the frequency of any item of learning.

5) The classroom syllabus creates a condition, resulting from the interactions of classroom environment, which will affect the nature of a planned lesson.

6) The learner syllabus which is an internal syllabus is a retrospective record of what was learnt rather than a prospective plan of what will be learnt (Candlin, 1984, cited in Hutchinson & Waters, 1987: 83).

Reilly (1988), on the other hand, said that a language teaching syllabus involved the integration of subject matter (what to talk about) and linguistic matter (how to talk about it). He categorized course syllabi into six types:

1) A structural/formal syllabus. The content of language teaching is a collection of the forms and structures.

2) A notional/functional syllabus. The content of language teaching is a collection of the functions that are performed when language is used, or of the notions that language is used to express.

3) A situational syllabus. The content of language teaching is a collection of real or imaginary situations in which language occurs or is used. The primary purpose of a situational language teaching syllabus is to teach the language that occurs in the situations.

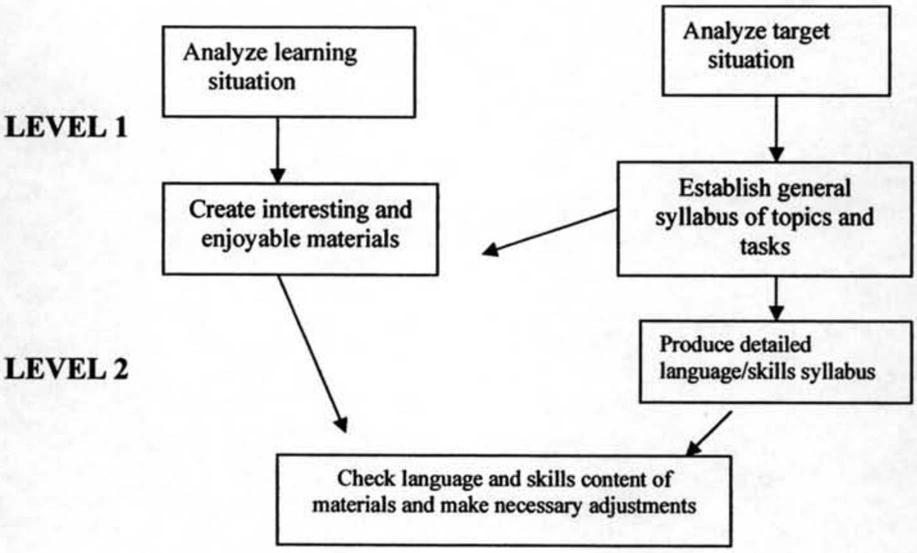
4) A skill-based syllabus. The content of the language teaching is a collection of specific abilities that may play a part in using language. The primary purpose of skill-based instruction is to learn the specific language skill. The secondary purpose is to develop more general competence in the language.

5) A task-based syllabus. The content of the teaching is a series of complex and purposeful tasks that the students want or need to perform with the language they are learning. Task-based teaching differs from situation-based teaching in that TBT has the goal of teaching students to draw on resources of language forms, functions and skills to complete some piece of work (a process).

6) A content-based syllabus. The purpose of instruction is to teach some content or information using the language that the students are also learning.

Additionally, Burton (1998: 291) inserted that constant teacher investigations and reflections are essential for curriculum processes to be effective. The role of course design in a learning-centered approach is very dynamic and should be considered right from the start of the course. The content of an entire course's design should be influenced by learners' interest, enjoyment and involvement. A diagram (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987: 93) of the role of course design in a learning-centered approach is shown in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1: Role of syllabus in a learning-centered approach


Analyze learning situation
Analyze target situation
LEVEL 1
Create interesting and enjoyable materials
Establish general syllabus of topics and tasks
LEVEL 2
Produce detailed language/skills syllabus
Check language and skills content of materials and make necessary adjustments

Needs analysis or needs assessment should be the starting point for devising syllabi, courses, materials and the kind of teaching and learning that takes place Jordan, 1997: 22). Therefore, the framework and process of needs assessment will be described.

2.3.1. Needs assessment

According to Brown (1995: 35), needs assessment or needs analysis refers to "the activities involved in gathering information that will serve as the basis for developing a curriculum that will meet the learning needs, or the target needs (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987: 55) of a particular group of students". According to Graves (2000: 98), needs assessment is a systematic and on-going process of gathering information about students' needs and preferences, interpreting the information, and then making course decisions based on interpretation in order to meet the needs. Richards, Platt, and Weber (1985: 189) defined needs assessment as the process of determining the needs for which a learner or group of learners requires a language and arranging the needs according to priorities.

The process of needs assessment, which should always accompany syllabus design, choice of teaching methods and program implementation (Burton, 1998: 288), recommended by Brown (1995: 36-68) involves three basic steps:

1) Making basic decisions about the needs analysis. Curriculum planners should ask themselves the following questions: Who will be involved in the needs analysis? What types of information should be gathered? Which points of view should be represented? And, finally, how might points of view and program philosophy interact?

2) Gathering information by different types of questions in order to identify problems, priorities, abilities, attitudes and solutions. Various instruments can be selected to gather the needed information. Those instruments will be data of existing information, tests, observations, interviews, meetings and questionnaires.

3) Using the information by summarizing the result of the needs assessment to set a list of goals which are the outline of course aims and objectives.

Graves (2000: 98) has also proposed a framework for designing needs assessment by asking ourselves the following questions:

1) What information does it gather?

2) Who is involved and why?

3) What skills are necessary to carry it out? Is preparation needed? In other words, are the students familiar with this type of activity or do they have to be taught how to do it?

4) Is the activity feasible given the level and number of your students? How could you adapt it?

5) Is the activity focused only on gathering information which you will analyze or does it also ask students to

- identify problems and solutions?
- identify priorities?

6) How will the teacher and learners use this information?

According to Brindley (1989: 70), and Brown (1995: 40-41), needs for the potential language learners can be categorized into:

- Situation needs vs. language needs
- Objective needs vs. subjective needs
- Linguistic content vs. learning processes

Brindley (1989: 76-77) has also recommended that the needs analysis in a learner-centered system should be composed of the following elements which should be seen as evolving in a cycle rather than in a linear progression:

- information sharing or exchange
- discussion
- negotiation
- objective setting in consultation
- learning activities
- awareness activities
- evaluation and feedback

After a needs assessment has been conducted to obtain the information needed from the prospective language learners, the organization of a course will be as follows.

2.3.2. Organizing a course

Organizing a course (Graves, 2000: 125) involves five overlapping processes:

1) Determining the organizing principle(s) that drive(s) the course, e.g., themes, genres, tasks, and so on.
2) Identifying the course units based on the organizing principle(s).
3) Sequencing the units.
4) Determining the language and skills content of the units.
5) Organizing the content within each unit.

The content in the course is important because it is "what" instructors will teach. There are several issues related to the content that should be given some attention.

2.3.2.1. Unit content.

According to Jordan (1997: 60-61), the content can be clarified under five headings:

1) Grammatical/structural/language form which focuses on aspects of grammar.
2) Notional/functional which lists conceptual meanings (notions, e.g., time, space, quantity) to be expressed through language, and the communicative purposes (functions) for which we use language to do things (e.g., greeting, requests, apologies, description, and comparisons).
3) Situational which lists situations or contexts in which the language will be used, and analyses the language needed for those situations.

4) Topical which may be a similar approach to that based on situations. Topics are selected from the students' specialist studies and the language analyzed: appropriate syntax and lexis are then practiced.

Ellis (2003: 218) suggested that the guiding principles for selecting the topic/theme should be topic familiarity, intrinsic interest and predicted topic relevancy to the target needs of the learners. Additionally, Estaire and Zanon (1994) also provided a theme generator and a number of topics for each thematic area for teachers.

2.3.2.2. Unit organization.

There are three complementary ways to organize units (Graves, 2000: 141): a cycle which means that the units occur in a predictable sequence, and once the sequence is completed, it starts all over again; a matrix which means that the units occur in an unpredictable sequence, depending on how the teacher conceptualizing the content of the course; or a combination of the two which means that within one unit, the course might follow a predictable sequence of learning activities and some learning activities drawing from a matrix.

The issue of task difficulty is of central importance to researchers, curriculum developers, syllabus designers, materials writers and classroom teachers because without some way of determining their difficulty, sequencing tasks becomes a matter of intuition (Nunan, 2004: 85) Determining task difficulty is complicated because there are at least three intersecting factors: learner factors, task factors, and text or input factors (Brindley, 1987, cited in Nunan, 2004: 85). On the other hand, Skehan (1998:99) has also proposed three distinct criteria that make a task difficult. His model consists of code complexity which relates to the language required, cognitive complexity which is the requirement of thinking, and communicative stress which is the performance conditions demanded by the task respectively. Each area of complexity will be elaborated as follows:

- **Code complexity** is linguistic complexity and variety, vocabulary load and variety, redundancy and density.
- **Cognitive complexity** is divided into two types: cognitive familiarity and cognitive processing. *Cognitive familiarity* is the familiarity of topic and its predictability, familiarity of discourse genre, familiarity of task. *Cognitive processing* refers to information organization, amount of "computation", clarity and sufficiency of information given, and information type.

- **Communicative stress** is time limits and time pressure, speed of presentation, number of participants, length of texts used, type of response, and opportunities to control interaction.

Once when the content and sequence of units have been decided, the course developers can consider which framework to use in order to design the course.

2.3.3. Task-based course design

Ellis (2003: 206-207) proposed a framework for task-based course design which was shown in Figure 2.3 with the following key elements:

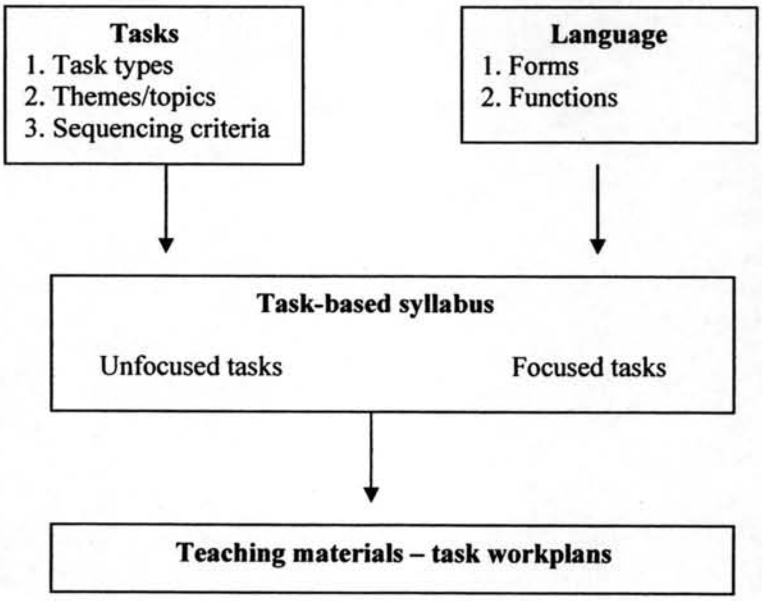
i) Tasks. It is helpful to classify tasks in terms of their type, to determine their thematic content, and then to sequence them by their level of difficulty for the learners.

ii) Language. The features of language to be learned are to be decided and whether to focus on forms or functions or a combination of both.

iii) Task-based syllabus. Two types of tasks (Ellis, 2003: 16-17): unfocused and focused tasks are to be considered in a task-based syllabus. Focused tasks have two aims: one is to stimulate communicative language use (as with unfocused tasks), the second aim is to target the use of a particular linguistic feature. This second aim contrasts focused tasks to the unfocused tasks. Unfocused tasks may predispose learners to choose from a range of forms with no pre-design of any specific form. Focused tasks are said to be useful for researchers as well as teachers for investigating a specific language feature. A task can achieve a focus in two ways. Firstly, a task must be designed in such a way that it can only be performed if learners use a particular linguistic feature. Secondly, a focused task must be constructed by making language itself the content of a task. Furthermore, Nunan (1990: 47) has mentioned that a language learning task requires specification of four components: goals, input, activities and roles of teachers and learners. Similarly, Shavelson and Stern (1981, cited in Nunan, 1990: 47) explained that task design consists of: content, materials, activities, goals, students, and social community.

iv) Preparing teaching materials will be the next step.

Figure 2.2: Framework of task-based course design


Tasks
1. Task types
2. Themes/topics
3. Sequencing criteria
Language
1. Forms
2. Functions
Task-based syllabus
Unfocused tasks
Focused tasks
Teaching materials – task workplans

2.3.4. Materials preparation

Brown (1995: 157-177) suggested three ways of preparing teaching materials which are adopting, developing, and adapting materials:

Adopting materials required pre-set review or evaluation procedures. Before adopting materials, Stevick (1971, cited in Brown, 1995: 160) recommended that they should be evaluated in terms of qualities, dimensions and components. There were three criteria of qualities to be considered which were strength, lightness, and transparency. The dimensions to be evaluated were linguistic, social, and topical. Lastly, the components were occasions for use, sample of language use, lexical exploration, and exploration of structural relationships.

Developing materials initially required decisions about the theoretical approaches and organizational principles of syllabi, conducting the needs of the learners, defining goals and objectives, using either the proficiency or diagnostic tests to inform of the students' overall levels, creating the materials, pilot teaching, and evaluating the produced materials respectively. Graves (2000: 149) defined materials development to be the planning process by which a teacher created units and lessons within those units to carry out the goals and objectives of the course. She (Grave, 2000: 156) also proposed that developing materials needed to consider learners, learning, language, social context, activity or task type, and materials.

Adapting materials involved analyzing, classifying, filling in the gaps, and reorganizing. To adapt a textbook to be teaching material, Graves (2000: 176-189) suggested to get inside the textbook and understand how it was put together and why. Then adapt the textbook at the activity, unit or book levels after understanding it.

What is as important as making a decision for materials preparation of whether to adopt, develop, or adapt the materials is the planning of lessons which will be further discussed.

2.3.4.1. Planning lessons

Woodward (2001:1) defined "planning" as a process which included "considering the students, thinking of the content, materials, and activities that could go into a course or lesson, jotting these down, having a quiet ponder, cutting things out of magazines and anything else that you feel will help you to teach well and the students to learn a lot, that is, to ensure our lessons and courses are good".

Additionally, Woodward (2001) has distinguished between "instant" and "constant" lesson planning and preparation. Instant preparation happens when an idea comes to you while you are teaching, so you will quickly jot it down for later preparation. Constant planning, on the other hand, is an idea that comes to you when engaged in non-teaching activities like reading or doing some chores.

2.3.5. Summary

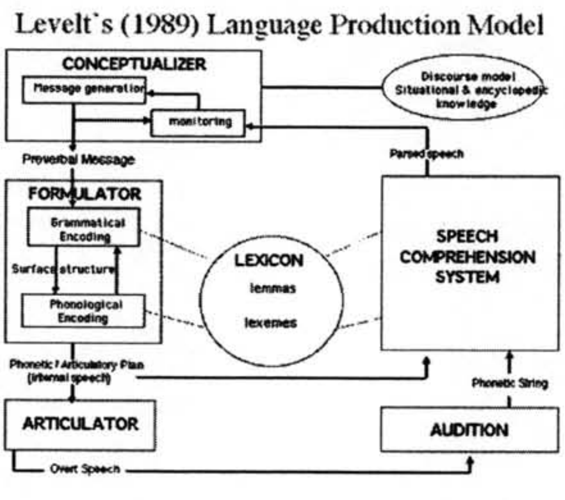
The literatures on various types of syllabi have been reviewed. Furthermore, the suggestion of course design in a learning-centered approach is also provided, and its core is the needs assessment or needs analysis. The procedures of conducting the needs analysis, its categories, and elements are also reviewed. After that the literatures on the course organization, unit content development, task-based course design, materials preparation, lesson planning are studied.

Since this study focuses on English oral skills, literatures on speaking model, abilities that underlie speaking effectiveness, communication strategies, and language inhibition are reviewed in the next section.

2.4. Oral communication skills

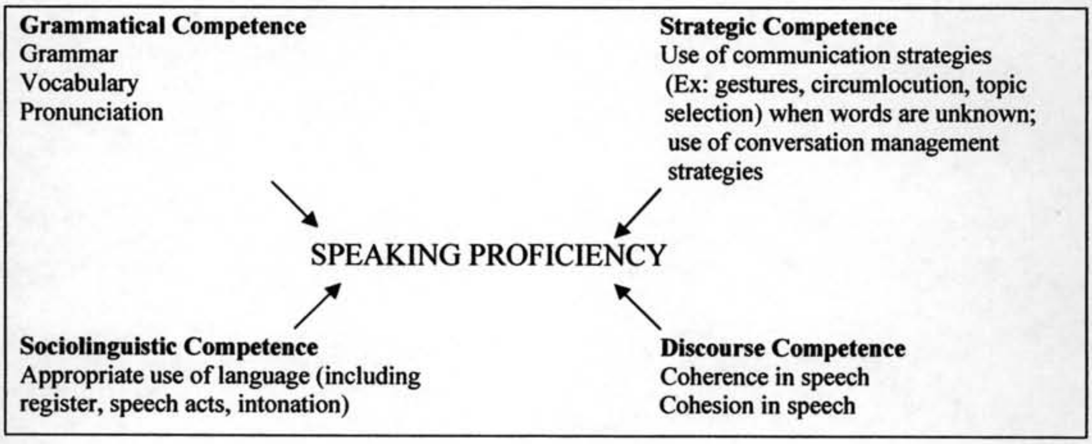
Speaking is an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing, receiving, and processing information (Burn & Joyce, 1997). It is useful to consider the nature and conditions of speech in order to understand what is involved in developing oral second language skills (Bygate, 2001: 16). The most influential model of speaking in psycholinguistic skills or information processing model was Levelt's model (Bygate, 2001; Bärenfänger et al., 2002; Payne & Whitney, 2002). Levelt (1989) proposed that speech production involves four major processes: Conceptualizer, Formulator, Articulator, and Self-monitoring. Conceptualizer is concerned with the semantic content of a to-be-spoken utterance. The background knowledge about the topic, the speech situation, and patterns of discourse are drawn in the Conceptualizer. Inside the Conceptualizer, there is a "monitor" which checks that everything occurring in the communication is as planned. As a result of this monitoring process, the speakers will self-correct for expression, grammar, and pronunciation. The Self-monitoring enables the language speakers to identify and self-correct mistakes. After the conceptualization, the Formulator will find words and phrases to express meanings. These phrases will be grammatical encoded, that is, they are sequenced and put in appropriate grammatical markers. The second task of the Formulator is to select phonological representations or the sound patterns of the words or phrases to be used. What comes next to the Formulator is the Articulator which plans and controls the articulatory organs which are the lips, tongue, teeth, alveolar palate, velum, glottis, mouth cavity, and breath. The diagram of the speaking model of Levelt (1989) is shown in Figure 2.5 for a clear picture of these processes:

Figure 2.3: Levelt's Language Production Model


Levelt's (1989) Language Production Model
CONCEPTUALIZER
Message generation
monitoring
Discourse model
Situational & encyclopedic knowledge
Preverbal Message
Parsed speech
FORMULATOR
Grammatical Encoding
Surface structure
Phonological Encoding
LEXICON
lemmas
lexemes
SPEECH COMPREHENSION SYSTEM
Phonetic / Articulatory Plan
(internal speech)
Phonetic String
ARTICULATOR
AUDITION
Overt Speech

Regarding ESL/EFL speaking learning and teaching, Scarcella and Oxford (1992: 154) described the abilities underlying speaking effectiveness which was based on Canale and Swain (1980) and Canales's (1983) framework to be:

Figure 2.4: Abilities underlying speaking effectiveness



Grammatical Competence
Grammar
Vocabulary
Pronunciation

Strategic Competence
Use of communication strategies (Ex: gestures, circumlocution, topic selection) when words are unknown; use of conversation management strategies

SPEAKING PROFICIENCY

Sociolinguistic Competence
Appropriate use of language (including register, speech acts, intonation)

Discourse Competence
Coherence in speech
Cohesion in speech

Grammatical competence involves the use and understanding of grammatical structures accurately and unhesitatingly.

Sociolinguistic competence enables speakers to use appropriate speech acts such as apologies and compliments.

Strategic competence allows speakers to stretch their ability to communicate effectively in their new language. This competence involves communication strategies and conversation strategies.

Discourse competence enables speakers to separate ideas, show relationships of time, indicate cause, show contrast, and provide emphasis in their speech.

Though it is obvious that to be able to speak a second/foreign language, it is important to know a certain amount of grammar and vocabulary, there are other necessary things that are involved in speaking, not mentioning what is going on in the learners' heads when they are processing information. To know what speaking involves can help teachers identify the problems of students' oral proficiency which in turn can assist students to overcome their problems of communication. And one of the things that students should be trained in besides learning grammar rules and memorizing vocabulary is the communication strategies.

2.4.1. Theoretical framework of communicative language ability

The most frequently used communicative model in language testing (Luoma, 2004: 97) would be that of Bachman (1990) of which there are three main components: language competence, strategic competence, and psycho-physiological mechanisms respectively.

Language competence is knowledge of language comprising of two sub-types of language competence: organizational and pragmatic competences.

Organizational competence involves the abilities in controlling the formal structure of language for producing or recognizing grammatically correct sentences, comprehending their propositional content and ordering them to form texts. These abilities include the grammatical competence which is knowledge of vocabulary, morphology, syntax and phonology/graphology, and textual competences which are knowledge of conventions for joining utterances which involve cohesion and rhetorical organization. In conversation language, it also involves conventions such as establishing, maintaining, and terminating conversations which is discussed in terms of "Grice's maxims" (1975, cited in Fromkin, Rodman, & Hyames, 2003: 213-214): Quantity, Relevance, Manner, and Quality. Quantity is to not contribute to a conversation more informative than necessary. Relevance refers to saying things relating to the current topics of the conversation. Manner is to avoid the obscurity and ambiguity of an expression. Finally, Quality is to not say something which is false or lacks of evidence.

Pragmatic competence is the abilities that involve the organization of the linguistic signals which are used to refer to persons, objects, ideas, and feelings. The notions of pragmatic competence include **illocutionary competence** and **sociolinguistic competence** respectively.

Illocutionary competence is the knowledge of the pragmatic conventions for performing acceptable language functions. The notion of illocutionary competence can be best described by speech act theory which is based on the belief that the social use of language is primarily concerned with the performance of certain communicative acts (Finch, 1998: 37). In other words, the use of language can fulfill more than one of the four functions which are ideational, manipulative, heuristic and imaginative functions respectively. The ideational function of language is used to express the speaker's experience of the real world. The manipulative function of language is used to get things done. The heuristic function of language is used to extend the speaker's knowledge of the world, as occurs in teaching, learning, problem-solving, and so on. Finally, the imaginative function of language is used to create or extend the language user's environment for humorous or aesthetic purposes.

Sociolinguistic competence is the sensitivity to, or control of the conventions of language use that enables performance of language functions in ways that are appropriate to a given context. This sensitivity to language use is divided into four types: sensitivity to differences in dialect or variety, sensitivity to differences in register, sensitivity to naturalness, and ability to interpret cultural inferences and figures of speech.

Strategic competence is defined by Canale (1983: 339; Bachman, 1990: 98) to be made up of both the compensatory characteristics of communication strategies when the linguistic competence of the language user is inadequate as well as the enhancement characteristics of production strategies to increase the rhetorical effect of utterances.

Psycho-physiological mechanisms are the neurological and physiological processes that enable us to distinguish the visual from the auditory channel and the productive from the receptive mode.

2.4.1.1. Communication strategies

During the past two decades, learners' uses of communication strategies gained numerous attentions from the second language acquisition researchers since it was believed that learners can improve communicative proficiency by developing an ability to use specific communication strategies (Nakatani, 2006). As a result, teachers and syllabus designers began to incorporate the teaching of communication strategies in speaking classes (Bailey, 2005). Tarone (1983: 5) defined communication strategies in an interactional term as, "a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared." Tarone (1983: 62-63) summarized the communication strategies into five main categories: paraphrase, borrowing, appeal for assistance, mime, and avoidance.

Paraphrase is further divided into approximation, word coinage, and circumlocution. Approximation is the use of a single target language vocabulary item or structure, which the learner knows is not correct, but which shares enough semantic features in common with the desired item to satisfy the speaker. Word coinage occurs when the learner makes up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept.

Lastly, circumlocution is a description of the characteristics or elements of the object or action instead of using the appropriate target language item or structure.

There are two types of borrowing in communication strategies. The first type is literal translation which is a word-for-word translation from the learner's native language. The second type is language switch which occurs when the learner uses the native language term without bothering to translate.

Appeal for assistance occurs when the learner asks for the correct term. And mime is the nonverbal strategies that the learner uses instead of a lexical item. Finally, avoidance can be either the avoidance of topic that the learner tries not to talk about, or the abandonment of message that the learner is unable to continue talking about and stops in mid-utterance.

The most recent research on learners' communication strategies is that of Nakatani (2006). He studied on strategic behaviors, which was termed as oral communication strategies, which learners used when facing communication problems during interactional tasks. The finding of his study was that students with high oral proficiency tended to use specific strategies such as social affective strategies, fluency-oriented strategies, and negotiation of meaning. Learners' affective factors deal with their own control of anxiety, willingness to use English as well as to take a risk of making mistakes, and cooperative interaction behavior. Fluency-oriented strategies were the students' attention of the rhythm, intonation, pronunciation, and clarity of their speech as well as the consideration of taking their time not to send inappropriate messages to their interlocutors. Finally, when the learners tried to maintain their interaction and avoided a communication breakdown, they would check their listeners' understanding by repeating their speech and giving examples. This was called the negotiation of meaning.

2.4.1.1.1. Language anxiety

Language anxiety is experienced by learners of both foreign and second language and poses potential problems because it can interfere with the acquisition, retention and production of the new language (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). People experience apprehension or stage fright in all forms of communication, but public speaking apprehension is the most common and most severe (Richmond & McCroskey, 1998, cited in Devito, 2003). Psychologically, there is a dual burden on the language learners. They must not only learn the new language, but also perform it as well.

Interestingly, Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986, cited in Dereshiwsky, 2004) outlined a theoretical framework for the investigation of levels of anxiety of foreign language students. The first component is "communication apprehension" in which the authors proposed that language students have mature thoughts and ideas but an immature second language vocabulary with which to express them. The second component is “fear of negative evaluation.” Language learners are afraid of losing face in front of the class if they get negative evaluation. Finally, a third component is the general feeling of anxiety towards a foreign language. The nervousness of understanding and performing of the new language can cause the students feel uneasy about it.

A study on students' perception on foreign language anxiety (von Worde, 2003) reported that the factors that students believed to reduce their language anxiety were a sense of community, pedagogical practices and classroom environment which is fun and relaxing, and the teacher who always gave support to the students.

The duties and responsibilities of English oral skills teachers seem to be endless. The teachers not only have to know the teaching methodologies and understand their students to be able to solve their learning problems, but they also have to know a basic understanding of speaking assessments to ensure that desired learning outcomes are being achieved and students' needs are being met.

2.4.2. Theoretical constructs of oral proficiency assessment

In any oral proficiency assessment, it is important to define clearly the theoretical constructs for an inference of the scores. Fulcher (2003) has proposed the following framework for describing speaking constructs. There are five main constructs of this framework: *language competence*, *strategic capacity*, *textual knowledge*, *pragmatic knowledge*, and *sociolinguistic knowledge* respectively.

Language competence involves knowledge of phonetic structure, an understanding of intonation and stress; knowledge of grammatical structure, vocabulary and cohesive devices; and the ‘automaticity’ of speech.

Strategic capacity includes achievement strategies of which the speakers try to overcome their communication problems and avoidance strategies which are the avoidance of using language which speakers do not have control over.

Textual knowledge is the structure of speaking or talk. Most speaking is said to be a highly structured activity (Fulcher, 2003: 34) in which speakers sequence the speech organization, take turns and repair.

Pragmatic knowledge involves appropriacy, implicature or implying something without saying it, and expressing being which implies that speakers are 'being' different persons simply through the act of communicating in the new language.

Sociolinguistic knowledge includes that of situation, topic, and culture of the target language.

Others (Brown, 2000; Burns & Joyce, 1997; Florez, 1999) have similarly suggested that the following skills and knowledge should be addressed in terms of traits of oral proficiency assessment: producing the sounds, stress patterns, rhythmic structures, and intonation of the language; using grammar structures accurately; assessing character of the target audience; selecting understandable and appropriate vocabulary that are understandable for the audience; applying strategies to enhance comprehensibility such as emphasizing key words, and so on; using gestures or body language; and paying attention to the success of the interaction and adjusting components of speech such as complexity of grammar structures to maximize listener comprehension.

Brown and Yule (1983: 108-109) indicated that the assessment of spoken production in a task-based approach should have some constancy of elicitation input. In other words, every student is asked to do the same thing. The task-based approach on speaking tests generally requires speakers to perform a task using spoken English, but does not demand that they use any specific grammatical structures or any specific vocabulary items. These structures and vocabulary items in their performances must be adequate for the performance of the task. However Brown and Yule's indication does not seem to be comprehensive enough as opposed to the theoretical framework of communicative competence of Canale and Swain (1980: 28) since it overlooks the appropriateness and strategies of using the lexicon. Tasks that are used to elicit spoken language can have static, dynamic, and abstract relationships. Tasks that require students to describe an object/photograph, draw a diagram, assemble a piece of equipment, or give a route direction possess static relationships. Tasks such as a story-telling or giving an eye-witness account have dynamic relationships. The abstract relationships can be found in tasks such as opinion expression and course of action justification.

A framework of testing spoken interaction was suggested by Weir (1993) which involved the operations, the conditions, and the quality of output. The operations are activities or skills that are involved in spoken interaction such as the informational routines such as telling a story, and the improvisational skills which happen when the routines break down. The conditions refer to time constraints, the number of people involved and their familiarity with each other. Finally, the quality of output is the expected level of performance in terms of various relevant criteria, for example, accuracy, fluency, or intelligibility.

2.4.3. Speaking assessments criteria

Speaking assessments can take many forms from standardized tests to authentic assessments (Florez, 2005), or classroom assessments to large scale examinations (Lazaraton, 2001). McMillan (2004: 52-79) mentioned some practical criteria for ensuring high-quality assessments which are useful and applicable for oral skills assessment. Those criteria are *validity*, *reliability*, and *efficiency*.

Validity refers to the soundness, trustworthiness, or legitimacy of the claims or inferences that are made of the obtained scores. There are three types of validity: **content-related**, **criterion-related**, and **construct-related validity**. The **content validity** refers to the selection of the samples of language materials and tasks to be tested. The **criterion validity** relates to an assessment to some other valued measures (criterion) that either provides an estimate of current performance (concurrent criterion-related evidence), or predicts future performance (predictive criterion-related evidence). Lastly, **construct validity** requires the underlying theory of language on which the test is constructed.

Reliability is concerned with the *consistency*, *stability* and *dependability of the scores*. The *consistency* is related to both **internal** and **rater consistency**. The **internal consistency** is based on the degree of homogeneity of the scores on items measuring the same trait. It assumes that the scores of items measuring the same trait should give consistent results. Three types of internal consistency estimates are split-half, Kuder-Richardson, and Coefficient Alpha. The **rater consistency** is an agreement between two or more raters on the same performances. *Stability* refers to consistency over time. This type of estimate is also called test-retest reliability.

Finally, *dependability of the scores* provides evidence in making judgments about whether students are "proficient", or whether they "pass".

Efficiency and practicality includes the familiarity with the method of assessment, the time required of students to complete the assessments, the complexity of administering the assessment, the ease of scoring, the ease of interpretation, and cost.

2.4.4. Speaking tests: interview and narrative

The oral interview is the most common procedure for assessing spoken language proficiency, particularly when using a proficiency rating scale (Burns & Joyce, 1997: 104). Manidis and Prescott (1994: 27, cited in Burns and Joyce, 1997: 106) have proposed stages and procedures for an oral assessment interview with the following steps:

The first step is the exploratory stage. The procedures are to welcome the learner and introduce oneself, explain the purpose of the interview and initiate conversation. The purpose is to make an intuitive assessment.

The second step is the analytical probing and extending stage. The first procedure is to elicit language samples by directing questions that allow the learner to display features of language behavior described in the level that have been selected. The purpose is to check the level of the learner's proficiency. The second procedure is to extend depth of questions, use visual stimuli and change topics to seek extension of the language behavior. The purpose is to adjust and check the language level. The third procedure is to take the learner to the point at which he or she can no longer function comfortably compared with the previous level of interaction. Its purpose is to confirm the language level.

The last step is the concluding and winding down stage. The procedures are to return to a comfortable level of general conversational interaction for the learner and proceed with the remainder of assessment which is the written recording of the assessment.

The simple stages of interview have also been mentioned by Underhill (1987: 55) which are the introduction, finding a level by using a series of questions and topics, find-tuning the level, eliciting the learner's opinion on her/his oral ability, overall proficiency, strengths and weakness in the language, giving feed-back, and winding up.

Story-telling is also used to assess the oral proficiency of the students. It is prompted with cartoon-strips, sequences of photographs or with short pieces of film or video. The difference between the interview and story-telling tests is the planning time. The test-takers are expected to interact spontaneously in the interview test. For story-telling test, there is a planning time provided for the test-takers because narrative task can increase cognitive load to the test-takers (Brown & Yule, 1983: 37-53). The learners are required to do other activities which are not directly related to telling the story. For example: the use of pictures may have different cultural implications for speakers of some languages, and the "proliferation of the same-type of participants", like characters of the different gender which the learners can differentiate by using the pronouns "he" or "she".

The "interactional activity" of Pica et al. (1993, cited in Fulcher, 2003: 57) in Figure 2.5 has been recommended as a framework for characterizing tasks for speaking tests.

Figure 2.5: Framework for characterizing speaking test task

1. Task orientation
    - Open: outcomes dependent upon speakers
    - Guided: outcomes are guided by the rubrics, but there is a degree of flexibility in how the test-taker reacts to the input.
    - Closed: outcomes dictated by input or rubrics
2. Interactional relationship
    - Non-interactional
    - Interactional (one-way, two-way, or multi-way)
3. Goal orientation
    - None
    - Convergent
    - Divergent
4. Interlocutor status and familiarity
    - No interlocutor
    - Higher status
    - Lower status
    - Same status
    - Degree of familiarity with interlocutor
5. Topic(s)
6. Situations

2.4.4.1. Assessment of interview test

According to Chalhoub-Deville (1995: 21), the purpose of an interview test is to measure the following: length of students' responses, linguistic maturity (simple vs. complex), vocabulary, appropriateness of the language used with the topic, student's understanding of interviewer, student's attempt to get meaning across, ability to converse on diverse topics, and giving details unassisted. By taking the previously mentioned test constructs into consideration, a rating scale of this study has been developed depending on the following criteria: *complexity of the language structure, accuracy of the language structure, fluency of the speech, pronunciation, appropriacy of register or vocabulary, flexibility to adapt to change of topic or task, and confidence to initiate speech.*

Following is the framework for characterizing an interview test regarding the "interactional activity" of Pica et al. (1993, cited in Fulcher, 2003: 57).

Table 2.6: Framework for characterizing an interview test

Task Orientation	Guided. It is a face-to-face encounter between an interviewer/examiner and a candidate/test-taker. The interviewer asks questions in order to rate the performance. The questions will guide the test-taker through the process.
Interactional Relationship	Two-way, between the interviewer and the test-taker.
Goal Orientation	Convergent. The interview test is a structured encounter conducted for measurement purposes.
Interlocuter Status and Familiarity	The interviewer is of higher status, acting as a rater as well.
Topics	Variable. Topics and questions are selected by the interviewer according to each stage starting from the exploratory stage to the analytical probing and extending.
Situations	An interview, mainly constructed of questions by the interviewer and answers provided by the test-taker.

2.4.4.2. Assessment of narrative test

Underhill (1987: 67) has indicated that the narrative test is considered effective in providing learners with the "...opportunity for personal expression and interpretation." Hence, the narrative test task in this study which is based on picture(s), a sequence of cartoon drawing(s), or other stimulus material(s) aims to have the learners tell a story based on those stimulus materials as well as to express their personal opinions and interpretation. Apart from that, the test constructs presumes that learners' narratives vary along the following dimensions: the learners' repertoire of vocabulary, linguistic maturity (simple vs complex), attempts to get the meaning across, adequacy of information in their narrations, proper temporal shift, ability to tell a story and creativity (Chalhoub-Deville, 1995:21). Therefore, the criteria of the rating scales in this study will be as follows: *complexity of the language structure, accuracy of the language structure, fluency of the speech, pronunciation, appropriacy of register or vocabulary, thematic development, and coherence and cohesion*

Table 2.7 is the framework that describes the narrative test according to the interactional activity (Pica et al., 1993, cited in Fulcher, 2003: 57).

Table 2.7: Framework for describing a narrative test

Task Orientation	Guided. While there may be some possibility for some test-takers to change the story creatively, most narrative tasks require the speakers to produce the expected story.
Interactional Relationship	One-way. The interviewer may ask clarification questions.
Goal Orientation	Convergent. The test-taker is primarily required to produce a monologue that will tell a story as efficiently as possible.
Interlocuter Status and Familiarity	The interviewer is of higher status, acting as a rater as well.
Topics	Short stories that can be visually depicted in pictures.
Situations	Variable

2.4.5. Summary

Levelt's model of speech production (1989) has been reviewed to explain what process a speech production involves. Then the abilities underlying speaking effectiveness (Scarcella and Oxford, 1992), particularly, the strategic competence or the communication strategies have been discussed. And most importantly, language anxiety or a problem that can interfere with foreign and second language learners' acquisition including a framework for investigating levels of anxiety and a study on students' perception on foreign language anxiety were reviewed.

What is important for the English speaking teachers is to have a thorough knowledge of speaking assessments to be able to make a better decision on what to look for from the students in terms of assessment. Therefore, the theoretical framework of communicative language ability of Bachman (1990), the criteria of speaking assessment, and the theoretical constructs of oral proficiency were reviewed accordingly. And since this study uses the interview and narrative tests to assess the participants' oral proficiency, the procedure of oral interview test and the constructs of both interview and narrative tests are also mentioned.

After the test construct of each test task has been decided, the literature on the methods of analyzing the raw data in quantitative and qualitative dimensions will be reviewed in the following section.

2.5. Quantitative and qualitative data analysis methods

2.5.1. Quantitative analysis method

Oral or speaking assessment is concerned with performance assessment which requires the learners to provide samples of spoken language (Council of Europe, 2003: 187). One assessment technique is based on a rating scale of speaking performance. A rating scale, scoring rubric, or proficiency scale is defined as a scale for the description of language proficiency consisting of a series of constructed levels against which a language learner's performance is judged (Devies et al., 1999, cited in Fulcher, 2003: 88). Rating scales are important in tests of speaking because they are operationalizations of the construct that the test is supposed to measure (Douglas, 1994; Fulcher, 2003: 113). Fulcher (2003) explained that the band descriptor is, "a major part of the meaning of the score, and delimits the type of inferences that can be made from the test score by the score users."

The band scales used in this study are adapted and developed from the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: learning, teaching, assessment (2001), and other literature on speaking testing and assessment (Burns & Joyce, 1997; Fulcher, 2003; Hughes, 2003; Luoma, 2004) with a consideration of the theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second/foreign language teaching and testing of Canale and Swain (1980). The descriptors are divided into seven categories on five scales per each category. The descriptors are *complexity, accuracy, fluency, pronunciation, vocabulary, thematic development, and coherence and cohesion.*

Another quantitative analysis method is the use of T-unit measurement. One of the studies of Lennon (1990: 387-417) on the investigation of fluency in EFL using a Quantitative Approach shows that measuring speech performance can be quantifiable. Lennon used the T-unit, following Hunt (1970:4) and Vorster (1980:28), which was defined as one main clause and all its attendant subordinate clauses and no-clausal units, for measurement of "fluency". In addition, Bygate (1996; 2001a) has also used the T-unit to measure his participants' oral language performance on narrative task repetition. Though Foster, Tonkyn, and Wigglesworth (2000: 360) have commented in their literature reviews that T-unit definition is inadequate to deal with a full analysis of spoken discourse, it is clearly the most popular unit for the analysis of both written and spoken data. Perhaps a problem may arise when analyzing the spoken discourse of a participant with a low proficiency level. In Tarone's study (1985, cited in Foster, Tonkyn & Wigglesworth, 2000: 360) and the preliminary study for this research, it was found that T-unit was inapplicable to measure the spoken discourse of low proficiency students because their utterances were chunks of phrases rather than sentences.

Bygate (2001a) mentioned the three areas of measurement of oral language performance using the T-unit in his empirical study which are as follows:

FLUENCY is measured in terms of the number of unfilled pauses per T-unit, that is, the higher the number of unfilled pauses there is, the less fluent the talk.

ACCURACY is calculated by the incidence of errors per T-unit, that is, the higher the number there is, the less accurate the language.

COMPLEXITY is measured in terms of number of words per T-unit, that is, the higher the number there is, the more complex the language.

2.5.2. Qualitative analysis method

Regarding the analysis of group interaction, McGrath and Altermatt (2003: 535) suggested four fundamental parameters of group interaction coding systems which are who is involved in the action, what kind of action it is, when the action occurs, and to what degree (or how much) the action occurs respectively.

Data does not mean anything. The researcher has to decide how to retrieve the data collected from observations, interviews, and/or evaluation forms, what to do with it, and what it all means. LeCompte and Preissle (1993) suggested "theorizing" as a conceptual technique for qualitative analysis. "Theorizing" is the cognitive process of discovering or manipulating abstract categories and the relationships among those categories. The tasks of theorizing are composed of four components which are perception; comparing, contrasting, aggregating, and ordering; establishing linkages and relationships; and speculation. Perception means that the researcher or observer should perceive everything that happens as having equal importance, and record every phenomenon as if "it were new and unfamiliar and potentially significant" (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993: 240). Comparing, contrasting, aggregating, and ordering are the organization of collected data. The researcher starts with dividing observed phenomena into units or categories, and determining the association of items and aggregating them into groups. Various categories will then be put into hierarchy or taxonomy. Once items have been identified, linkages may be established by simple comparing and contrasting, by identifying underlying associations, by inference, or by statistical manipulation depending on the preferences, culture, and training of the researcher. Finally, the last component of theorizing is to make speculations and inferences. The researcher will go beyond the data and make guesses about what will happen in the future, based upon what has been learned in the past about constructs and linkages among them as well as in comparisons between that knowledge and what presently is known about the same phenomena.

2.5.3. Summary

Two types of data analysis of the spoken language samples of the students are reviewed. The first type is to analyze these samples in the quantitative way by using the rating scales and the T-unit. The second type is the qualitative data analysis using the "theorizing" technique to analyze the data obtained from observations, personal interviews, and/or evaluation forms.