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Faculty of Letters and Languages

**The Effect of Task Repetition on Students'
Written Language Production**

**Case Study: Second Year Students and Teachers of Written Expression at
Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University in Jijel**

**Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment for the Requirements of the Degree of
Master in English Language Sciences**

Submitted by:

Ahlem Reghioua

Supervised by:

Redouane NAILI

Farah Tamoum

Board of Examiners:

Supervisor: Redouane NAILI

University of Jijel

Chairperson: Selma BOUHALI

University of Jijel

Examiner: Dr. Meriem BOUSBA

University of Jijel

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Dedication

***In the name of Allah, the Most Gracious the Most Merciful, all the praise is
due to Him alone, the Sustainer of all the Worlds***

I would like to dedicate this work to:

The most precious people to my heart; the ones who supported me unconditionally during my long educational journey; my dear mother and beloved father may Allah bless them.

My brothers: Amine and Mustapha, and my dearest sisters: Sabah and Amina

My uncles, aunts and cousins without forgetting my lovely friends: Feriel, Souha, Imane,
Madjeda ,Amina, Ahlem, and Souhier.,

To all those who were there for me, I dedicate this humble work to you.

Farah

Dedication

In the name of Allah, the Most Gracious the Most Merciful, all the praise is due to Him alone, the Sustainer of all the Worlds

I am grateful to dedicate this work to:

My dearest mother who worked hard to make this moment becomes real, who encouraged and supported me. Also, My beloved father who gave me everything in this life.

Houria may Allah bless her

Azzedine may Allah bless him

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Abstract

Various types of tasks are used to promote language learning in Task Based Language Teaching. Teaching repetition of tasks in class is regarded to help learners to improve their performance. The present study aims to investigate and shed light on the attitudes towards and the effectiveness of two types of repeated tasks, same-type tasks and identical tasks, on the students' written production in terms of its complexity, accuracy, and fluency. Data are gathered through the use of a questionnaire administered to 10 teachers who have taught written expression at the department of English, Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University, Jijel. Furthermore, a quasi-experiment was conducted with two groups of second year students at the same university (n 30). The results obtained from the teachers' questionnaire demonstrate that the majority of teachers support same task-type repetition in classroom and they claim that it contributes to develop students' writing. Moreover, the researchers relied on a t-test analysis in order to test the validity of the results obtained from the quasi-experiment which were not statistically significant. In other words, the repetition of either the same task or a same type of task does not improve the students' writing skill. On the basis of this analysis the two hypotheses were rejected. Thus, repeating the same task or same task-type do not enhance the students' written production. However, the results obtained from identical task repetition raised in terms of the frequencies of fluency (words and verbs), accuracy (correct words and articles) and complexity (lexical words and adverbs). Similarly, the results obtained from task-type repetition increased in terms ratios of fluency (word per sentences), complexity (lexical words per total words, conjunctions per sentencesand passive sentences per sentences).

Key words: TBLT, task repetition, identical task repetition, task-type repetition, second performance, CAF measures, writing development.

List of Abbreviations

AdjC: Adjectival Clauses

AdvC: Adverbial Clause

C: clause

CAF: Complexity Accuracy Fluency

CAF: Complexity, Accuracy, and Fluency measurements

CorrART\ART: Correct articles per total articles

CorrS\S: Correct sentences per total sentences

CorrW\W: Correct words per total words

DC\C: Dependent clauses per total number of clauses

DepC: Dependent Clause

E: Errors

EFC\C : Error- free clause per total number of clauses

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

EFT\T : Error- free T- unit per total number of T- units

ESP: English for Specific Purposes

FL: Foreign Language

FonF: Focus on Form

GrE\W: Grammatical errors per total clauses (sentences)

L2: second Language

LexE\c: Lexical errors per total clauses (sentences)

LMD: Licence / Master / Doctorat

LWT\LW: Lexical word type per total number of lexical words

NomC: Nominal Clause

P: Page

P\S: Passive sentences per total number of sentences

Q: Question

S: Sentence

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

SLL: Second Language Learning

TBI: Task Based Instruction

TBLL: Task Based Language Learning

TBLT: Task Based Language Teaching

TL: Target Language

VT\V: Verb type per total number of verbs

W: Word

W: Words

W\S: Total number of words per total number of sentences

WT\W: Word Type per total number of words

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Introduction

Task-based language teaching (TBLT), also called Task based language learning (TBLL) or Task based instruction (TBI), stresses the use of communicative tasks in order to develop students' inter-language through providing a task, which is meaningful to students, and then asking them perform or solve it using language. The approach is based on communicative views on language teaching, and therefore, differs enormously from traditional ones in that instead of teaching and practising language structures and functions, it uses tasks as a means of learning(Harmer, 2007).

An important aspect of TBLT is that of task repetition, which aims essentially at improving learners' language production. Bygate and Samuda (2005) defined task repetition as “repetition of the same or slightly altered tasks—whether whole task or parts of the task.” (p.43). Bygate (2001) further identifies real task repetition as “the kind experienced by learners when they find themselves repeatedly in a highly communicative situation and with the opportunity to build on their previous attempt at completing a task (p.29)

In order to improve learning, TBLT uses different types of communicative tasks, the repetition of which in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms, is believed to assist the learners to enhance their performance and, particularly, develop their language production. This is because, as its proponents argue, when a task is performed for once only, the learners may not have enough time or opportunities to pay attention to several aspects of the target language such as fluency, complexity, and accuracy of their language production, unlike when the task is performed for the second time.

1. Review of Previous Research

Task Repetition (TR) is now considered as an important Task-Based implementation variable in that it could be used as pedagogical tool to direct the attention of Second Language (L2) learners toward the form of the language being practised (Hawkes, 2011).

Numerous researches studied the impact of TR on students' oral language production in terms of accuracy, fluency and complexity. Bygate (1996) explored the effect of narrative TR on students' oral language production. He asks a language learner to watch a Tom and Jerry video cartoon, and then to retell it after 3 days without being told at the first occasion that the task will be repeated. He concluded that both complexity and fluency of language production increased in the second performance and that task repetition does have a significant effect on both of them.

Lynch and Mclean (2000) went further to investigate the effectiveness that the repetition of a task has in English for Specific Purpose (ESP) context. They designed a special and interesting task called "postal carousal" where students were asked to read an academic article and prepare a poster presentation relied on it. Their study revealed that TR could increase accuracy in pronunciation, and induce self-correction and vocabulary selection. Also, they noticed that the intervals between the first and the second performances of the tasks had an effect on language production (as cited in Mojavezi, 2014).

Furthermore, Bygate (2001) compares the performances of 48 students on narrative and interview, the learners were divided into two groups; the first group asked to perform narrative task and the other group was asked to perform interview task where the two occasions of performance were ten week time interval. The results show that task type has no effect on students' production while, task repetition has a significant impact on fluency and complexity.

A study conducted by Birjandi and Ahangari (2008) in Iranian EFL learners focused on three types of oral tasks, namely personal narrative, story narrative, and decision-making. Owing to repetition, these tasks all led to an increase in the participants' fluency and complexity, which are not paralleled by a similar increase in accuracy.

Similarly, studying Japanese EFL learners, Matsumara, Kawamura and Africano (2008),

concluded that the repetition of a narrative task could increase the fluency of a participant, something the repetition of a decision-making task could not do. However, it could increase the complexity of language to a greater extent.

In the more recent studies of TR, Ahmadian and Tavakoli (2011) explored the impact of simultaneous use of task recycling and careful online planning on the CAF of EFL learners. The learners were asked to re-perform an oral narrative task with one week time interval. They found that the repetition of oral narrative tasks after a one-week interval led to the improvement of L2 oral production in terms of fluency and complexity.

Limited number of studies has also investigated the impact of task repetition on written language production. Bygate and Samuda (2005) among few researchers, who drew attention to the impact of TR on written language production, suggested that when a particular type of communicative task is repeated that repetition may affect discourse complexity and discourse features such as evaluation, interpretation, summarizing and cohesive links. Also, they noticed a significant improvement of performance in how students frame information when the task is repeated (as cited in Indrarathne, 2013).

Larsen Freeman (2006) examined the performance of five L1 Chinese-speaking ESL learners on a writing task, then oral narrative repetition tasks for a six month period. The oral repetition task was given directly to the students after the written task which was of the same content. She concluded that when the narrative task was repeated the accuracy, fluency and complexity of language may increase at the beginning in the written mode, an increase that carries over into the oral mode (as cited in Jung, 2013).

Jung (2013) also shed light on to the impact of TR on written language production. Through repetition of the same types of essays, he noticed that the procedure enabled learners to increase the fluency and complexity of language production, even though there was no increase in accuracy.

In conclusion, it can be said that there have been several empirical studies on the effect of task repetition on oral language production. However, there has been limited research on the impact of repetition on written language production. Concerning the Algerian context of teaching and learning English as a foreign language, no attention has been given to the effect of repeating a task on written language, as far as our review of research on the subject has covered.

2. Statement of the Problem

Throughout the learning process students may face different problems, especially in writing. Teachers try to find solutions to overcome these problems using various techniques and strategies. One of these solutions is drawn from the TBLT method, which is based on the premise that doing purposeful, carefully designed tasks may contribute to enhancing the learners' level, and prepare them well for real life situations.

While most previous studies shed light on the impact of TBLT, in general, and the effect of TR on the learners' oral performance, in particular, the current study aims to test the effects of task repetition on the learners' written production. It goes further to distinguish between same or identical TR and the repetition of tasks on the basis of their types, task-type repetition.

3. Research Questions

The present study attempts to answer the following questions:

- What are the teachers' attitudes towards TR?
- Does task repetition affect students' progress in written language production in terms of its CAF qualities?
- Which kind of repetition, same-task or task-type, would result in better results, if any, on the quality of students' written productions in terms of CAF measures?

4. Hypotheses of the Study:

It is hypothesised that the repetition of tasks would improve the learners' overall language performance on written compositions in terms of their CAF measures. It is also hypothesised that same-task and task-type repetitions would lead to different gains in the CAF measures of students' written compositions.

5. Purpose of the Study

The topic under study attempts to draw the teachers' attention to the fact that the repetition of tasks may have an effect on their students' performance on written language compositions. In other words, it focuses on exploring the positive and/ or negative effects of task repetition on written language production. Moreover, the paper tests the common belief that when a task is repeated for a second time, the repetition will lead the students to react faster with lower error-making enhancing the students' performance.

6. Means of Research

This study takes place at the University of Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia, Jijel, focuses on second year LMD English classes. It relies on quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis methods. First, a questionnaire is administered to ten (10) Written Expression teachers at the same University. Second, an experiment to measure differences in performance on different types of task repetition is conducted with two groups of students consisting of fifteen (15) students in each group.

7. Structure of the Study

The study is composed of a general introduction, outlining the broad lines along which the research is designed, followed by two theoretical chapters and a third chapter dealing with field work, and ends with a general conclusion putting the results, limitations, recommendations and suggestions for further research altogether.

The first chapter, entitled “Task Repetition in Task Based Language Teaching”, defines TBLT as an approach to language teaching and learning, and it deals in details with task repetition as a one of the implementations of TBLT. The main focus of this chapter is to shed light on the definitions of task, task repetition and the types of task repetition, the place of focus when repeating a task, and ends with some assumptions about classroom language learning.

The second chapter is entitled “Assessing the Complexity, Accuracy and Fluency of Written Productions”. It defines the three dimensions of task performance (CAF): complexity, accuracy and fluency. The main purpose of this chapter is to give a comprehensive definition of writing, its importance as a language skill, the main writing approaches, some developmental studies of language and writing. The chapter ends with an overview about assessment of CAF measures.

The third and the last chapter, entitled “Field Work” provides a description of data collection procedures, analysis and interpretation of the results.

Chapter One: Task Repetition in Task-Based Language Teaching

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Chapter One: Task Repetition in Task-Based Language Teaching

Introduction

Task-based language teaching (TBLT) has attracted more and more attention in foreign language field since 1980s. Being a learner-centered educational philosophy, TBLT seeks to provide learners with communicative tasks in order to develop their language performance and language production as well. In other words, TBLT aims at presenting opportunities for learners to control language by means of learning tasks that are purposeful, carefully designed to engage learners in more natural contexts for language use.

The repetition of tasks is viewed as an important implementation variable of TBLT in classroom language learning, it has been the object of interest for many scholars and researchers in last few decades. This chapter attempts to give insights into TBLT, starting by a task definition, its origins and package for language learning. Then, it draws attention to the types of instructional tasks used in classroom moving to illustrate the task phases. Moreover, the teachers' and learners' roles are also emphasized in this chapter as well as the advantages and disadvantages of TBLT. Furthermore, this chapter sheds light on task repetition in language teaching and learning by first defining task repetition, repetition as rehearsal in second language acquisition and then its types. Next, it discusses its focus on form and meaning during task performance. In addition to a rational for task repetition, the chapter stresses language production and performance, and ends up with classroom language learning as a habit formation in behaviorism.

1.1. Definition of Task

Oxford Advanced Learner's English dictionary for current English defined task as “a piece of work that somebody has to do, especially a hard or unpleasant one” (Hornby, 2000, p. 1330). This is the most commonly definition of task. Over the last few decades, the

definition of task has become a hot topic for debate among educators who supplied different point of view regarding the definition of a task.

Long (1985) defined task as “a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward” (as cited in Hismanoglu, 2011, p. 47). According to the above definition, a task is the thing or things people do in their everyday life at work, at home, at play and so on. Littlejohn (1998), on the other hand, stressed that a task “refers to any proposal contained within the materials for action to be undertaken by the learners, which has the direct aim of bringing about the learning of the foreign language” (as cited in Izadpanah, 2010, p.50). Bygate, Skehan, and Swain (2001) defined a task as “an activity which requires learners to use language, with emphasis on meaning, to attain an objective” (as cited in Ellis, 2003, p. 5). For Prabhu (1987), a task is “an activity which requires learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought, and which allows teachers to control and regulate that process” (as cited in Samuda & Bygate, 2008, p.63).

Nunan (2004) stated that tasks should be divided into two parts, namely target and pedagogical tasks. He clarified that target tasks are those that refer to uses of language in the world beyond the classroom, while pedagogical tasks are those occurring in the classroom. Tasks become pedagogical when they are transported from the real world into the classroom. In other words, the pedagogical tasks should represent a bridge to real world tasks. Recently, researchers have become interested in pedagogical tasks that can work in the language classroom, that is why, from a pedagogical perspective, they give different definitions of task.

Breen (1987) defined a task as “a range of work plans which have the overall purposes of facilitating language learning—from the simple and brief exercise type, to more complex and lengthy activities such as group problem-solving or simulations and decision-making” (as cited in Nunan, 2004, p. 4). According to this definition, a task is any language-related activity conducted in the classroom. Breen sees a task as a set of work plans that the teacher

uses to enhance and facilitate language learning. More recently, Nunan (2004) has given his own definition that draws an overall view of a task. He defined a task as:

a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form. (p.4)

This definition gives the reader an insight about the position of learners when they are engaged in TBLT which is restricted to manipulating, comprehending, interacting and producing. Moreover, Nunan emphasizes that the first concern of a task is to transfer meaning instead of form, and this doesn't mean that grammatical form is not important.

1.2. Origins of TBLT

TBLT is another way of looking at Communicative Language Teaching (CLT); in fact, it is the implementation of CLT principles. Rather than using language structures and vocabulary lists as the core components of language teaching, it employs tasks as the organizing units of its syllabus.

TBLT was first applied in the south of India in what was called the Bangalore project by Prabhu (1987), who advanced the idea of a task-based approach. He believed that students may learn more effectively when their minds are focused on the task, rather than on the language they are using (as cited in Büyükkarcı, 2009). The method gained popularity because of the support it received from Second Language Acquisition (SLA) researchers such as Long and Crookes (1993), who held that focusing on form does not help learners to acquire and communicate in the target language. In fact, SLA research emphasizes that

language is better internalized through tasks that look like everyday life ones (as cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

Because it is designed specifically to respond to the learners' needs, TBLT is an approach believed to motivate learners to communicate actively in the target language in order to facilitate acquisition. According to Feez (1999), TBLT is characterized by focusing on process rather than product, language is better learnt when learners interact meaningfully through activities that can be authentic or pedagogical. These activities are selected based on the difficulty of the task, which depends on the level of complexity, the learner's previous experience and the degree of support.

1.3. The TBLT Package for Language Teaching and Learning

Like most approaches that are directed for language teaching and learning, TBLT is designed in accordance with the guidelines of linguistic and learning theories,

1.3.1. Theoretical Background of TBLT

Two theories and modules influence the design, implementation and effectiveness of the task-based syllabus. The Task-Based Learning (TBL) approach is mainly based on the theory of learning, but it can be said that it is supported by certain views about the nature of language. The theories of language and theories of learning on which TBLT is based are widely explained in Richards and Rodgers (2001), and are put in brief hereunder.

1.3.1.1. Theory of Language

Many different assumptions regarding the nature of language have motivated current approaches of task-based syllabus and learning. The first supposition is that language is a means for the expression of meaning. Hence, TBLT is not concerned with language display as much as it concerned with the completion of the task. Skehan (1998) noted that meaning is

the most important thing and the assessment of the task is done based on the outcome. He also added that TBL is not about language display (as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

The second assumption on the theory of language is that TBL depends on multiple language models that guide a task-based syllabus. The proponents of this model determine the linguistic complexity of the task from a structural perspective (language is a system of structurally related elements to code meaning for instance, grammar), its meaning the social dimension of language from a functional perspective (language is a vehicle to express or accomplish a certain function, such as requesting something), and its interactional quality from an interactional perspective (language is a vehicle for the creation and maintenance of social relations, focusing on patterns of moves, acts, negotiation and interaction found in conversational exchanges) (as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

The third view on the language theory sees that lexical units are central in language use and language learning. According to Richard and Rodgers (2001), vocabulary plays an important role in second language learning (SLL) and language use; in task based instruction, vocabulary is used to include stems of sentences, lexical phrases, assembled collocations and routines, and not only words being the significant lexical analysis units. Finally, the theory of language deems that conversation is the key language focus and the basis for acquiring a language. For this reason group work, collaboration and cooperation are very important in the approach.

1.3.1.2. Theory of Learning

As pointed out above, the task-based syllabus is essentially influenced by a theory of learning. This theory is about the tasks that provide both input and output processing necessary for language acquisition. It uses Krashen's hypothesis of comprehensible input (language is slightly above the learner's current level. He called this level of input "i+1", where "i" is the learner's inter-language and "+1" is the next stage of language acquisition), in

which he insisted that for acquiring a second language (L2) comprehensible input is the only necessary condition (Krashen, 1982). However, according to Swain (1985), exposure to comprehensible input alone is not enough to acquire language proficiency. In her study of a Canadian immersion programme, Swain noticed that despite intensive exposure to the target language (TL), students failed to reach native-like proficiency when communicating in the TL. Hence, she claimed that foreign language students need equally comprehensible input and output (output hypothesis stated that learning takes place when a learner encounters a gap in his or her linguistic knowledge of the second language (L2), which are believed to be key processes in language learning (Nunan, 2004). Other researchers such as Plough and Gass (1993) considered negotiation of meaning as the core component for acquiring an L2 because it helps learners to focus their attention on some part of an utterance (pronunciation, lexicon and grammar) that needs change. Hence, negotiation can be seen as the trigger for language acquisition. Indeed, SLA research affirms that language learning techniques are activated during the process of negotiation in the TL; and the use of tasks permits the use of both comprehensible input and output (as cited in Richard and Rodgers, 2001).

The second assumption is that tasks and achievement are motivational. From Richards' and Rodgers' perspective, the tasks can improve the learners' motivation and therefore promote learning. Because they demand the learners to use accurate language, they include physical activity, they call for collaboration and at times they need past experiences of the learner and they encourage and tolerate different styles of communication. As quoted in Willis (1996), a trainee teacher commented on such tasks in an experience that involves listening, stating that such tasks are "genuinely authentic, easy to understand because of natural repetition; students are motivated to listen because they have just done the same task and want to compare how they did it" (p.11).

The last learning theory states that modification, perfection and negotiation can be done for specific pedagogical purposes in case there is difficulty in learning a language. According to Skehan (1998), a task should be designed to suit the level of the learners, and this in turn can enhance both their awareness of the form of the TL and their fluency during the task. In addition, he proposed that tasks can be used to direct the learners' attention toward specific language aspects (as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Since task is the core component of TBLT, Nunan (2004) has summarized seven principles which have to be followed in a TBLT frame. The first principle is scaffolding, which suggests that lessons and materials should provide support to the learners, and that the learning process cannot take place unless learners have been provided the language they need in order to complete the task. The second, task dependency, states that each task has to be related with the previous one as this chain has to tell a pedagogical story. The third principle corresponds to the students' recycling of language through which language learning is facilitated. Via such a recycling, the learners can experience how the TL items function in completely different contexts and in closely related ones. The fourth principle, active learning, focuses on the premise of learning by doing; language is better learnt if it is actively used by learners, and the teacher should play a more passive role as much as possible. With regard to the fifth principle, integration, the elements of language form, meaning and function are integrated into the learning process in TBLT. As such, learners are able to recognize the relationship between them. The sixth principle, reproduction to creation, demands that learners should not only drill and practice what has been written for them, or in other words, they should not reproduce the language provided by the teacher, but they should use their creativity and imagination and what they have learned to solve real world tasks. The last principle, reflection, according to Nunan gives the chance to learners to think about what they have learned and how well they are performing.

1.3.2. Types of Instructional Tasks

When TBLT was first applied, Prabhu (1987) set out three categories of tasks:

information gap tasks, reasoning gap tasks and opinion gap tasks. These categories are drawn on the basis of their cognitive demands.

1.3.2.1. Information-Gap Tasks

An information-gap Task is an activity in which learners find themselves lacking the information that is needed to finish or complete a task. It involves exchanging information between students and transferring it from one shape to another or from one position to another. For instance, in pair work activities, each learner has a piece or a part of the whole information (for instance an incomplete picture) and tries to transmit it verbally to the other. Another example is completing a table depending on information given in a piece of text. The activity usually involves choosing pertinent information and, learners should cover some norms of completeness and correctness in making the transmission.

1.3.2.2. Reasoning-Gap Tasks

This activity requires the learners to derive new information from old or given information through the use of processes of inference, deduction, practical reasoning, or a perception of relationships or patterns. One example, is working out a teacher's timetable on the basis of given class timetables. Another example, giving students a railroad time table and asked them to work out the best track to get out from one particular city to another or asking them to solve a puzzle. The information-gap activity should involve comprehending and transferring information, but in this type of tasks the comprehended information is not identical with the transmitted one.

1.3.2.3. Opinion-Gap Tasks

An opinion-gap activity involves learners' personal preferences, feelings, or attitudes in order to complete a task. An example of this is story completion, in which the learners take

part in the discussion of a social issue or giving them a social problem, such as obesity and ask them to come up with sets of possible solutions. This activity is contrasted with information-gap because it requires learners to go beyond the information given by using their own ideas.

1.3.3. Task Phases

The process of TBLT usually refers to the real application of tasks. Learners do not go straight to solving the tasks, but are given a framework through which they progress. The following task-based framework is based on Willis' model (1996) in which he suggested three main phases of a task namely, pre-task, task cycle, and post-task (language focus).

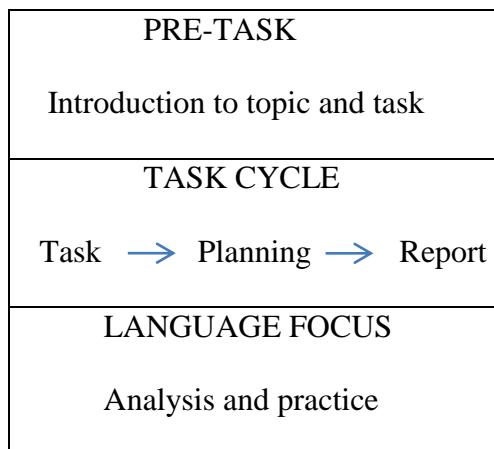


Figure 1.1: Willis' Task-Based Learning Framework (1996).

The first phase is seen as the premise of each task. It is the phase during which the teacher explains the topic and the aim of the task for learners by brainstorming ideas using pictures, mimes and so on. Also, the teacher may highlight beneficial words and phrases for learners, who may themselves in a situation where they hear a recording of others doing a similar task (Willis, 1996).

The second phase is the main part of the framework, and is divided into three stages: task, planning and report. This phase covers the whole process of accomplishing a task from the

planning stage to the presentation stage. The learners start doing the target task in pair or group work; the teacher monitors learners from a distance and may motivate the ones trying to talk in the TL and help them formulate what they want to say, but will not correct their errors. Then, the learners are asked to report briefly to the whole class how they perform the task and what they discover. If the report has been written down, the teacher may support pair work and the use of dictionaries. As long as the report stage is open to public, the student will want to be accurate, so the teacher should stand by to give them advice on language use, suggest phrases, and correct their language. After that, the teacher asks some groups to present their report to the class, exchange written reports and maybe compare findings. The teacher here acts as a chairperson, commenting on the content of the report, rephrasing what should be rephrased, but refraining from giving any public feedback. The learners may now be exposed to a recording of others doing a parallel task and compare the way they did it (Willis, 1996).

The third phase is called language focus. In this framework, the roles of the teacher and the students when performing a task are explained in detail. The teacher may design a set of language-focused tasks on the basis of the recording or a text that the learners have heard or read. These tasks may include asking the students to find phrases or words that are linked to the title of the topic or text, and finding which verbs are in the past simple and which ones are not. The learners examine and then discuss particular characteristics of the text or transcript of the recording. Usually, at the end this phase, the learners may benefit from doing a parallel task with another partner (Willis, 1996). This model is regarded as the standard for researchers to conduct a task.

1.3.4. Teachers' and Learners' Roles

Teachers and learners are expected to play several specific roles in carrying out learning tasks as well as the social and interpersonal relationships between the participants. Richards

and Rodgers (2001, pp.235-6) considered these instrumental to the implementation of TBLT, and devoted considerable attention to the presentation and discussion of teacher and learner roles, as shown in the following sections.

1.3.4.1. The Role of Teacher

According to Richards and Rodgers (2001) there are three most typical task-based roles of teacher in a foreign language classroom. The teacher assumes the roles of selector and sequencer of tasks, preparing learners for tasks and raising consciousness.

1.3.4.1.1. Selector and Sequencer of Tasks

The teacher, in this case, plays an active role in choosing, designing and adjusting tasks and then building these tasks taking into account the learners' needs, expectations, language skill level and interests.

1.3.4.1.2. Preparing Learners for Tasks

For this second teacher role, the training for pre-tasks is an important thing for language learners. These activities may include topic introduction, specifying task instructions, as well as aid learners to recall and learn beneficial words and phrases that make the completion of the task easy.

1.3.4.1.3. Consciousness-Raising

Related to the third teacher role, it can be stated that TBLT supporters stress that the role of the teacher is to raise the students' attention to the linguistic items they will need in task performance, but they should not be conducted in a form of direct grammar lesson. It means that the teacher uses a set of form-focusing techniques, examining given texts, guided exposure to similar tasks, including attention-focusing pre-task activities, and use of highlighted material.

1.3.4.2. The Role of Learner

Richards and Rodgers (2001) assigned to the learner three main roles. A learner should be a group participant, a monitor and a risk-taker and innovator.

1.3.4.2.1. Group Participant

The first learner role stresses that the learner works in collaboration with other learners either in pairs or small groups to perform a task. This may involve some adaptation for the students who are more used to whole-class and individual work.

1.3.4.2.2. Monitor

Here, the learning process is facilitated through the use of a task in TBL. The learner gets the chance to notice how language is utilized in communication when classroom activities are organized, attending both to the message conveyed by the task and its form.

1.3.4.2.3. Risk-Taker and Innovator

The last learner role shows that many tasks drive learners to produce and explain messages for which they do not have enough linguistic resources and previous experience. Actually, this is the point of such kind of tasks. Learners themselves should work on skills such as guessing meaning from context, asking for explanation, and consulting with other learners. In other words, the learner should take the risk to communicate meaning even when he/she lacks the linguistic resources or experience to do it. Instead, the learner becomes creative, or if need be, consults and asks clarifications from his/her partner.

1.3.5. The Role of Instructional materials

Teaching materials are those resources or elements that the teacher uses to give instructions to their students. It includes handouts, textbooks, visual aids, among other things. These materials help the learner and increase their chances for success. The level of difficulty of the instructional materials should be tested in order to be relevant for learners.

In TBLT, instructional materials play a major role and they are limited only by the imagination of the task designer. TBI proponents favor the use of authentic tasks supported by authentic (from life) materials, wherever possible. Nunan (1988) describes authentic materials as the ones which created for another purpose rather than the purpose of teaching. Popular media like newspaper, television, and the internet can offer rich resources for such kind of materials. Also plenty of task types can be built around such media products. For instance, students examine a newspaper, determine its sections, and suggest three new sections that might go in the newspaper. Another example would be asking students to watch an episode of an unknown soap opera, and then list the characters (with known or made-up names) and their possible relationship to other characters in the episode. Seeking to find an inexpensive hotel in Tokyo is also an authentic activity in which students search with three different search engines (e.g., Yahoo, Netscape, Snap), comparing search times and analyzing the first ten hits to determine the most useful search engine for their purpose (as cited in Richards and Rogers, 2011, p.237).

1.3.6. Advantages and Disadvantages of Task based Language Teaching

Like any method or approach, TBL has both strengths and weaknesses. TBLT has provided many valuable solutions to aid foreign language learning in the EFL classroom. According to Ellis (2009), TBLT emphasizes meaning over form; however, it may also help learners to learn form. Most importantly, it offers the opportunity for natural learning inside the classroom, and is learner-centered drawing its rationale from educational philosophy. Hence, it meets students' needs, giving them the opportunity to use all possible language resources in authentic communicative situations motivating learners' autonomy, but also gives permission for teacher input and guidance. Moreover, it tends to improve communicative fluency without neglecting accuracy (as cited in Hismanoglu, 2016).

Although the task-based approach presents many benefits to aid foreign language learning, it is not without some limitations. According to Hatip (2005), TBLT requires a teacher who has a high level of creativity and dynamism. If he is restricted to more traditional roles or does not have time and resources to provide a task based learning, this kind of teaching may be unworkable. It needs materials that are beyond textbooks which are usually available in a foreign language class. Moreover, TBLT can be rejected by some students because this type of instruction is not what they want and expect from a language class. There is also the problem of overusing the mother tongue by some learners when they face difficulty. Conversely, some students make efforts looking for the right word neglecting how it is used in the discourse. There is, then, a risk for learners to attain fluency at the expense of accuracy (as cited in Tan, 2016).

1.4. Task Repetition in Language Teaching and Learning

For many decades, researchers have overlooked the area of task repetition in their empirical studies, leaving the potential of repetition unclear for both teachers and learners (Ahmadian, 2011). In recent years, however, an acceptable number of empirical studies have been conducted to investigate this new procedure to determine its types, areas of focus, effectiveness on learners' performance of tasks, language production and language development.

1.4.1. Definition of Task Repetition

The term task repetition in language learning means that the learners do repeat tasks given to them several times, in order to improve their performance on oral or written language production. According to Bygate and Samuda (2005) task repetition is “the repetition of the same or slightly altered tasks—whether whole task or parts of the task” (as cited in Indrarathne, 2013, p. 42). Also, Bygate (2001) added that a real task repetition can be defined as “the kind experienced by learners when they find themselves repeatedly in highly similar

communication situations and the opportunity to build on their previous attempt at completing the task” (as cited in Indrarathne, 2013, p.42). In order to learn the language better, Bygate asks teachers to make their learners accept the idea of repeating tasks many times in the classroom until they become familiar with these repeated tasks, and as a result improve their learning.

As pointed out earlier, Willis (1996) suggested a framework for TBLT in which task repetition is central. Accordingly, a task comprises three cycles: a pre-task stage to prepare the learners for the main-task stage, in which the learner performs the main task; and the post-task stage where the learners repeat the main task many times, whether the same task or a similar one to the main task (as cited in Pakbaz & Rezai, 2015). The initial performance of the task is considered as a preparatory task to facilitate the learners’ subsequent performances. This facilitation of task repetition is based on Levelt's (1989) production model, which requires that speakers generally go through the different levels of language production in oral performance. The levels of language production include the components of conceptualization, formulation and articulation. More specifically, the conceptualization level generates the meaning of the speakers' message. Then, this preverbal message converts into language in the formulation level. And, later the articulation level transforms the linguistic units of the message being formulated into sounds (as cited in Borruel, 2017).

1.4.2. Task Repetition as Rehearsal

Rehearsal is synonymous with the word ‘repetition’. It is considered as a different form of strategic planning of tasks, a model that has been proposed by Ellis (2005) and has been believed among researchers and scholars to have a strong effect on L2 fluency (Ahmadian & Tavakoli, 2011; Bygate, 2001; Lynch & Maclean, 2000; Wang, 2014; Nation, 1989). Richard (2002) asserted that learners can do some rehearsal before doing the main task. For example, watching a video or listening to a tape recording, or doing a simplified copy of a task. This

rehearsal can draw the learners' attention to the structural and linguistic features in the most difficult tasks. Also, they can recycle the task later by making some changes in the task aspects such as constraining the suitable time for task completion (as cited in Pakbaz & Rezai, 2015). Moreover, it encourages learners to do tasks through the consideration of the content being encoded and how to express it in an appropriate way relying on the repetition in intervals of one day or more, or one week or more. Bjork (1970) has drawn attention to rehearsal and task repetition in his study and defined rehearsal as "repeating an item over and over to oneself" (p.322). According to him, rehearsal and repetition are affective mechanisms in second language acquisition to be used in classroom in models for short-term memory which means that learners who perform a task for a second occasion can store easily the content of that task in their short-term memory and retrieve it again when necessary easily.

1.4.3. Types of Task Repetition

The repetition of tasks in language learning is either identical task repetition or task-type repetition.

1.4.3.1. Identical Task Repetition

Identical task repetition involves repeating the same task along its content. Dekeyser (1997) and Taguchi (2008) have succeeded to improve learning in L2 grammar, and reported the fact that frequent repetition is an important component of language acquisition (as cited in Takimoto, 2012). Similarly, Lynch and Mclean (2000) pointed out that "identical task repetition is a useful pedagogic procedure in improving different areas of the participants' inter-language in the carousel task" (as cited in Takimoto, 2012, p. 73-74). One of their findings in (2000) showed that repeating identical tasks at intervals of time has been a good benefit for the participants (as cited in Takimoto, 2012). When weaker learners do a task and repeat that same task step by step, they become familiar with the content of that task, and as a result they acquire language easily with low error-making rates. Takimoto (2012) said that

“identical task repetition has a more positive effect on learners’ L2 performance is plausible, as the repetition is considered as one type of the input enhancement technique” (p.74) which means when students rewrite a paragraph or an essay for a second time, or retell a story again this would be helpful for them to develop their writing skill through correcting the errors of first performance and limit them, and enhance their oral performance as well in the second performance through learning new vocabulary.

1.4.3.2. Task-Type Repetition

Task-type repetition is a little different from identical task repetition. It takes place when the learners are asked to perform a task, and then repeat a similar one. This repetition is regarded as an effective implementation of tasks in second language acquisition since it draws students’ attention to repeat a similar task but the content differs. This type of repetition would be helpful for students because repeating the same task with the same content would make it boring. Bygate (2001) observed that learners’ performances are not affected by task-type repetition, unlike in identical task repetition which affected positively both fluency and complexity. This is because repetition of another different task may confuse the learners, and thus lead to no improvement. In his study, he made a comparison between two groups that were asked to perform narrative and interview tasks and as a result he concluded to say that task type repetition has no effect on the students’ performance.

1.4.4. Focus on Form vs. Focus on Meaning in Task Repetition

The focus in task repetition is either on meaning or form. The learners’ intentional and processing capacity is limited during the performance of tasks because they are unable to concentrate on both meaning and form at once (as cited in Takatsuka, 2013). This belief was supported by Bygate (1996), who pointed out that the learners pay attention to meaning (what they want to say) in the first performance of the task before they shift towards form (how they speak) in the second performance.

1.4.4.1 Focus on Form (F-on-F)

F-on-F is a task feature that provides the learners with sufficient opportunities in order to learn the formal features of language (Ellis, 2009). The term was first used by Long (1991) when he claimed that it “overdraws students’ attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication” (as cited in Rang, 2013, p.13). Additionally, Long (1991) pointed out that F-on-F is a want for meaning-focused activities where the learners’ attention or noticing of the language forms is taken into consideration (as cited in Gass, 1988). According to Harmer (2009), F-on-F takes place when learners concentrate on some features of language, such as the structure of a sentence or paragraph and so on. Schmidt (1990) has drawn attention to “noticing” as a way of focusing on form. Noticing was considered by Lynch (2001) as “...certainly part of successful language learning; one can hardly imagine (adult) learners making substantial progress without it” (as cited in Harmer, 2009, p.54). This means that learning will not take place if learners do not notice the main features of the language being practiced through performing meaning-based activities, which help them to acquire that language easily.

In task repetition, the learners mainly focus on the language forms in the second occasion of repetition. Harmer (2009) believed that recycling helps learners in noticing language structures, which they may otherwise forget with a time lapse. These structures being noticed stick to the learners’ minds and lead to improved learning. A study conducted by Gass, Mackey, Alvarez-Torres, and Fernandez-Garcia (1999) reinforced the idea that ignoring the focus on both meaning and form leads only to the focus on form. In their study, an online telling of a short video clip was performed by the participants, who saw the same video several times. The results were an improvement on all of the measures of proficiency, mainly morpho-syntax, and lexical sophistication (as cited in Gass, 2008).

1.4.4.2. Focus on Meaning

Focus on meaning, or “holistic language use”, is a key task feature in TBLT which supported the notion that the learners learn better when they are engaged in meaning-based activities. Ellis (2006) stated that learners “need to focus not just on grammatical forms of language, but also on their meaning” (as cited in Harmer, 2009, p.54). Van Patten (1990) pointed out that a learner in communicative tasks prioritizes meaning over form, suggesting that some variables (task repetition being one of them) in task design could be changed to reorient learners’ attention towards formal aspects of language. Mojavezi (2014) claimed that:

“Because tasks are initially meaning-centered, when it comes to prioritizing either form or meaning, it is likely that task performers choose meaning. Generally, the learners in the first occasion of repeating a task concentrate initially on the meaning rather than the form” (p.30).

1.5. Rationale for Task Repetition

Language learning in the classroom is measured by language performance or the learners’ ability to do a task that is given by the teacher. It can be realized by classroom activities, assignments and tasks as the implementation and application of language knowledge in the classroom. In task repetition, the teacher asks learners to perform a task at intervals of time, one after the other, in order to see how performing tasks several times develops the learners’ language production.

1.5.1. Language Production and Performance

Language production is considered as a goal-directed activity that aims basically at communicating the human speech and writing and to realize a goal through a behavior or

activity. In general, people speak and write to share information with others, or to connect with them.

In recent decades, psycholinguistics has defined language production as the production of spoken or written human language (Levine, 1982). Jongman, Roelofs, and Meyer (2014) conducted a study that defined language production as “a highly practiced skill that seems to happen easily” (p. 710).

Bygate (1996) asked his participants to perform an oral narrative task, watching a video and retell it afterwards. He concluded that the process of repeating watching the video and retelling what they have watched many times, had a positive effect on three main aspects of improvement that have to be increased if learners want to achieve a native-like speaking ability.

Harmer (2009) asserted that the repetition of tasks does influence positively the process of language learning because repeating the task while thinking about what a person is doing gives the opportunity to acquire language forms. He claimed that repetition leads to noticing. Moreover, the noticed structure may stick in the mind of the learner and lead as a result to a better learning. According to him: “repetition with a time interval allows learners to «reformulate» what they have stated previously and «restructure» their knowledge” (as cited in Pakbaz, Rezai, 2015, p. 57).

Many researchers such as Lynch and Maclean (2001); Bygate and Samuda (2005); Ahmadian and Tavakoli (2011) have proved the effectiveness of task repetition on the learners’ performance and language production in terms of accuracy, fluency, and complexity. They generally agreed that the learners learn better in the second performance of the task. Lynch and Maclean (2001) claimed that accuracy improved in language production while fluency and complexity was found to improve in the studies by Bygate (2001) and

Ahmadian and Tavakoli (2011). Another study of Gass, Mackey, Fernandez and Alvarez-Torres (1999) resulted in an improvement in both accuracy and complexity. Bygate (1999) explained this improvement at the second performance saying that “students may switch from their focus on message content to pay attention to language through task repetition” (as cited in Pakbaz, Rezai, 2015, p.57).

1.5.2. Classroom Language Learning

According to Ahmadian (2013), the behaviorists regarded language as a “process of habit formation through repetition and practice” (as cited in Borruel, 2017, p.38). The learning process takes place when learners learn the TL through practice and repetition of the tasks given to them. This repetition later becomes a habit through time. Task repetition has a closer relationship to TBLT, and it is considered as one of the important implementation variables of TBL in English classrooms because it has proved its effectiveness on the learners’ performance and language production.

Recycling is an important task implementation variable because it encourages weaker learners to raise up their levels and develop their language performance and production through paying attention to their mistakes, and gives the advanced learners the chance to master the language. Also, the learners become self-correcting members in the classroom after several performances. Moreover, there will be an enhancement in the classroom language learning process. Harmer (2009) said that repetition “has always played a part in language learning” (P.56), and added that learners need this repetition to fix the language into their minds in saying that:

“If students see or hear some language once, they might, even when they noticed it, forget it fairly quickly. But the more they come across this language— the more they repeated encounters they have with it— the better

chance they have of remembering (and being able to use) it” successfully.

(p.56)

Task repetition provides learners with potential benefits as a result of repeating the same task at intervals of time. Batstone (1994) viewed task repetition as important in language learning, and that it leads to “restructure” or “reformulate” the noticed language in a more appropriate way (as cited in Harmer, 2009). Learners, thus, gain more linguistic capacity, access language faster, and pay higher attention to their performance from the more general to the more specific. Performing tasks several times increases the learners’ awareness of the changes that may happen in their performances, and give them the chance to do better during those performances (Nishikawa, 2014).

Conclusion

To sum up, this chapter discusses the new conceptualization of task repetition as an implementation variable of TBLT in the teaching and learning of English language. Then, it considers rehearsal as an effective mechanism in second language acquisition through focusing on the performance of either the same task or the same type of task which leads to students’ focus on form rather meaning. The next chapter will deal with writing skill in general, then it moves to discuss its development using CAF measurements.

Chapter Two: Assessing the Complexity, Accuracy and Fluency of Written Productions

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Chapter Two: Assessing the Complexity, Accuracy and Fluency of Written Productions**Introduction**

Writing is one of the four macro skills of language that is regarded as relatively more difficult to be mastered because it requires considerable effort and practice on learners' part in order to reach an acceptable level in writing. This chapter is devoted to writing skill started by defining writing, determining its value, and the three basic approaches to teaching it (product, process and genre) in addition to the major differences between them this is on the one hand. On the other hand, it sheds light on the four main types of writing styles namely narrative, descriptive, expository and persuasive in addition to developmental studies to language and writing. Finally, it ends by the assessment of writing in terms of CAF measures.

2.1. Definition of Writing

In its most basic sense, writing is defined as “a way of communication through which we express our ideas, feelings, and emotions” (Harmer, 2001, p.79). Crystal (1995) added that it is “a way of communicating which uses a system of visual marks made on some kind of surface” (p. 257). Writing in the sense of the verb ‘to write’ in the Oxford Advanced Learner’s English dictionary for Current English means “to make letters or numbers on a surface, especially using a pen or a pencil” (Hornby, 2000, p.1499).

For some researchers such as Rivers (1968) writing is the transformation of oral language into writing mode suggesting that writing is subservient to speaking, and is just a mirror of what can otherwise be expressed in speech. Brown extends the definition of writing to refer to it as a craft in which ideas are constructed, organised and reviewed. To quote his own words, writing is “the process of putting ideas down on paper to transform thought into words, to sharpen your main ideas, to give them structure and coherent organization” (Brown, 2001, p .336).

For other researchers, writing is not simply an act of putting down ideas or speech into visual forms; rather, it is “a complex process which is neither easy nor spontaneous for many second language learners” (Hedge, 2000, p.302). This view is shared by Nunan (1989) who claims that “writing is an extremely complex, cognitive activity for all which the writer is required to demonstrate the control of a number of variables simultaneously” (p. 36). Writing, therefore, is viewed as deep and complex process that requires many skills that the writer must be able to control as sentence structure, vocabulary, spelling in addition to other things in order to write a cohesive and coherent paragraph.

2.2. Value of Writing in Language Learning

Writing as a skill in English language teaching and learning has been discussed widely in theory and in empirical research. It is one of the most important skills in learning a new language. Writing is viewed as a means of communication that one uses to express his ideas, thoughts, and feelings at any place and any time. As Rogers (2005) puts it out:

writing is one of the most significant cultural accomplishments of human beings, it allows us to record and convey information and stories beyond the immediate moment. Writing allows communicating at a distance, either at a distant place or at a distant time (as cited in Djidel, 2015, p. 7)

Writing is the primary basis upon which one’s work, learning, and intellect will be judged in college, in the workplace, and in the community i.e. it is a basic means of assessing knowledge of the language and how well students understand their courses since most exams require students to answer in writing. Bacha (2002) stated that most examinations, reports and research work depend on writing that is important in student’s academic course. Coffin et al (2005) also, claimed that writing is important because it is used as means of assessment, it attempts to enhance students’ communicative language skills and trains them as future professionals in particular disciplines.

Writing is not a natural skill that one is born with, but it is a teachable process that one can develop through time. It is a kind of skill that requires learners to put in considerable efforts and practices in order to reach an acceptable level of writing. Writing skill is considered a good way to shape a student's thoughts, contribute in his personal development, and come to understand how language is used. In the same context, Greenberg and Rath (1985) illustrate the value of this skill as follows

writing is a powerful instrument of thinking because it provides students with a way of gaining control over their thoughts. Writing shapes their perceptions of themselves and the world. It aids in their personal growth and in their affecting change on the environment. Students are often unaware of the power of the written word, yet the written word enables the writer perhaps for the first time to sense the power of language to affect another through using, selecting and rejecting, arranging and rearranging the language, the students come to understand how language is used (p. 12).

Writing then is a tool of reasoning, and the gate through which a writer understand the secrets of the world around him. In addition, it may enable him to sense the power of language to impact another one through selecting and rejecting, arranging and rearranging.

2.3. Approaches of Writing

The significance of being able to write in an L2 has become clearer, nowadays. Accordingly, different approaches to writing such as product approach, process approach and genre approach came into existence and they have been the concern of researchers of language teaching and learning.

2.3.1. The Product Approach

The product approach has been around since seventeenth century. It is the traditional approach to teaching writing that involves using model sentences or texts which the learners copy when they write coherent and relevant pieces of writing. In this context, Nemouchi (2014) said that the model text always comes at first, meaning that features such as sentence organisation, structure of grammar, content and rhetorical patterns are studied and analysed before giving students a new topic or invite them for a similar writing task.

Bedgar and White (2000) report that the product approach concern with writer's knowledge about language structure and writing is restricted to an imitation of texts provided by teacher. However, Barakus (2003) stated that the product approach is teacher-centred, as each teacher becomes the arbiter of the models used (as cited in Rusinovci, 2015). The major aim in this approach is the final product (Brooks & Grundy, 1998), explained by Nunan as "the end results of the learning process, what is expected from the learner to do as fluent and competent user of the language" (1991, p.86).

An explicit description of the product approach is proposed by Pincas (1984) who regards the linguistic knowledge as the most important element in writing and focuses on the students' ability to use vocabulary, syntax, and cohesive devices. She clarifies that the teacher in this approach starts by introducing a topic through the use of instructions provided by a textbook and, after a discussion of these instructions, he/she may conduct a class discussion, and then explain to them the way of writing a composition following those instructions; later, he calls them to write and submit their writings to him/her, and finally, the teacher evaluates the compositions and makes some remarks focusing on form instead of content. According to Pincas, this approach comprises four stages namely familiarization, controlled writing, guided writing and free writing (as cited in Nemouchi, 2014). The figure below depicts the stages involved in the product approach.

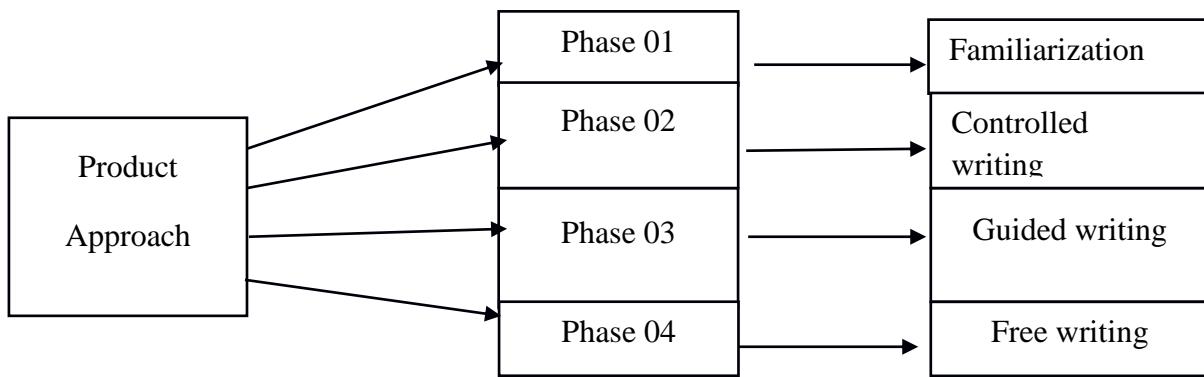


Figure 2.1: The Product Approach Model (Steel, 2004, p .1).

The product approach was strongly criticized because it closes the door on creativity; it gives students no opportunity to add or remove words and sentences (Raimes, 1983). Furthermore, Escholz (1980) pointed out that “models tend to be too long and too remote from the students’ own writing problems”. In general, Escholz views the imitation of models as being “stultifying and inhibiting writers rather than empowering them or liberating them” (as cited in Nemouchi, 2014, p.40).

According to Steel (2004) there are four main stages in applying of the product approach to writing namely familiarization, controlled writing, guided writing and free writing.

2.3.1.1. Familiarization

Familiarising is a collective term. It describes how the teacher raises the students’ awareness and activates their prior knowledge. It also known as exposing or immersing. During this stage and after reading the model text, the students may highlight the features of the genre such as type of language used, the audience, and the way in which ideas were organized. For instance when studying a story the students’ attention maybe drawn on the techniques used to make it interesting, their focus would be on how and where these techniques are used and employed.

2.3.1.2. Controlled Writing

At this stage students are supposed to control practice of the highlighted features in isolation. For example, the students may be asked to employ the language used to form a formal question when studying the structure of a formal letter (I would be grateful if you would). Controlled writing regarded as a successful instrument in aiding learners put words down on paper. One of controlled writing supporters is Raimes (1983), which stated that controlled writing occur when learners are provided with “a great deal of the content and/or form such as an outline to complete, a paragraph to manipulate, a model to follow, or a passage to continue” (as cited in Elturki, 2013).

2.3.1.3 Guided Writing

This stage involves teacher and learners collaboration. The teacher direct, facilitate and encourage the learners to accomplish a task together by providing the learners with language they need. This phase is the most significant one as it is the place where the organization of ideas takes place. The proponents of this approach consider the organization of thoughts more important than the thought itself.

2.3.1.4 Free Writing

This phase is the last in product writing. At this level the students use vocabulary, skills and structures they have learned to produce a writing product individually, then the students take responsibility for the writing without the teachers’ interference or assessment , thus they become independent writers. The objective of free writing is to construct fluency, build the writing costumes, create personal connections, explore meanings, promote critical thinking, and use writing as a natural, pleasurable, self-chosen activity (Routman, 1994).

2.3.2. The Process Approach

During 1980s, an important shift from the product approach to the process approach occurred in reaction to the restrictions of the former imposed. Shaughnessy (1977) sees

the process approach to writing as an individualized, creative, discovery and as a complex process which focuses on the development of good writing instead of imitating model texts (as cited in Azzioui, 2009). Applebee (1986) explained that the process approach is different from the product approach in that it: “provided a way to think about writing in terms of what the writer does (planning, revising, and the like) instead of in terms of what the final product looks like (patterns of organization, spelling, and grammar)” (as cited in Onozawa, 2010, p. 155).

More recently, Seow (2002) said that the process approach to writing attempts to create a process oriented approach that can positively affect the performance of writers rather than prevent the final product from instruction (as cited in Gonzalez, 2010). This approach stresses the procedures that writers go through in composing texts. It characterizes writing by following a number of processes in which writers start by writing ideas as drafts, then check whether writing and organization make sense to them or not and whether writing will be clear to the reader. In this regard, Murray (1992) said:

The process-oriented approach may include identified stages of the writing process such as: prewriting, writing and re-writing. Once the rough draft has been created, it is polished into subsequent drafts with the assistance of peer and teacher conferencing. Final editing and publication can follow if the author chooses to publish their writing (as cited in Nemouchi, 2014, p.42).

The major critique to the process approach is the difficulty lying in the students' minds to make them aware about the process writing (Brooks and Grundy cited in Ouazeta, 2009, p. 9). In addition, this approach fails to take into consideration the cultural and social aspects that have an effect on various types of writing because it focuses on the writing process (Atkinson, 2003). Moreover, Horowitz (1986) asserted that the process approach may cause L2 students to fail the academic exams. Also, he noticed that this approach does

not fit all the learners because it relied on inductive approach to learning (as cited in Nunan, 1991).

Under the process approach, the production of a piece of writing proceeds along different stages. A typical model identifies five stages: pre-writing, drafting, revising, editing and publishing.

2.3.2.1. Pre-writing

Pre-writing is the initial stage of the writing process. It is everything that writers do before they begin to draft the paper. At this level, they need to cover three main factors. First, writers choose and develop the topic using certain pre-writing strategies such as brainstorming, reading and asking questions about the topic. Second, writers take into account the addressed audience, as well as the purpose of writing since it influences the type of text they want to produce, the language they use, and the information they choose to cover.

Richards and Renandya (2002) defined pre-writing stage as “an activity in the classroom that encourages students to write. It stimulates thoughts for getting started. In fact, it moves students away from having to face a blank page towards generating tentative ideas and gathering information for writing” (as cited in Aliouchouche, p. 23).

2.3.2.2. Drafting

Drafting is the stage when one starts to put the paper in paragraph form. In this step, students employ different strategies in order to organize their ideas in a way that allows readers to understand their piece of writing. Harris (1993) defined drafting as “a point which the writer begins to translate plans and ideas into provisional text” (as cited in Aliouchouche, 2017, p.23). Oshima and Hogue (1991, 1999) divide the drafting stage into four steps starting by writing the first draft, revising content as a second step, then, organizing and proofreading the second draft before finally writing the last draft.

2.3.2.3. Revising/ Reviewing

Revising is the third step of the writing process where writers examine and review the content of their texts or writing. During this stage, writers can bring changes to their first draft by deleting or adding ideas and words. In the same context, Sommers (1982) defined revision as the modifications that a writer may make throughout the writing of a draft according to his intentions.

2.3.2.4. Editing

This is a crucial step in the writing process; it should be done after revising the content. During this phase, writers proofread to find errors in grammar, usage, mechanics, and spelling and then make appropriate correction. Mather and Jaffe (1899) put it this way: “In editing, the students proofread for and correct errors in spelling, punctuation, capitalization and usage (p. 507).

2.3.2.5. Publishing

Publishing is the last stage in the writing process. It refers to the delivery of the writing to its intended audience. Publishing is regarded as a good way to validate the writers’ piece of writing. Of course, not all of students’ writing will be taken through this stage but, even turning a paper to the teacher is regarded as publishing. Writers can publish their work using different strategies such as reading aloud, reading to a group and web publishing. Williams (2003) defines publishing as “Sharing your finished text with its intended audience, publishing is not limited to getting the text printed in a journal. It includes turning a paper in to a teacher, a boss, or an agency (p. 107).

2.3.3. Differences between the Product Approach and the Process Approach

The following table is adapted from Steel (2004, p.1) who provided a thorough comparison of the key differences between the product approach and the process approach.

| The Product Approach | The Process Approach |
|--|---|
| - Traditional approach for teaching Writing | - New trend to teaching writing |
| - Students study model texts. | - Students identify and control the steps of writing. |
| - Accuracy is given priority | - Priority is given to fluency. |
| - Stages: | - Stages: |
| 1. Model texts are read, and then features of the genre are highlighted. Students focus on where and how the writer employs these techniques. | 1. Generating ideas by brainstorming and discussion. Students could be discussing qualities needed to do a certain job, or giving reasons as to why people take drugs or gamble. The teacher remains in the background during this phase, only providing language support if required so as not to inhibit students in the production of ideas. |
| 2. Controlled practice of the highlighted features, usually in isolation. | 2. Students extend ideas into note form, and judge quality and usefulness of ideas. |
| 3. Organization of ideas, which is more important than the ideas themselves and as important as the control of language. | 3. Students organize ideas into concept maps. This helps to make the hierarchical relationship of ideas more immediately obvious. |
| 4. The end result of the learning process. Students choose from a number of comparable writing tasks. Individually, they use the skills structures and vocabulary they have been taught to produce a product | 4. Students write the first draft. This is done in class and frequently in pairs or groups. |
| | 5. Drafts are exchanged, so that the students become the readers of each other's work, develop awareness of audience and improve their own drafts. |
| | 6. Drafts are returned and improvements are made based peer feedback. |

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|--|--|
| showing mastery, similar to competent users of the language. | 7. A final draft is written. 8. Students once again exchange, read and/ or respond to each other's work. |
|--|--|
-

Table 2.1: Differences between the Product Approach and the Process Approach

The product approach is regarded as a traditional approach in which students focus on the study of a model text. Students are required to produce a complete piece of writing straight away individually giving priority to accuracy. Furthermore, the supporters of this trend give importance to the organization of ideas rather than ideas themselves, it emphasis on the end product. Whereas, the process approach considered as the new trend of teaching writing, in which priority is given to fluency. It is mainly based on the identification of the steps a writer goes through in his act of writing.

2.3.4. The Genre Approach

Because of the shortcomings attributed to product and process approaches, a new trend called the genre approach emerged. As the name indicates, genre means “a type or style” as defined in Oxford Advanced Learner’s English dictionary for current English which means each text conveys a purpose that one can recognize because of its special features. For instance, newspapers have their own genre (Harmer, 2001, pp.258-9), telephone, dialogue and informal conversations hold other genres, too (Hedge, 2000, pp.264-5). Hyland (2003) defined the notion of genre as an “abstract, socially recognized ways of using language” (p. 21). This approach is regarded as the extension of the product approach because it shares some similarities with it; it considers writing as a social and cultural practice that starts with the whole text as the unit of focus rather than the sentence.

The genre approach to teaching writing, as Paltridge (2004) claims, focuses on the context in which the text is used and the language and discourse features of specific texts (as

cited in Hasan & Akhand, 2010). It stresses more the reader and the linguistic conventions that a piece of writing needs to follow in order to be successfully accepted by its readership (Munice, 2002 cited in Tuan, 2011, p.1472). The genre approach is more appropriate for students of English for Specific Purposes (ESP); Harmer (2001) (cited in Ouazeta 2009) details about this saying:

...academic essays require a style of discourse and particular expressions which would be out of place in normal social interaction. The language of air traffic control has a specific vocabulary which has to be understood and followed of the system is to work in the tourist industry need to be confident about the specific vocabulary and the types of language interaction, such as dealing with dis-satisfied customers that they may encounter (p. 11).

Like the product and process approaches, the genre approach was also subject to criticism as suggested by Swales (2000) that in focusing more on the reader, the approach pays less attention to learner expression (cited in Hasan and akhand, 2010). Also, Badger and White (2000) maintain that the genre approach ignores the abilities that learners have in other areas and underestimate the writing skills that learners need for producing a writing product.

Firkins, Forey, and Sengupta (2007) as mentioned in Dirgeyasa (2016) proposed three stages which must be followed and implemented during the teaching and learning process through genre based approach namely, modeling a text, joint construction of a text, and independent construction of a text.

2.3.4.1. Modeling a Text

During this stages the teacher selects a specific text of genre writing that suits the learners' needs and market where are going to work later. Then, teacher and learner may exchange views about the text genre via deconstruction, modeling or manipulating so

students are guided to know the function and communicative purpose of the text for instance, the genre procedure writing- the purpose of writing procedure and the function of procedure. Finally, the students practice the procedure after they study vocabulary usages of a particular genre procedure, grammatical or structural pattern of procedure.

2.3.4.2. Joint Construction of a Text

At this stage students need to do something more operational and practical dealing with writing. Students and teacher work together in constructing a text in which students modify and manipulate again the specific genre writing given to them i.e. they paraphrase the vocabulary usages, the grammatical patterns, and textual devices using their own words. Continuously, the teacher may help and direct them along the process until they comprehend well the genre type given to them. After reviewing the stage modeling a text and joint construction, they can move to the following stage which called independent instruction of a text.

2.3.4.3. Independent Construction of a Text

By this time students have examined model texts and have jointly constructed a text in the genre. At this stage students are asked to compose their own text on a certain type of genre they have studied independently. In this case, the teacher must be sure that his students have understood the features of certain type of genre such as the usage of the grammatical patterns and relevant vocabulary, communicative purpose and structural elements of the text in addition to textual devices.

2.3.5. Differences between process and genre approaches

Table 2.2 below is adapted from Hyland (2003, p. 24) to present the key differences between the product approach and the process approach.

| Attribute | Process | Genre |
|-----------------------|--|---|
| Main idea | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing is a thinking process. Concerned with the act of writing. Emphasis on creative writing. How to produce and link ideas. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing is a social activity, concerned with the final product. Emphasis on reader expectation. How to express social purposes effectively. |
| Teaching focus | | |
| Advantages | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Makes processes of writing transparent. Provides basis for teaching Assumes L1 and L2 writing to be similar. Overlooks L2 language difficulties | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Makes textual conventions transparent. Contextualizes writing for audience and purpose Requires rhetorical understanding of texts. Can result in prescriptive teaching of texts. |
| Disadvantages | | |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Insufficient attention to product. Assumes all writing uses same processes. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can lead to over attention to written products. Undervalue skills needed to produce texts. |

Table 2.2: A Comparison of Genre and Process Approaches

2.4. Types of Writing Styles

Setting the purpose for writing is very important for authors, because it influences the decisions they make about form. According to Jeffrey (2016), there are four main types of writing styles namely narrative, descriptive, expository and persuasive.

2.4.1. Narrative Writing

Narrative writing is a type of writing in which the writer tells what happened and narrates a story. It can be characterized into two different forms. The first, fiction narrative writing which refers to imaginative stories and events that are not real, and the other is non-fiction narrative writing that is based on real facts and stories, for example, newspapers, reports, and biographies. Generally speaking, the writer in narrative writing follows time order, represents the story with sensory details and gives vivid descriptions in order to stimulate the reader's interest and attention.

2.4.2. Descriptive Writing

Descriptive writing tells how something looks or feel or sounds; it gives clear and concise description of a place, a character, or an event in a great detail. It can be found in all types of writing such as fiction, poetry, advertising, journal and diary writing. The writer visualizes to the reader what he sees, hears, smells, tastes, and feels i.e. involves the readers through sensory details.

2.4.3. Expository Writing

Exposition is writing that explains something. This is the most common type in writing styles that usually answers the why, what and how questions. The aim of the author is to inform the reader about a given object or topic without reference to his personal opinions. The writer follows logical order and sequence. In other words, ideas are organized in a way that allows the reader to understand the writer's thought. Textbooks, how-to articles, and recipes are some examples of expository writing.

2.4.4. Persuasive Writing

Unlike expository writing, persuasive writing consists of the author's justifications and reasons to convince the reader to perform an action and to make him believe in what the author believes in, among others. Any argumentative essay should be in the persuasive style

of writing as it is the main style that a writer will use in academic papers. This type of writing can be found in letters of recommendation, letters of complaint, op-eds and editorial newspaper articles, reviews of items, advertisements, and cover letters.

2.5. Language and Writing Developmental Studies

Learners in English classes can develop what they have acquired through time and individually. This is known as “language development”. Usually, the learning process moves from the simplest levels to the most difficult ones taking into account the learners’ wants and needs to be first acquired, and later developed. More specifically, writing development is considered as much significant for the learners in order to enhance their writing, and to master the writing process. Bardovi- Harlig and Bofman (1989) suggested two developmental studies: The developmental sequence studies; and the developmental index studies.

Developmental sequence studies investigate the orders of the acquired morpho-syntactic characteristics of language. Moreover, these studies focus more on error and performance analysis such as the morpheme acquisition, sequence and relative clause acquisition (Bardovi- Harlig & Bofman, 1989).

The developmental index studies, on the other hand, examine the learners’ levels of language development through measuring their writings’ complexity, accuracy, and fluency. There are plenty of examples of the measures of developmental index studies among them the length of error-free T- units, the number of words in T- units, dependent and independent clauses and so on (Bardovi- Harlig & Bofman, 1989).

2.6. Assessment of the Complexity, Accuracy and Fluency of Writing

The teacher can assess his/her students’ writing development through the use of complexity, accuracy, and fluency (CAF Triad) measurements. The first two measures originated in the L2 pedagogy of 1980s for the purpose of differentiating between fluent and accurate L2 usage, and then, in 1998, Skehan added complexity to complete the triad. The

CAF aspects of writing development have been taken into consideration to measure the written language production in various studies, on the one hand, and to describe language performance, on the other.

Many researchers and scholars as Perkins (1980), Cumming and Mellow (1996), Casanave (1994), Ishikawa (1995), Larsen Freeman (1983) have tried to examine the students' writing development in L2/ FL studies focusing on the three developmental measures of complexity, accuracy, and fluency. These measures can be calculated either in terms of frequency or ratio (as cited in Quintero, Inagaki & Kim, 1998).

Quintero, Inagaki and Kim (1998) used frequency as the first type of calculation, and as a "simple count of a particular feature, structure, or unit" (p. 9). Frequency counts the numbers of words, clauses (or sentences), or T- units of the student's writing composition. In addition, ratio is another type of calculation which counts the proportion of the total number of words by the total number of sentences, the total number of errors divided by the total number of words, and so on. These measures are used to calculate the length of a given unit (for example: words per clause, sentence or T- unit), the complexity ratio of a given unit (the number of clauses per T- unit, or T- unit per sentence), or the rate of accuracy within a given unit (errors or error-free units per clause, sentence or T- unit). Moreover, the existence of one type of unit is expressed as a percentage of another type of unit, or one type of a unit is divided by the total number of comparable units, e.g., error- free units per total units of the same type (as cited in Quintero, Inagaki & Kim, 1998).

2.6.1. Complexity Measures

Lenon (1990) viewed Complexity in writing as "using a wide range of structures and vocabulary" (p.390). This means that the improvement of the students' writing depends on the use of complex structures, language forms and vocabulary. Storch and Wigglesworth (2007) drew attention to the significance of complexity in achieving higher accuracy, and

pointed out that students neglect using complex structures in their writing production (as cited in Quintero, Inagaki & Kim, 1998). Two main types of complexity measures: grammatical complexity and lexical complexity have been discussed in a detailed way by Quintero, Inagaki and Kim (1998).

2.6.1.1. Grammatical Complexity Measures

Grammatical complexity has been defined as the students' ability to write more complex grammatical language structures and forms such as word forms and sentence structures. It is identified in writing in terms of variation and sophistication. Variation is possible after learners acquire various grammatical structures, and then they can vary their structural choices in the written production. Foster and Skehan (1996) defined writing development in grammatical complexity as "progressively more elaborate language" (p.303) in terms of variety of syntactic patterning structures. Quintero, Inagaki and Kim (1998) noted that the analysis of grammatical complexity is not concerned with how many production units are present in the composition (clauses, T- units or sentences), but with how varied the production units are.

Grammatical complexity frequencies in previous studies counted many measures including complex sentences, clauses, connectors, prepositions, passive sentences and holistic ratings, as explained below.

2.6.1.1.1. Complex Sentences

Bardovi-Harlig and Bofman (1989) identified a complex sentence as "a multicleusal sentence exhibiting subordination" (p.20), which is a sentence consisting of an independent clause and a dependent clause or more if possible (independent clause + adverbial clause, adjective clause and\ or nominal clause). As an example, "Tom was eating the breakfast that my mother prepared, when I woke up". Ishikawa (1995) conducted a study to count the sentence complexity ratio (C\S) through dividing the total number of sentences by the overall

number of clauses. She used sentences as the unit of analysis with beginning writers over a three month time interval. As a result, one of her groups shown an increase of the proportion of clauses per sentences.

2.6.1.1.2. Clauses

A clause is defined as a small grammatical unit that contains a subject (the doer of the action) and verb (the action) and which completes a thought in its own. There are two main types of clauses: an independent (dominant) clause that can stand alone because it expresses a complete thought itself and a dependent clause is considered not as a complete sentence since it cannot stand alone to express a complete thought. By contrast, a sentence is a set of meaningful words that is complete in itself. It includes a subject and predicate, transferring a command, exclamation, statement, or a question and consists of a main independent clause and one or more subordinate clauses in order to create a complete idea or thought. A T-unit is a small grammatical sentence that includes one independent clause and any dependent clause, e.g. “I ran” is a T-unit because it contains the independent clause “I ran” which is completed in meaning (as cited in House, 1993). Quintero, Inagaki and Kim (1998, p. 71) gave brief definitions and examples to each type of clauses as shown below:

a) Independent or Main Clause: it is a clause that can stand alone as a meaningful sentence, containing a subject and a predicate with a verb. For example: He is heroic because he saved a child’s life. The independent clause in this example is “he is heroic”.

b) Adverbial/ Subordinate Clause (AdvC): it is a group of words that play the role of an adverb. Adverb clauses contain subordinating conjunctions, and can be measured through calculating the total number of adverbial clauses. For example, ‘Because he saved a child’s life, he is heroic.’ The adverbial clause located in this example is “because he saved a child’s life”.

c) Adjectival/ Relative Clause (AdjC): it is a group of words that play the role of an adjective, usually contains relative adjectives and starts with a relative pronoun like: that, who, whom, whose, or which. In addition, it may start with a relative adverb like: why, where, or when. It can be measured through counting the total number of adjective clauses. For example, ‘He, who has never been brave, is heroic because he saved a child who was drowning’. The two adjectival clauses included in this example are “who has never been brave” and “who was drowning”.

d) Nominal/ Noun Clause (NomC): it is a group of words consisting of its own subject and verb conjugated. It usually functions as a noun phrase. The total number of nominal clauses can be counted in this measure through dividing them by the total number of clauses or sentences. For example, ‘What he has done is heroic because he saved a child from what would have been certain death’. The nominal clause in this example is “what he has done” and “what would have been certain death” (Quintero, Inagaki and Kim, 1998).

The grammatical complexity ratio in the previous studies considered the relationship between dependent and independent clauses. These two types of clauses are measured by calculating the ratio of dependent clauses to that of all clauses (DC/C). Hirano (1991) shed light on the calculation of this measure and concluded that the participants did not write dependent clauses in their written texts. Kameen (1979) calculated the number of dependent clauses (DepC) in L2 writing. He concluded that the good writers produced an average of 11 dependent clauses per composition while poor writers produced an average of 9.10 per composition (cited in Quintero, Inagaki and Kim, 1998).

2.6.1.1.3. Connectors (Conn)

Another measure is conjunctions or connectors (Conn) that counts the total number of all types of conjunctions found in the written stories. These conjunctions are among the many parts of speech and they function as connectors to join words, sentences, clauses and phrases

together to form coherent compositions (as cited in Kahr, 1975). Humborg (1984) analyzed the written texts of L2 participants and found that the number of connectors does not differ in three holistic rating levels.

2.6.1.1.4. Prepositions (P)

A fourth measure to be counted in grammatical complexity is prepositions. A preposition is an element that combines syntactically words that a sentence or phrase may contain together and is considered as a part of speech which functions as either to modify or complete a meaning. Sharma (1980) calculated the prepositional phrase measure (PP) by counting the overall number of prepositional phrases of compositions of low intermediate and advanced learners and concluded that prepositional phrases were used increasingly in the written texts (as cited in Quintero, Inagaki & Kim, 1998).

2.6.1.1.5 Passive Sentence (PassS)

A passive sentence is a sentence that contains a subject and a verb, but the subject does not perform the action of the verb because it is the verb which performs the action itself. In the examples ‘Tom wrote a letter’ and ‘The letter was written by Tom’, the first sentence is the “active voice” where there is a subject, verb and object. This sentence becomes “passive voice” by turning the subject into object and the object becomes the subject while the verb tense takes the form “To be in the past simple + the past participle of the verb”. Many researchers have tried to calculate passive sentences in their studies including Kameen (1979) who measured the overall number of passives over the total number of sentences (P\S). Kameen found that two separated groups could be divided into good and poor writers on the basis of this measure (as cited in Quintero, Inagaki & Kim, 1998).

2.6.1.1.6. Holistic Ratings of Grammatical Complexity

Holistic ratings (grading) are global methods used to evaluate and assess what students write and use in large-scale assessments (as cited in Charney, 1984). Kameen (1979) and

Kawata (1992) counted the number of sentences that contain one or more passives (PassS). Furthermore, he measured the number of adverbial clauses (AdvC) and adjectival clauses (AdjC) in writing compositions of two groups of writers; he concluded that this measure was not related to holistic ratings of those writers in both dependent clauses (as cited in Quintero, Inagaki and Kim, 1998). The number of nominal clauses (NomC) was calculated by Kameen (1979) in the timed composition of two groups of writers and concluded that this measure was not holistic rating of those writers, although the good writers produced more nominal clauses than the poor writers (as cited in Quintero, Inagaki and Kim, 1998).

2.6.1.2. Lexical Complexity Measures

Lexical complexity refers to the student's ability to write complex compositions using a huge amount of lexicon alternatives such as nouns, verbs, adverbs, adjectives, and pronouns. This aspect of measuring the writing development can be analyzed by paying more attention to word variation (word type, verb type) and density (lexical words). The learners who have various vocabulary items in their repertoire are regarded to increase their ability to vary their word choices (Quintero, Inagaki and Kim, 1998).

2.6.1.2.1. Word Type

Word type is the different categories of words a text may contain such as nouns, verbs, pronouns, adverbs, and adjectives. Word variation was measured by Cummins and mellow (1996) by counting the proportion of the overall number of different word types to the total number of words (WT/W) of intermediate and advanced Japanese and French learners of the English language. The intermediate French participants used 47.3 word types per word score, and the advanced participants used 48.3. The Japanese intermediate participants, however, used 48.9 word types in their compositions, and the advanced group used 51.2 which means that this measure was used mostly by the advanced learners than the intermediate ones (as cited in Quintero, Inagaki & Kim, 1998).

2.6.1.2.3. Lexical density

Lexical density refers to the content words or meaning words and measured by counting the overall number of lexical words to the (function) words in a composition (LW/W), also called “token/ token” ratio. Quintero, Inagaki and Kim (1998) viewed density as “dependent on the grammatical system of the language, which dedicates how many grammatical words must be used in proportion to lexical words” (p.105). Also, Linnarud (1986) noticed that native writers produced compositions with higher lexical density through using more content words such as nouns, adverbs and adjectives, but L2 writers produced compositions containing less amount of lexical density through using less content words.

2.6.1.2.4. Verb Type

Verb type is another lexical complexity ratio which measures the total number of verb types divided by the overall number of verbs in the text (VT/V). A verb type is the category of verbs used in a composition that is found usually in sentences either action, transitive, intransitive, auxiliary, state, modal, phrasal or irregular verbs. Harley and King (1989) explored the verb type measure ratio through a comparison made between native and second language sixth-grade students who were asked to write narrative and letter texts. French L2 writers used fewer types of verbs (0.43) than native language writers (0.54).

2.6.1.2.5. Holistic Ratings of Lexical Complexity

Engber (1995) argued that holistic ratings and lexical variation share a significant relationship at intermediate and advanced proficiency students since they are expected to decorate their writing through varying their vocabulary. While, Linnarud (1986) stated that this measure resulted in a difference between native and L2 writers. Another researcher Laufer (1994) did not find that instruction affects the advanced learners in this measure. Similarly, Nihalani (1981) noted that holistic scores of groups at the same school level are not related to the lexical variation ratio. However, Quintero, Inagaki and Kim (1998) concluded

that lexical variation has a strong relationship with L2 development, but lexical density does not have as established in comparison studies between L2 writers and native speakers.

2.6.2. Accuracy Measures

Accuracy is assumed as the oldest construct of the CAF triad and refers to the correctness or exactness of a quality or a condition. Foster and Skehan (1996) defined accuracy as the writers' freedom from error-making during writing narratives, letters and essays. Quintero, Inagaki and Kim (1998) consider an error as an important issue in the analysis of L2 development assuming that the writers can produce easily and increase accuracy only when they become proficient ones. Two approaches were developed in the analysis of writing development.

2.6.2.1. Frequency of Error-Free Structures

The first approach focuses on whether a structural unit of some type is error-free (clauses, sentences or T- units) and which counts the number of error-free T- units per T- unit (EFT/T) which means whether students produce more correct T-units, or the number of error-free clauses per clause (EFC/C).i.e., the students' ability to write correct clauses in one text. (Quintero, Inagaki and Kim, 1998).

The most useful accuracy frequency measures are the Error-free clauses (EFC) measures that count the overall number of error-free clauses in a passage. Ishikawa (1995) is the only researcher who measured the number of error-free clauses and found that this measure increased in two beginning-level groups after a three-month time interval of instruction. Another measure is the errors (E) frequency which counts the overall number of errors a text may contain.

2.6.2.2. Ratio of Errors

Accuracy ratio measures have been used in various L2 development studies. A ratio measure to calculate accuracy is lexical errors (the number of errors in content words) per

clause (LexE/C) which counts the total number of lexical errors divided by the total number of clauses. Harlig and Bofman (1989) measured this ratio and found that lexical errors per clause continue to exist in the advanced groups and that lexical errors are more likely to dominate the written texts than other types of errors. A second measure counts the errors per word ratio is the total number of errors divided by the total number of words (E/W).

Hyltenstam (1992) noticed that there is a significant difference between L2 and native advanced learners, and that the ratios of errors per word are very few. Another ratio is the grammatical errors (the number of errors in function words) per word (GrE/W) which counts the total number of grammatical errors divided by the total number of words. Another measure to be calculated is correct articles (CorrART) which counts the number of correct articles found in students' productions (as cited in Quintero, Inagaki and Kim, 1998).

2.6.3. Fluency Measures

Fluency is the third, last and newest construct in the CAF triad. A fluent writer is viewed as one who can produce a large amount of words and sentences in a composition. It was identified by Lenon (1990) as the rate and length of the student's output.

Fluency frequency counts the frequency of the occurrence of a unit production such as clauses, sentences and T- units. This measure counts the total number of words (W) a writer may produce and which is considered the main fluency frequency measure in written language.

The number of sentences is another important measure of fluency frequency. It calculates the overall number of sentences in a text. Various studies investigated the effects of word and sentence length on language proficiency as Homburg (1984), Hunt (1965), and they found that word and sentence length have no effect on the writers' proficiency (Quintero, Inagaki and Kim, 1998).

The fluency ratio is considered more workable than the frequency measure since it counts the length of some type of the unit production such as sentences. Sentence length (W/S)

refers to the total number of words such as verbs divided by the total number of sentences. It has been calculated by researchers to compare advanced writers to less proficient ones. Results showed that the most advanced learners produced 23.59 words per sentence and lower writers produced 8.5 words per sentence (Quintero, Inagaki, and Kim, 1998).

Conclusion

In summary, this chapter provided an overview of the three approaches to teaching writing, determined various stages of each approach and gave an insight about the way writing is measured through the use of CAF triad. The focus has been also on whether task repetition positively affects the students' writing in terms of complex, accurate and fluent compositions they produce. The following chapter will be devoted for presenting the methodology being implemented for the investigation of the topic at hand, the presentations and analysis of data, as well as the discussion of the main important results.

Chapter Three: Field Work

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Conclusion

Introduction

As mentioned before, this research aims at investigating the effect of task repetition on EFL student's writing production. The first and second chapter of the current study was devoted to the review of literature about task repetition in task based language teaching (TBLT) and how complexity accuracy and fluency are assessed in writing. This third chapter deals with the field work. It aims to describe the procedures followed in collecting data, present, analyse and discuss the findings of the investigation. The latter consists in conducting a quasi-experimental study with second year L.M.D students of English at Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University, Jijel. It also includes a questionnaire administered for teachers of Written Expression at the same University.

3.1. Data Collection Procedures

Since the purpose of our study is to test the impact and practices of repeating tasks on students' writing in the second performance, two tools were considered suitable: an experiment for students and a questionnaire for teachers.

First, the questionnaire which was addressed to the teachers of Written Expression aims to gain insights from teachers about whether repeating a task is effective or not in enhancing students' writing.

Second, the experiment is adapted to measure whether students' writing would develop on repeating a task. Scientific experimental design is considered as a tool for the investigation of the cause and effect relationship between the dependent and independent variables. This research attempts to investigate the effect of task repetition on students' written language production where task repetition is the treatment or independent variable, while the written language production is the dependent one. In order to explore this, a quasi-experimental design is much appropriate since the experimental design is not possible because the control

group and random selection were not available in our case. The quasi-experimental design is usually used in situations where there is a lack of control over the experiment (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). Therefore, our study is a comparison made between two groups composed of 30 second year LMD students, meaning that each group has 15 students chosen randomly for the pre-test and post-test to repeat narrative tasks during one week time interval.

3.2. Population and Sampling

Since it is impossible to conduct this study on the whole population, a group of thirty (30) students was chosen randomly. The participants in this research were selected from two intact classes. After the pre-test students were matched for proficiency, according to the scores obtained in the pre-test, and 15 students were chosen from each classroom. The reason behind selecting second year LMD English students is that students' level serves significantly our research; their writing is neither excellent nor weak, and that helps us to locate the improvement in their writing.

In addition, a sample of teachers was requested to answer a questionnaire; these teachers are either second year Written Expression teachers, or have a previous experience in teaching this subject.

3.3. Teachers Questionnaire

3.3.1. Description and Administration of the Teachers Questionnaire

The questionnaire was given to ten (10) teachers of Written Expression at the department of English at Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University, Jijel. Our selection of the target population was based on the consideration that by virtue of teaching Written Expression, participant teachers will give us appropriate data, more than the other teachers would.

The teacher's questionnaire is made up of nine (9) questions that are classified under two (2) sections, each focusing on a particular aspect related directly or indirectly to our research. This questionnaire encompasses two types of questions: First, there are closed-ended questions that require the teachers to answer by choosing from a set of options; these types of questions are dominant in our questionnaire. Second, the questionnaire contains open-ended questions, and in this type, teachers are required to give their own opinion about the subject under study.

Section One, Writing Assessment and Development (Q1-Q3), is intended to collect information about writing assessment and development. In the first question (Q1), we asked teachers about the students' level in writing. Next, the aim of the second question (Q2) is to get an idea about the aspect which they focus on when assessing students' written productions. The last question in this rubric (Q3) is about the aspects of writing that average-ability students may have already developed.

Section Two, The Repetition of Writing Tasks (Q4-Q9), aims to obtain information from teachers about the use of repetition in teaching writing. The teachers were asked about the number of times they repeat a task in their teaching in (Q4), while in the following ones (Q5-Q6) they were asked about the type of task repetition they recommend and their opinions concerning the kind of writing tasks that usually recruit involvement by students. The couple of questions (Q7-Q8) are designed to get information about the time students take when performing a task for a second occasion and whether their writing aspects improve or not. The last question in this section, (Q9), gives teachers the opportunity to show and explain whether and why they insist on students to write compositions with or without making errors.

3.3.2. Analysis of Questionnaire Results

Section one

Q1: How do you estimate your second year students' levels in writing, in general?

- a) Good b) Average c) Weak

Table 3.01

Teachers' Estimates of the Students' Levels in Writing

| Level | N | % |
|--------------|-----------|------------|
| a. | 0 | 0 |
| b. | 6 | 60 |
| c. | 4 | 40 |
| Total | 10 | 100 |

A great number of teachers (60%) views that the level of students in writing is average, while 40% said it was weak, and none of them considers that the level of the students in writing is good.

Q2: Which aspects do you focus on or consider essential in your assessment of students' written productions?

- a. Grammatical accuracy
- b. Grammatical complexity
- c. Lexical accuracy
- d. Lexical diversity
- e. Sentence (or clause) length

Table 3.02

Essential Aspects in Assessing Students' Writing

| Aspects | N | % |
|--------------|-----------|------------|
| a. | 9 | 33.33 |
| b. | 2 | 7.41 |
| c. | 8 | 29.63 |
| d. | 5 | 18.52 |
| e. | 3 | 11.11 |
| Total | 27 | 100 |

Grammatical accuracy and lexical accuracy are the aspects given the most attention in the teachers' assessment of written compositions (9 times, 33.33%, and 8 times, 29.63%, respectively), followed by the noticed criterion of lexical diversity selected 5 times by teachers (18.52%), whereas sentence length was emphasized by 3 teachers (11.11%). The

least important assessment key unit for teachers is grammatical complexity, since chosen twice only (7.41%).

Q3: Which aspects of writing do you consider as satisfactorily developed in your average-ability students?

- a. Grammatical accuracy
- b. Grammatical complexity
- c. Lexical accuracy
- d. Lexical diversity
- e. Sentence (or clause) length

Table 3.03:

The writing's Aspects Developed by Average- Ability Students

| | N | % |
|--------------|----|-----|
| a. | 6 | 30 |
| b. | 1 | 05 |
| c. | 7 | 35 |
| d. | 3 | 15 |
| e. | 3 | 15 |
| Total | 20 | 100 |

The areas that teachers considered to have been mastered or sufficiently developed by some average-ability students are grammar accuracy (30%) and lexical accuracy (35%). The low number of choices in each category indicates that only few average-ability students are considered to have developed the remaining aspects, namely, lexical diversity (15%) and sentence length (15%). These students seem to be struggling with regard to grammatical complexity, chosen only once by teachers (05%). Additionally, the teachers' answers seem to suggest that their students' lexical and grammatical repertoires are limited, a limitation that probably manifests itself in their inability to produce longer sentences.

Section Two

Q4: How often do you repeat writing tasks in your teaching?

- a. Every session
- b. Every other session
- c. Once or more a month
- d. Occasionally
- e. never

Table 3.04:

Frequency of Repeating Writing Tasks

| Frequency of Task Repetition | N | % |
|------------------------------|-----------|------------|
| a. | 3 | 30 |
| b. | 5 | 50 |
| c. | 0 | 0 |
| d. | 2 | 20 |
| e. | 0 | 0 |
| Total | 10 | 100 |

As this table indicates, five (5, 50%) teachers claim that they use task repetition every other session whereas others (20%) claim that they repeat tasks occasionally. But, none of them say that they did not use task repetition. This implies that task repetition may be an effective way of enhancing students' level in writing.

Q5: Which kind of repetition do you recommend/use?

- a. Same task repetition
- b. Same task type repetition
- c. No repetition

Please, explain your choice:

Table 3.05:

Type of Task Repetition Recommended by Teachers

| | N | % |
|--------------|-----------|------------|
| a. | 0 | 0 |
| b. | 8 | 80 |
| c. | 2 | 20 |
| Total | 10 | 100 |

Teachers seem to be in favour of “same task type repetition” as 80% of them recommended it, and 20% recommended “same task repetition”.

Explain why?

Teachers who support “same task type repetition” represent (80%). Some said that students will not feel bored as they will not be repeating the very same tasks; others said that the task will be very useful as they have more or less the same structure or pattern, something that will surely impact the students’ writing proficiency. One teacher who recommended “same task repetition” said that repeating the same task allows students to recall what they have been taught and their amount of mistakes decreases.

Q6: Which type of writing tasks is responded to positively (usually recruits involvement) by students, if any?

- a. Same task repetition
- b. Same task type repetition
- c. New tasks
- d. All of the above

Table 3.06:

Types of Task Repetition that Recruit Involvement by Students

| | N | % |
|--------------|----------|----------|
| a. | 2 | 16.67 |
| b. | 8 | 66.66 |
| c. | 2 | 16.67 |
| d. | 0 | 0 |
| Total | 12 | 100 |

This question aims at showing the kind of writing tasks that students respond to positively from teachers’ points of view. Among the twelve options identified by teachers, eight (66.66%) refer to task type repetitions. However, some teachers (16.67%) claim that students respond better to same task repetition or new task.

Q7: When you repeat a task, how much time do students take to complete it?

- a. More than in the first time
- b. Less than in the first time
- c. About the same as in the first time
- d. Not sure

Table 3.07:

Time Needed by Students when Repeating a Task

| | N | % |
|--------------|-----------|------------|
| a. | 0 | 0 |
| b. | 8 | 80 |
| c. | 2 | 20 |
| d. | 0 | 0 |
| Total | 10 | 100 |

This question examines whether students take more or less time when they repeat a task.

The findings reveal that more than half of the teachers (80%) agree that students take less than the first time to accomplish them, while 20% agree that they may take about the same as in the same time to complete it as on first occasion.

Q8: After asking your students to perform a repetition of a task, how do aspects of their writing usually become?

| Aspects of Writing | Improves | Doesn't change | Degrades | Not sure |
|-------------------------------|----------|----------------|----------|----------|
| a) Grammatical accuracy | | | | |
| b) Grammatical complexity | | | | |
| c) Lexical accuracy | | | | |
| d) Lexical diversity | | | | |
| e) Sentence (or cause) length | | | | |

Table 3.08:

The Teachers' Estimate of Students' Level after Repetition

| Aspects of Writing | Improves | | Doesn't change | | Degrades | | Not sure | | Total |
|--------------------|----------|----|----------------|----|----------|----|----------|----|-------|
| | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % | |
| a. | 6 | 60 | 2 | 20 | 1 | 10 | 1 | 10 | 100 |
| b. | 2 | 20 | 4 | 40 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 30 | 90 |
| c. | 8 | 80 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 10 | 90 |
| d. | 5 | 50 | 3 | 30 | 1 | 10 | 1 | 10 | 100 |
| e. | 3 | 30 | 4 | 40 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 20 | 100 |

The answers obtained from the teachers here confirm that their students' grammatical accuracy improves after the repetition of a certain task as claimed by 60% of the teachers. Yet, it is not really clear whether this improvement adds to the complexity of their students' grammar (70% of the teachers said grammatical complexity does not change or they are unsure about it). Most importantly, according to eight teachers out of ten, task repetition clearly improves their students' lexical accuracy and to a lesser extent lexical diversity. Unfortunately, improvement seen at the level of the use of individual words does not impact on the students' ability to produce sound, longer sentences.

Q9: Do you encourage your students to write more complex grammatical and lexical compositions with making errors or do you only insist that they do not make errors? Why?

Table 3.09:

Teachers' Encouragement of Complexity vs. Accuracy

| Options | N | % |
|----------------|-----------|------------|
| Yes | 6 | 60 |
| No | 4 | 40 |
| Total | 10 | 100 |

This question is designed to see whether teachers encourage students to write regardless of errors they make or not. From the results at hand, 60 per cent from them responded with "yes" and 40% answered with "no".

Why?

This question is a completion to the ninth question. It aims at showing the teachers' reasons for their answers. The great majority of teachers agreed that they encourage students to write more complex grammatical and lexical compositions regardless of the number of errors they may make as they believe that errors will eventually decrease as students get more practice. However, the other respondents who said "no" represent 40%, insist to not make

errors; as they argued, the students who form a habit of making errors take a long time to learn from their errors and may find a difficulty to reach an acceptable level in writing.

3. 3. 3. Interpretation and Discussion of Questionnaire Results

As it is noticed from the analysis of teachers' questionnaire data, the majority of teachers questioned were ones who have taught Written Expression or have an experience in teaching this module, which makes their answers highly reliable to this study. The analysis of teachers questionnaire has revealed that:

1. The majority of teachers in the University of Mohamed Seddik Ben Yahia, Jijel, recommend task repetition in classroom teaching, more precisely they stress on task type repetition as an effective way which contribute to enhance students' writing.
2. Most teachers state that students respond better to task type repetition in which they take less than the first time to complete it. Moreover, they claimed that task repetition can improve some aspects of writing such as lexical accuracy and lexical diversity.
3. A considerable number of teachers said that they give much importance to grammatical accuracy when assessing students' writing. Average-ability students, who represent typical students, are considered to have developed mainly grammatical and lexical accuracy.

3.4. Assessment of CAF Measures of Written Production

3.4.1. Description of Experiments

As explained in the section of Data Collection Procedures above, two experiments are conducted with 30 second year LMD students to investigate the effect of task repetition on the CAF measures of their written language production. The target students belong to two intact groups, of 15 students each, meaning they were chosen on the basis of convenience, or their availability. After that, they were assigned randomly to either experiment 1, identical

task repetition, or experiment 2, task-type repetition. While the two groups underwent the same writing task in the pre-test, they took different tasks in the post-test to measure the effect of the type of task used on their written compositions.

The participants in Experiment 1 were asked to write a story depending on a picture story from *Can You Believe It? Book 3* (Huizenga & Huizenga, 2000) titled “Man Ties with a Stranger” (p. 57) for the pre-test without any instruction. Then, they were asked to rewrite the same story (identical task repetition) after one week for the post-test. The 6 pictures of the story help the students to imagine the scenes for writing (Appendix A).

The participants in Experiment 2 were asked to write the story given to the first group for the pre-test. After a week, they were asked to rewrite another story entitled “Face-to-Face after 56 years” (Huizenga & Huizenga, 2000, p.33) which is task-type repetition for the post-test. As in the previous experiment, the 6 pictures of the story help the students to imagine the scenes and write about them (Appendix B).

3.4.2. Description of CAF Measures of Written Production

In this research the complexity, accuracy and fluency measures are described and compared between the products of the two experiments, the same task type repetition experiment the identical task repetition experiment. Results in the pre-test (writing for the first time) and the post-test (task repetition) are discussed are discussed within the same groups and between the two groups to measure differences.

The data analysis of this research was conducted by measuring the CAF triad aspects of the stories written by the students. Housen and Kuiken (2009) asserted that complexity, accuracy and fluency are the most commonly used measures among researchers in applied linguistics research to assess the students’ ability to produce well-written compositions.

Therefore, these CAF measurements are used in the present study consider the sentence (S) as the unit of production for the analysis of the compositions.

Fluency is the first measure of writing assessment in this study; it measures the total numbers of words (W), verbs (V) and sentences (S) of the students' written stories in both groups in the pre-test and post-test. Calculations are made of the total number of verbs per total words ($V \setminus W$); the total number of words per total sentences ($W \setminus S$) and the total number of verbs to sentences ($V \setminus S$), and compares the results of the two groups in the pre-test and post-test.

Students' writing is also analyzed in terms of accuracy for the sake to investigate whether students' productions are error-free through the calculation of correct words (CorrW), sentences (CorrS) and articles (CorrART) used in their compositions. First, the number of words that students used correctly is a measure that counts the total number of correct words divided by the total number of words (CorrW/W). Second, the correct articles measure (CorrART) counts the overall number of correct articles per the total articles found in students' productions. The third measure that has been counted is correct sentences per the overall sentences (CorrS/S) in order to get the ratio of the sentences that students used correctly to total sentences they produced.

In terms of assessing students' writing development, the complexity measure has been used to test the students' written language production through counting lexical complexity and grammatical complexity. Lexical complexity in this research counts density (D) and variation. Density calculates the proportion of lexical (content) words to the total words in a composition ($LW \setminus W$). Word type (WT) is another measure of lexical complexity that is classified as a word variation measure and refers the different categories of words a text may contain such as nouns, verbs, pronouns, adverbs, adjectives. In this study, adverbs (Adv) are chosen and counted among the many categories of word types through dividing the total

number of adverbs by the total number of words in the whole composition ($\text{Adv}|\text{W}$). On the other hand, grammatical complexity counts passive sentences ($\text{P}|\text{S}$) and conjunctions ($\text{Conj}|\text{S}$) over the total number of sentences in a composition. The passive sentence measure calculates the total number of passive sentences to the overall number of sentences ($\text{Pass}|\text{S}$). Conjunctions are calculated and divided by the total number of conjunctions to the overall number of sentences.

3.4.1.2.1. Tables

3.4.2.1. Experiment 1: Identical-Task Repetition

3.4.2.1.1. Fluency measurements

Table 3.10:

Fluency Measures of Identical Task Repetition in the Pre-Test.

| Participants | V | W | S | W/S | V W | V S |
|---------------------------|-------|--------|------|-------|------|------|
| S1 | 21 | 133 | 8 | 16.63 | 0.16 | 2.63 |
| S2 | 17 | 131 | 12 | 10.92 | 0.13 | 1.42 |
| S3 | 38 | 211 | 12 | 17.58 | 0.18 | 3.17 |
| S4 | 43 | 243 | 15 | 16.2 | 0.18 | 2.87 |
| S5 | 24 | 130 | 8 | 16.25 | 0.18 | 3 |
| S6 | 33 | 173 | 11 | 15.72 | 0.19 | 3 |
| S7 | 19 | 89 | 9 | 9.88 | 0.21 | 2.11 |
| S8 | 17 | 87 | 5 | 17.4 | 0.20 | 3.4 |
| S9 | 23 | 126 | 10 | 12.6 | 0.18 | 2.3 |
| S10 | 15 | 101 | 7 | 14.42 | 0.15 | 2.14 |
| S11 | 24 | 109 | 14 | 7.72 | 0.22 | 1.71 |
| S12 | 13 | 74 | 6 | 12.33 | 0.18 | 2.17 |
| S13 | 17 | 107 | 10 | 10.7 | 0.16 | 1.7 |
| S14 | 20 | 118 | 7 | 16.85 | 0.17 | 2.86 |
| S15 | 37 | 201 | 16 | 12.56 | 0.18 | 2.31 |
| Total | 361 | 2033 | 150 | 207.9 | 2.67 | 36.8 |
| Mean | 24.07 | 135.53 | 10 | 14.24 | 0.17 | 2.45 |
| Standard Deviation | 9.28 | 49.57 | 3.32 | 3.1 | 0.02 | 0.59 |

The scores tabulated in the pre-test for the group that will be assigned to identical task repetition treatment show that the students produced written compositions containing 10 sentences, about 136 words and 24 verbs, on average. A typical sentence contains about 14 words, 2 verbs and where the ratio verbs is per total words 0.17, meaning that one verb is

used with more than 5 other words. The standard deviation shows rather big differences in the performance of students. For instance, with regard to the number of sentences produced, they ranged between 5 for S8 and 15 for S4.

Table 3.11

Fluency measures of identical task repetition in the post-test.

| Participants | V | W | S | W/S | V\W | V/S |
|---------------------------|-------|--------|------|--------|------|-------|
| SI 1 | 15 | 81 | 5 | 16.2 | 0.18 | 3 |
| SI 2 | 28 | 175 | 10 | 17.5 | 0.16 | 2.8 |
| SI 3 | 42 | 232 | 10 | 23.2 | 0.18 | 4.2 |
| SI 4 | 28 | 178 | 10 | 11.8 | 0.15 | 2.8 |
| SI 5 | 25 | 117 | 7 | 16.7 | 0.2 | 3.57 |
| SI 6 | 47 | 243 | 14 | 17.35 | 0.19 | 3.35 |
| SI 7 | 19 | 105 | 8 | 13.12 | 0.18 | 2.37 |
| SI 8 | 20 | 111 | 6 | 18.50 | 0.18 | 3.33 |
| SI 9 | 26 | 172 | 13 | 13.23 | 0.15 | 2 |
| SI 10 | 18 | 112 | 7 | 16 | 0.16 | 2.57 |
| SI 11 | 15 | 97 | 12 | 8.08 | 0.15 | 1.25 |
| SI 12 | 17 | 110 | 7 | 15.71 | 0.15 | 2.42 |
| SI 13 | 22 | 126 | 9 | 14 | 0.17 | 2.44 |
| SI 14 | 33 | 185 | 9 | 20.55 | 0.17 | 3.6 |
| SI 15 | 37 | 196 | 9 | 21.77 | 0.18 | 4.11 |
| Total | 392 | 2240 | 136 | 243.71 | 2.55 | 43.81 |
| Mean | 26.13 | 149.33 | 9.06 | 16.25 | 0.17 | 2.92 |
| Standard Deviation | 9.87 | 51.01 | 2.55 | 3.93 | 0.02 | 0.8 |

On carrying out writing on the same task for a second time, the post-test scores show that the students produced written compositions containing about 9 sentences, 149 words and 26 verbs, as a mean for a single student in the group. On average, sentence contains about 16 words, and about 3 verbs. The ratio of verbs to total words is 0.17, meaning that one verb is found among more than 5 other words. Similar to the pre-test, the standard deviation shows that the students' performance completely differs. For instance, with regard to the number of sentences produced, they ranged between 5 for S1, as in the pre-test, and 14 for S6, one word less than in the pre-test.

By comparing pre-test and post-test results in identical task repetition, we can notice slight improvement of students on all measures of fluency except for the number of sentences which decreased by one sentence (10 sentences compositions in the first time and 9 on the second) and the ratio of verbs to total words remained unchanged. The average number of the words contained in identical task repetition rose by 13 words and 2. A typical sentence counts 2 more words on the post-test and 1 more verb. The standard deviation shows rather big differences in the performance of students. For instance, with regard to the number of sentences produced, they ranged between 5 for S8 and 15 for S4.

3.4.2.1.1. Accuracy measurements

Table 3.12

Accuracy Measures of Identical Task Repetition in the Pre-Test.

| Participants | CorrW | CorrW/ W | CorrS | CorrS/ S | CorrArt | CorrArt\ Art |
|---------------------------|---------------|---------------------|--------------|-----------------|----------------|---------------------|
| S1 | 123 | 0.92 | 2 | 0.25 | 5 | 0.71 |
| S2 | 89 | 0.68 | 0 | 0 | 14 | 0.88 |
| S3 | 207 | 0.98 | 8 | 0.67 | 21 | 1 |
| S4 | 235 | 0.97 | 7 | 0.47 | 6 | 0.86 |
| S5 | 115 | 0.88 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0.71 |
| S6 | 162 | 0.94 | 0 | 0 | 15 | 0.83 |
| S7 | 81 | 0.91 | 1 | 0.11 | 5 | 0.83 |
| S8 | 80 | 0.92 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 0.75 |
| S9 | 112 | 0.89 | 0 | 0 | 11 | 1 |
| S10 | 86 | 0.85 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0.71 |
| S11 | 82 | 0.75 | 0 | 0 | 7 | 0.78 |
| S12 | 67 | 0.91 | 0 | 0 | 11 | 0.92 |
| S13 | 94 | 0.88 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 0.8 |
| S14 | 105 | 0.89 | 0 | 0 | 15 | 0.94 |
| S15 | 186 | 0.93 | 1 | 0.06 | 6 | 1 |
| Total | 1824 | 13.3 | 19 | 1.56 | 136 | 12.72 |
| Mean | 121.60 | 0.89 | 1.27 | 0.10 | 9.07 | 0.85 |
| Standard deviation | 51.66 | 0.08 | 2.60 | 0.20 | 5.13 | 0.11 |

The scores tabulated show that students in the pre-test had few errors per total words given that 89% of their words are correct. As for correct sentences, students produced one correct

sentence in every nine sentences i.e., only 10% of the sentences produced by students are error-free. The ratio of correct articles is high since students wrote 85% of the articles correctly and appropriately. In addition, the standard deviation shows a difference between the students' performances ranged from S12 to S3 in using correct words.

Table 3.13

Accuracy Measures of Identical Task Repetition in the Post-Test

| Participants | CorrW | CorrW/ W | CorrS | CorrS/ S | CorrArt | CorrArt\ Art |
|-------------------------------|---------------|---------------------|--------------|-----------------|----------------|---------------------|
| SI 1 | 70 | 0.86 | 0 | 0 | 9 | 0.9 |
| SI 2 | 154 | 0.88 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 0.75 |
| SI 3 | 227 | 0.98 | 5 | 0.5 | 19 | 1 |
| SI 4 | 167 | 0.94 | 0 | 0 | 16 | 0.94 |
| SI 5 | 105 | 0.9 | 0 | 0 | 8 | 0.8 |
| SI 6 | 231 | 0.95 | 0 | 0 | 10 | 0.77 |
| SI 7 | 93 | 0.89 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0.6 |
| SI 8 | 101 | 0.91 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0.71 |
| SI 9 | 165 | 0.96 | 5 | 0.38 | 8 | 0.8 |
| SI 10 | 103 | 0.92 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0.71 |
| SI 11 | 68 | 0.7 | 0 | 0 | 7 | 0.78 |
| SI 12 | 107 | 0.97 | 3 | 0.43 | 3 | 1 |
| SI 13 | 108 | 0.86 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 |
| SI 14 | 180 | 0.97 | 4 | 0.44 | 10 | 0.91 |
| SI 15 | 184 | 0.94 | 0 | 0 | 8 | 0.89 |
| Total | 2063 | 13.6 | 17 | 1.76 | 119 | 13 |
| Mean | 137.53 | 0.91 | 1.13 | 0.12 | 7.93 | 0.84 |
| Standard deviation | 53.03 | 0.07 | 2.00 | 0.20 | 4.65 | 0.12 |

According to this table, students in the post-test made very few errors per the overall number of words, which means that 91% of their words are correct. Also, they produced about one correct sentence in every 10 sentences. This means that only 12% of sentences produced are error-free. Then, students used 84% of correct articles which is considered as a high ratio. Therefore, the standard deviation shows a significant difference between the compositions of students. More specifically, students used correct words that ranged from SI 11 and SI 6.

The results of both the pre-test and post-test shared a significant difference. We noticed that the ratio of correct words and sentences improved during the second performance (0.91; 0.12) when compared to those of the first performance (0.89; 0.10). While, the students' compositions contained less correct articles in the second performance. The standard deviation shows a slight difference between what students write in the first occasion and those in the second occasion. For example, they produced in the pre-test 162 correct words for S6 and in the post-test 231 correct words.

2.1.1.2. Complexity measurements

3.4.2.1.1.2.1. Lexical complexity

Table 3.14:

Lexical complexity measures identical task repetition in the pre-test.

| Participants | Lexical Words | Density | Adverbs | Adv/W |
|---------------------------|----------------------|----------------|----------------|--------------|
| S1 | 67 | 0.5 | 8 | 0.06 |
| S2 | 62 | 0.47 | 5 | 0.04 |
| S3 | 106 | 0.5 | 11 | 0.05 |
| S4 | 116 | 0.48 | 7 | 0.03 |
| S5 | 59 | 0.45 | 8 | 0.06 |
| S6 | 130 | 0.75 | 14 | 0.08 |
| S7 | 57 | 0.64 | 8 | 0.09 |
| S8 | 41 | 0.47 | 6 | 0.07 |
| S9 | 61 | 0.48 | 8 | 0.06 |
| S10 | 52 | 0.51 | 3 | 0.03 |
| S11 | 81 | 0.74 | 4 | 0.04 |
| S12 | 36 | 0.49 | 8 | 0.11 |
| S13 | 62 | 0.58 | 10 | 0.09 |
| S14 | 59 | 0.5 | 7 | 0.06 |
| S15 | 101 | 0.5 | 16 | 0.08 |
| Total | 1090 | 8.08 | 123 | 0.95 |
| Mean | 72.67 | 0.54 | 8.20 | 0.06 |
| Standard Deviation | 27.95 | 0.1 | 3.47 | 0.02 |

Accordingly, students when they wrote for the first occasion, they used 1090 as a total number of lexical words. More specifically, they used just one lexical word in every ten

words and one adverb for every fifty words, or an average of 3 adverbs in a composition, meaning that adverbs are not commonly used at all in students' writing and that students' vocabulary is poor.

Table 3.15:

Lexical complexity measures identical task repetition in the post-test

| | Lexical Words | Density | Adverbs | Adv/W |
|---------------------------|----------------------|----------------|----------------|--------------|
| SI 1 | 41 | 0.51 | 4 | 0.10 |
| SI 2 | 82 | 0.47 | 6 | 0.07 |
| SI 3 | 119 | 0.51 | 14 | 0.12 |
| SI 4 | 86 | 0.48 | 14 | 0.16 |
| SI 5 | 58 | 0.50 | 7 | 0.12 |
| SI 6 | 107 | 0.44 | 17 | 0.16 |
| SI 7 | 58 | 0.55 | 6 | 0.10 |
| SI 8 | 57 | 0.51 | 7 | 0.12 |
| SI 9 | 83 | 0.48 | 14 | 0.17 |
| SI 10 | 57 | 0.51 | 4 | 0.07 |
| SI 11 | 70 | 0.72 | 3 | 0.04 |
| SI 12 | 48 | 0.44 | 8 | 0.17 |
| SI 13 | 72 | 0.57 | 9 | 0.13 |
| SI 14 | 96 | 0.52 | 11 | 0.11 |
| SI 15 | 94 | 0.48 | 19 | 0.20 |
| Total | 1128.00 | 7.69 | 143.00 | 1.85 |
| Mean | 75.20 | 0.51 | 9.53 | 0.12 |
| Standard Deviation | 22.58 | 0.07 | 5.01 | 0.04 |

The tabulated scores of words being used in students' compositions for identical task repetition show that half of these words are lexical words (0.51). Whereas, Students used one adverbs as a type of lexical words for every 10 words.

A comparison between the pre-test and post-test findings of identical task repetition is made. Students used slightly more words (0.54) when they were asked to write in the first time rather in their second writing (0.51) which leads as a result to no improvement. But, they significantly used a large number of adverbs in the second performance rather than in the first one, which means that this repetition helped students to significantly improvement their writing.

3.4.2.1.1.3.2. Grammatical complexity measures

Table 3.16:

Grammatical complexity measures of identical task repetition in the pre-test.

| Participants | Conj | Conj/S | Passives | Passives/S |
|--------------------|------|--------|----------|------------|
| S1 | 16 | 2 | 1 | 0.08 |
| S2 | 12 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| S3 | 16 | 1.33 | 1 | 0.08 |
| S4 | 17 | 1.13 | 5 | 0.33 |
| S5 | 8 | 1 | 2 | 0.25 |
| S6 | 14 | 1.27 | 3 | 0.27 |
| S7 | 3 | 0.33 | 2 | 0.22 |
| S8 | 3 | 0.6 | 0 | 0 |
| S9 | 3 | 0.3 | 1 | 0.1 |
| S10 | 5 | 0.71 | 1 | 0.14 |
| S11 | 4 | 0.29 | 0 | 0 |
| S12 | 4 | 0.67 | 0 | 0 |
| S13 | 7 | 0.7 | 2 | 0.2 |
| S14 | 7 | 1 | 3 | 0.43 |
| S15 | 12 | 0.75 | 5 | 0.31 |
| Total | 131 | 13.09 | 26 | 2.47 |
| Mean | 8.73 | 0.87 | 1.73 | 0.16 |
| Standard Deviation | 5.26 | 0.46 | 1.67 | 0.14 |

This table indicates that students in the pre-test used approximately (1) conjunction per sentence, which means about 87% of grammatical words are conjunctions. Also, 16% of their sentences are passive sentences in the pre-test; this means that students used more conjunctions and very few adverbs.

Table 3.17:

Grammatical complexity measures of identical task repetition in the Post-test.

| Participants | Conj | Conj/ S | Passives | Passives/S |
|--------------|------|---------|----------|------------|
| SI 1 | 2 | 0.4 | 2 | 0.4 |
| SI 2 | 11 | 1.1 | 0 | 0 |
| SI 3 | 6 | 0.6 | 0 | 0 |
| SI 4 | 3 | 0.3 | 3 | 0 |
| SI 5 | 7 | 1 | 2 | 0.29 |
| SI 6 | 11 | 0.79 | 1 | 0.08 |
| SI 7 | 6 | 0.75 | 2 | 0.25 |
| SI 8 | 7 | 1.17 | 0 | 0 |
| SI 9 | 5 | 0.38 | 1 | 0.07 |

| | | | | |
|---------------------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|
| SI 10 | 3 | 0.43 | 2 | 0.29 |
| SI 11 | 3 | 0.25 | 0 | 0 |
| SI 12 | 8 | 1.14 | 0 | 0 |
| SI 13 | 7 | 0.78 | 2 | 0.22 |
| SI 14 | 11 | 1.22 | 3 | 0.33 |
| SI 15 | 4 | 0.44 | 4 | 0.44 |
| Total | 94 | 10.31 | 22 | 2.67 |
| Mean | 6.27 | 0.69 | 1.47 | 0.18 |
| Standard Deviation | 3.03 | 0.35 | 1.30 | 0.16 |

In the post-test, students used approximately (1) conjunction per sentence as mentioned in the table above. While the majority of them used very few passive sentences per total sentences (0.18).

The difference between the scores in the pre-test and post-test is quite clear. The ratio of conjunctions being used in the pre-test is a bit higher than that in the post-test $0.87 < 0.69$. And the ratio of passive sentences is lower $0.18 < 0.17$. This means that the use of conjunctions decreased when the same task is repeated. But, the use of adverbs increased. The standard deviation show similar results to confirm the difference between the two performances. As in the number of conjunctions in the pre-test for S1 (2) which increased in the post-test to (16).

3.4.2.2. Experiment 2: Task-Type repetition

3.4.2.2.1. Fluency measures

Table 3.18:

Fluency measures of task-type repetition in the pre-test.

| Participants | V | W | S | W/S | V W | V\S |
|--------------|----|-----|----|-------|------|------|
| T1 | 12 | 83 | 6 | 13.83 | 0.14 | 2 |
| T2 | 19 | 121 | 8 | 15.13 | 0.16 | 2.38 |
| T3 | 20 | 152 | 10 | 15.2 | 0.13 | 2 |
| T4 | 21 | 143 | 11 | 13 | 0.14 | 1.91 |
| T5 | 18 | 105 | 6 | 17.5 | 0.17 | 3 |
| T6 | 15 | 132 | 10 | 13.2 | 0.11 | 1.5 |
| T7 | 10 | 92 | 7 | 13.14 | 0.11 | 1.43 |
| T8 | 13 | 89 | 7 | 12.71 | 0.15 | 1.86 |
| T9 | 20 | 108 | 9 | 12 | 0.19 | 2.22 |
| T10 | 25 | 147 | 12 | 12.25 | 0.17 | 2.08 |
| T11 | 12 | 81 | 6 | 13.5 | 0.15 | 2 |

| | | | | | | |
|--------------------|--------------|---------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|------------|
| T12 | 15 | 92 | 7 | 13.14 | 0.16 | 2.14 |
| T13 | 19 | 120 | 8 | 15 | 0.16 | 2.38 |
| T14 | 16 | 101 | 9 | 11.22 | 0.16 | 1.78 |
| T15 | 16 | 118 | 8 | 14.75 | 0.14 | 2 |
| Total | 251 | 1684 | 124 | 205.58 | 2.24 | 28.57 |
| Mean | 16.73 | 112.27 | 8.27 | 13.71 | 0.15 | 1.9 |
| Standard Deviation | 4.06 | 23.43 | 1.87 | 1.58 | 0.02 | 0.6 |

The students who were assigned to task-type repetition treatment produced in the pre-test written compositions containing approximately 8 sentences, 17 verbs and 112 words, as a mean for one single student in the group. On average, a sentence includes about 14 words and 2 verbs with a ratio of (0.15); this means that one verb is used with more than other 6 words. The standard deviation shows significant differences between students' performance. For example, when considering the number of verbs being used, they ranged between 10 for T7 and 25 for T10.

Table 3.19:

Fluency measures of task-type repetition in the post-test.

| Participants | V | W | S | W/S | V\W | V\S |
|--------------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|---------------|-------------|--------------|
| TS 1 | 33 | 170 | 12 | 14.17 | 0.19 | 2.75 |
| TS 2 | 27 | 162 | 11 | 14.73 | 0.17 | 2.45 |
| TS 3 | 28 | 133 | 13 | 10.23 | 0.21 | 2.15 |
| TS 4 | 35 | 176 | 13 | 13.54 | 0.2 | 2.69 |
| TS 5 | 13 | 67 | 6 | 11.17 | 0.19 | 2.17 |
| TS 6 | 19 | 122 | 11 | 11.09 | 0.16 | 1.73 |
| TS 7 | 17 | 91 | 6 | 15.17 | 0.19 | 2.83 |
| TS 8 | 24 | 111 | 11 | 10.09 | 0.22 | 2.18 |
| TS 9 | 26 | 126 | 6 | 21 | 0.21 | 4.33 |
| TS 10 | 26 | 119 | 9 | 13.22 | 0.22 | 2.89 |
| TS 11 | 8 | 58 | 8 | 7.25 | 0.14 | 1 |
| TS 12 | 20 | 95 | 10 | 9.5 | 0.21 | 2 |
| TS 13 | 16 | 83 | 6 | 13.83 | 0.19 | 2.67 |
| TS 14 | 18 | 86 | 8 | 10.75 | 0.21 | 2.25 |
| TS 15 | 32 | 183 | 11 | 16.64 | 0.17 | 2.91 |
| Total | 342 | 1782 | 141 | 192.37 | 2.87 | 37.01 |
| Mean | 22.8 | 118.8 | 9.4 | 12.82 | 0.19 | 2.47 |
| Standard Deviation | 7.77 | 39.89 | 2.59 | 3.38 | 0.02 | 0.73 |

The students who were assigned to task-type repetition treatment produced in the post-test written compositions consisting of approximately 9 sentences, 119 words and 23 words, as a mean for a single student in the group. On average, a sentence includes about 13 words and 2 verbs with a ratio of (0.19); this means that one verb is used with more than other ten words. The standard deviation shows significant differences between students' performance in the post-test. For example, when considering the number of sentences produced, they ranged between 6 for TS 5 and 13 for TS 3.

There is a difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the task-type repetition treatment. Students in the pre-test used 8 sentences, 17 verbs and 112 words which increased in the post-test by 1 for sentences, 6 for verbs and 2 for words. Concerning the standard deviation, there is a kind of difference between the two performances. For example, the number of sentences produced by students in the first performance was 6 for S1 and 12 in the second performance, and 11 for S4 in the pre-test and 13 for the post-test.

3.4.2.2. Accuracy measurements

Table 3.20:

Accuracy measures of task-type repetition in the pre-test.

| Participants | CorrW | CorrW/W | CorrS | CorrS/S | CorrArt | CorrArt\Art |
|---------------------|--------------|----------------|--------------|----------------|----------------|--------------------|
| T1 | 65 | 0.78 | 0 | 0 | 8 | 0.80 |
| T2 | 110 | 0.91 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 0.57 |
| T3 | 133 | 0.88 | 0 | 0 | 10 | 0.83 |
| T4 | 127 | 0.89 | 0 | 0 | 11 | 0.92 |
| T5 | 82 | 0.78 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0.83 |
| T6 | 114 | 0.86 | 0 | 0 | 16 | 0.94 |
| T7 | 76 | 0.83 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 0.80 |
| T8 | 83 | 0.93 | 1 | 0.14 | 5 | 1.00 |
| T9 | 88 | 0.81 | 0 | 0 | 9 | 0.82 |
| T10 | 140 | 0.95 | 6 | 0.5 | 10 | 0.91 |
| T11 | 65 | 0.8 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1.00 |
| T12 | 77 | 0.84 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0.83 |
| T13 | 104 | 0.87 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 0.67 |

| | | | | | | |
|---------------------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| T14 | 88 | 0.87 | 0 | 0 | 7 | 1.00 |
| T15 | 113 | 0.96 | 3 | 0.38 | 10 | 1.00 |
| Total | 1465.00 | 12.96 | 10.00 | 1.02 | 110.00 | 12.92 |
| Mean | 97.67 | 0.86 | 0.67 | 0.07 | 7.33 | 0.86 |
| Standard deviation | 24.31 | 0.06 | 1.68 | 0.16 | 3.70 | 0.13 |

The tabulated scores of task-type repetition in the pre-test show that students made few errors among the overall words included in their compositions, which means about 86% of their words, are used correctly. Also, they had approximately 1 error per sentence (0.67). While, they used an average of 7 correct articles for every 10 articles.

Table 3.21:

Accuracy measures of task-type repetition in the post-test.

| Participants | CorrW | CorrW/W | CorrS | CorrS/S | CorrW | CorrArt\ Art |
|---------------------------|---------------|----------------|--------------|----------------|--------------|---------------------|
| T1 | 138 | 0.81 | 0 | 0 | 138 | 1 |
| T2 | 152 | 0.94 | 1 | 0.09 | 152 | 0.93 |
| T3 | 129 | 0.97 | 7 | 0.54 | 129 | 1 |
| T4 | 161 | 0.91 | 0 | 0 | 161 | 1 |
| T5 | 56 | 0.84 | 0 | 0 | 56 | 0.71 |
| T6 | 94 | 0.77 | 0 | 0 | 94 | 0.5 |
| T7 | 72 | 0.79 | 0 | 0 | 72 | 0.63 |
| T8 | 100 | 0.9 | 0 | 0 | 100 | 0.91 |
| T9 | 109 | 0.87 | 0 | 0 | 109 | 0.89 |
| T10 | 111 | 0.93 | 1 | 0.11 | 111 | 0.88 |
| T11 | 46 | 0.79 | 0 | 0 | 46 | 0.57 |
| T12 | 79 | 0.83 | 0 | 0 | 79 | 1 |
| T13 | 67 | 0.81 | 0 | 0 | 67 | 0.86 |
| T14 | 61 | 0.71 | 0 | 0 | 61 | 0.89 |
| T15 | 171 | 0.93 | 0 | 0 | 171 | 0.85 |
| Total | 1546 | 12.8 | 9 | 0.74 | 149 | 12.6 |
| Mean | 103.07 | 0.85 | 0.60 | 0.05 | 9.93 | 0.84 |
| Standard deviation | 40.12 | 0.08 | 1.80 | 0.14 | 4.06 | 0.16 |

The tabulated scores of task-type repetition in the post-test show that students made few errors per total words included in their compositions, which means about 85% of their words, are used correctly. Also, they had approximately 1 error per sentence (0.60). While, they used an average of 10 correct articles for every 10 articles. The standard deviation shows a significant difference between the students' performances. For instance, the number of correct words used by T15 is 171, and T11 is 46.

A comparison between the pre-test and post-test results exists. Students' use of correct articles in the post-test increased by 3 other correct articles. But, the use of correct words and sentences decreased, which means that there is no sign to any improvement. The standard deviation agrees to the difference existing between the pre-test and post-test. As for the first performance, students used from 0-6 correct sentences, and from 0-7 correct sentences in the second one.

3.4.2.1.2.3.1.1 Lexical complexity

Table 3.22:

Lexical complexity measures of task-type repetition in the pre-test.

| Participants | Lexical Words | Density | Adverbs | Adv/W |
|---------------------|----------------------|----------------|----------------|--------------|
| S1 | 36 | 0.43 | 5 | 0.06 |
| S2 | 54 | 0.45 | 8 | 0.07 |
| S3 | 76 | 0.5 | 10 | 0.07 |
| S4 | 60 | 0.42 | 11 | 0.08 |
| S5 | 52 | 0.5 | 5 | 0.05 |
| S6 | 58 | 0.44 | 11 | 0.08 |
| S7 | 39 | 0.42 | 6 | 0.07 |
| S8 | 40 | 0.45 | 6 | 0.07 |
| S9 | 47 | 0.44 | 7 | 0.06 |
| S10 | 46 | 0.31 | 14 | 0.1 |
| S11 | 31 | 0.38 | 2 | 0.02 |
| S12 | 40 | 0.43 | 5 | 0.05 |
| S13 | 64 | 0.53 | 5 | 0.04 |
| S14 | 46 | 0.46 | 6 | 0.06 |
| S15 | 56 | 0.47 | 8 | 0.07 |

| | | | | |
|---------------------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Total | 745 | 6.64 | 109 | 0.94 |
| Mean | 49.67 | 0.44 | 7.27 | 0.06 |
| Standard Deviation | 11.98 | 0.05 | 3.10 | 0.02 |

Students in the first performance of the task used nearly the half of lexical words per total words in the pre-test (0.44), and used insufficient number of adverbs per total words (0.06) in the pre-test as shown in the table above. Also, the standard deviation shows that students perform a task differently. For instance, the number of adverbs ranged from S11 to S10.

Table 3.23:

Lexical complexity measures of task-type repetition in the post-test

| Participants | Lexical Words | Density | Adverbs | Adv/W |
|---------------------|----------------------|----------------|----------------|--------------|
| S1 | 72 | 0.42 | 8 | 0.05 |
| S2 | 80 | 0.49 | 8 | 0.05 |
| S3 | 74 | 0.56 | 8 | 0.06 |
| S4 | 94 | 0.53 | 13 | 0.07 |
| S5 | 36 | 0.54 | 3 | 0.04 |
| S6 | 61 | 0.5 | 5 | 0.04 |
| S7 | 41 | 0.45 | 7 | 0.08 |
| S8 | 54 | 0.49 | 7 | 0.06 |
| S9 | 60 | 0.48 | 4 | 0.03 |
| S10 | 56 | 0.47 | 10 | 0.08 |
| S11 | 33 | 0.57 | 3 | 0.05 |
| S12 | 51 | 0.54 | 5 | 0.05 |
| S13 | 44 | 0.53 | 6 | 0.07 |
| S14 | 39 | 0.45 | 3 | 0.03 |
| S15 | 91 | 0.5 | 10 | 0.05 |
| Total | 886 | 7.52 | 100 | 0.84 |
| Mean | 59.07 | 0.50 | 6.67 | 0.06 |
| Standard Deviation | 19.53 | 0.04 | 2.94 | 0.02 |

In terms of writing development, students produced just about the half of lexical words from total words they used. Students used only one lexical word among every ten words and one adverb per total words; this means that students used adverbs in their writing rarely. Also, the standard deviation shows that performances of students are not the same. For instance, the number of adverbs ranged from S11 to S4.

The pre-test and post-test findings shed light on the difference between the students' compositions in the first and second performances. The repetition of the task type improved the students' density by an increase of 0.06. While, there was no improvement for the use of adverbs (it remains the same as to the first performance). In addition, the standard deviation shows a slight difference between the performances of participants in both the pre-test and post-test. As for the number of adverbs being used, they ranged in the first time from S11 to S10 (2-14). Then, in the second one arranged from S11 to S4 (3-13).

3.4.2.1.2.3.2.1 Grammatical complexity

Table 3.24:

Grammatical complexity measures of task-type repetition in the pre-test.

| Participants | Conj | Conj/S | Passives | Passives/S |
|---------------------|-------------|---------------|-----------------|-------------------|
| T 1 | 3 | 0.5 | 0 | 0 |
| T 2 | 6 | 0.75 | 0 | 0 |
| T 3 | 3 | 0.3 | 1 | 0.1 |
| T 4 | 5 | 0.45 | 0 | 0 |
| T 5 | 7 | 1.17 | 0 | 0 |
| T 6 | 7 | 0.7 | 0 | 0 |
| T 7 | 5 | 0.71 | 1 | 0.14 |
| T 8 | 5 | 0.71 | 0 | 0 |
| T 9 | 5 | 0.56 | 2 | 0.22 |
| T 10 | 5 | 0.42 | 1 | 0.08 |
| T 11 | 5 | 0.83 | 1 | 0.17 |
| T 12 | 2 | 0.29 | 0 | 0 |
| T 13 | 8 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| T 14 | 6 | 0.67 | 0 | 0 |
| T 15 | 4 | 0.5 | 3 | 0.38 |
| Total | 76 | 9.65 | 9 | 1.09 |
| Mean | 5.07 | 0.64 | 0.60 | 0.07 |
| Standard Deviation | 1.62 | 0.25 | 0.91 | 0.11 |

As noticed in the tale above, students used about 64% of conjunctions per sentence.

While, they used very few passive sentences (0.07) in the pre-test. In addition, the standard

deviation shows that there is a difference between the students' compositions. For example, the use of conjunctions ranged from T1 to T13.

Table 3.25:

Grammatical complexity measures of task-type repetition in the post-test.

| | Conjs | Conj/S | Passives | Passives/S |
|---------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| TS 1 | 8 | 0.66 | 1 | 0.08 |
| TS 2 | 11 | 1 | 3 | 0.27 |
| TS 3 | 4 | 0.31 | 2 | 0.15 |
| TS 4 | 8 | 0.62 | 1 | 0.08 |
| TS 5 | 3 | 0.5 | 0 | 0 |
| TS 6 | 4 | 0.36 | 2 | 0.18 |
| TS 7 | 6 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| TS 8 | 4 | 0.36 | 3 | 0.27 |
| TS 9 | 10 | 1.67 | 2 | 0.33 |
| TS 10 | 6 | 0.67 | 1 | 0.11 |
| TS 11 | 3 | 3.38 | 1 | 0.13 |
| TS 12 | 5 | 0.5 | 1 | 0.1 |
| TS 13 | 6 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| TS 14 | 3 | 0.38 | 0 | 0 |
| TS 15 | 7 | 0.64 | 5 | 0.45 |
| Total | 88 | 10 | 22 | 2.13 |
| Mean | 5.87 | 0.67 | 1.47 | 0.14 |
| Standard Deviation | 2.53 | 0.37 | 1.41 | 0.14 |

As the table indicates, students used approximately (1) conjunction per sentence in the post-test. However, they rarely used passive sentences (0.15). Also, the standard deviation shows a difference between the performances of students. For instance, they used conjunctions that ranged from TS 11 to TS 2.

The scores of pre-test and post-test resulted in a significant difference. The number of conjunctions slightly increased by (0.03) when students performed for a second time a task-type. Similarly, the number of passive sentences increased by (0.07). This means that there is a significant improvement in the post-test. In addition, the standard deviation shows a difference between the pre-test and post-test. For example, the number of conjunctions used in the first performance ranged from T1 (3) to T13 (8), and in the second one from TS 11 (3) to TS 2 (11).

3.4.2.1.2 Frequencies and Ratios of Paired and Unpaired t-test

Table 3.26:

Frequencies

| Task | Fluency | | | Accuracy | | | Complexity | | | | |
|-----------------------------|----------------|-------------|--------------|-----------------|---------------|-------------|-------------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| | V | W | S | Corr | Corr | Corr | Lex | Adv | Conj | PassS | |
| | | | | W | S | Art | W | | | | |
| Identical | Pre | 24.07 | 135.53 | 10 | 121.60 | 1.27 | 9.07 | 72.67 | 8.20 | 8.73 | 1.73 |
| Task | Post | 26.13 | 149.33 | 9.06 | 137.53 | 1.13 | 7.93 | 75.20 | 9.53 | 6.27 | 1.47 |
| Repetition | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Paired-t₁ | | 1.47 | | | | | | | | | |
| Same-Task | Pre | 16.73 | 112.27 | 8.27 | 97.67 | 0.67 | 7.33 | 49.67 | 7.27 | 5.07 | 0.60 |
| type | Post | 22.8 | 118.8 | 9.4 | 103.07 | 0.60 | 9.93 | 59.07 | 6.67 | 5.87 | 1.47 |
| Paired-t₂ | | 2.67 | | | | | | | | | |
| Unpaired t- | 0.36 | | | | | | | | | | |
| value | | | | | | | | | | | |

This table shows frequencies of paired and unpaired t-test of identical task repetition and task-type repetition in complexity, accuracy and fluency. Accordingly, the paired t-test of the first experiment had a positive score, which means that repetition of the same task significantly improved the students' writing. A noticeable improvement is seen in fluency as

the number of verbs and words increased in the second performance of the task. Also accuracy had a slight improvement only in the number of articles used correctly. Then, complexity of students' writing increased in terms of lexical words and the number of adverbs. Concerning the unpaired t-test, it positively shows that repetition of task helps the learners to develop their writing.

Ratios

| Task | Fluency | | | | Accuracy | | | | Complexity | | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------|-------------|------|------|----------|------|------|------|------------|-------|------|--|
| | W/S | V\ | V\S | Corr | Corr | Corr | Lex | Adv | conj | PassS | | |
| | W | W | S | Art | W | | | | | | | |
| Identical | Pre | 14.24 | 0.17 | 2.45 | 0.89 | 0.10 | 0.85 | 0.54 | 0.06 | 0.87 | 0.16 | |
| Task | Post | 16.25 | 0.17 | 2.92 | 0.91 | 0.12 | 0.84 | 0.51 | 0.12 | 0.69 | 0.18 | |
| Repetition | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Paired-t₁ | | 1.25 | | | | | | | | | | |
| Same- Task | Pre | 13.71 | 0.15 | 1.9 | 0.86 | 0.07 | 0.86 | 0.44 | 0.06 | 0.64 | 0.07 | |
| type | Post | 12.82 | 0.19 | 2.47 | 0.85 | 0.05 | 0.84 | 0.50 | 0.06 | 0.67 | 0.14 | |
| Paired-t₂ | | 0.14 | | | | | | | | | | |
| Unpaired t- | | 0.02 | | | | | | | | | | |
| value | | | | | | | | | | | | |

(t obtained=0.02)< t 28=2.05) not significant at .05

Frequencies of paired and unpaired t-test of identical task repetition and task-type repetition in complexity, accuracy and fluency are tabulated above. The paired t-test of the first experiment had a positive score (1.25), meaning that performing the same task for a second time significantly enhanced the students' writing. An improvement is shown in fluency as the number of verbs and words per sentence increased in the second performance of the task. Also accuracy had a slight improvement only in the number of words and sentences that are used in a correct way. Therefore, complexity of students' writing increased in using adverbs and passive sentences. In addition, the unpaired t-test shows that repetition of task helps the students for the development of their writing.

Discussion of the Experiment Findings

It is important to consider the level of significance of study which is $\alpha = 0.05$. As mentioned before, the appropriate degree of freedom to this test is $(df = N_1 + N_2 - 2) = (15 + 15 - 2 = 28)$. In other words, at 28 degrees of freedom and level of significance $P = .05$. The critical value of t-test in the table is 2.05. Therefore, the calculated value of frequency is 0.02. This value is obviously less than the tabulated value 2.05 ($0.02 < 2.05$) which means that this study is statistically not significant. Furthermore, the difference between the two means of identical task repetition and task-type repetition of post-tests when compared in the above table show a significant improvement in the post-tests. This difference shows that the repetition of the same task has a significant effect on the students' productions. For instance, the frequencies of identical task repetition of the verbs, words, correct articles, adverbs and lexical words have increased in the second performance more than those of task-type repetition. According to the result of the obtained value, the alternative hypothesis is rejected and the null hypothesis is confirmed. It is only 5% of the possibility of real improvement of t-test of the observed mean differences. This means that even there is a significant difference between

identical task repetition and task-type repetition, this repetition does not have a significant effect on students' writing, or has a slight effect.

3.4.2.1.3. Summary of the Results

This research has been conducted to test the effect of task repetition on students' written language production in terms of CAF measures. In addition, a teachers' questionnaire have been used in order to get an insight about task repetition in classroom, whether they use this technique (do they repeat the same task or a same type of task). The majority of teachers claim that they use task-type repetition rather than identical task repetition. They added that students generally consume fewer amounts of time or about the same when they repeat a task. Then, a test has been conducted for students of second year LMD of two groups to compare between identical task repetition and task-type repetition. A group of participants were assigned to write a story for the pre-test and repeat it for the post-test. However, they were asked to repeat another story in the second group for the post-test. A comparison has been made between the pre-tests and post-tests of identical and task-type repetition.

The results portrayed in the above tables show that post-tests' scores are greater than those of the pre-tests of both identical and task-type repetition treatments. More specifically, fluency measures such as the number of verbs and words increased in the second performance of the same task (24.07-26.13; 135.53-149.33), and the number of sentences decreased (10-9.06). While, only the number of words that students used correctly was higher in the post-test (121.60-137.53). But, the correct sentences and articles do not increase (1.27-1.13; 9.07-7.93). Concerning complexity, there was an improvement just for adverbs being used (8.20-9.53).However, conjunctions and passive sentences had no improvement in the post-test. This comparison of post-tests resulted in a difference where identical task repetition scores had an improvement better than in task-type repetition in the use of verbs, words, sentences, correct words, correct sentences, lexical words, adverbs and conjunctions. While,

the number of passive sentences remains the same, and the number of correct articles increased in task-type treatment (7.93-9.93).

3.4.2.1.4. Overall Analysis of the Results

The overall analysis of this research mainly concerns with investigating the teachers' views about task repetition, its effectiveness in developing the students' writing and its application in the classroom using an administered questionnaire. Also, a comparison has been made between two groups for the sake to test the students' writing improvement either when repeating the same task or the same type of task. Therefore, the answers of the research questions posed at the beginning are as the following:

Question 1: What are the teachers' attitudes towards task repetition?

Depending on the reached results, from the teachers' questionnaire. The first question would be answered as:

A1- Teachers of written expression view task repetition as a good technique to improve the students' writing skill and more specifically the task-type repetition.

Question 2: Does task repetition affect students' progress in written language production in terms of CAF quality?

A2- Teachers of written expression claim that there is an improvement in the written texts of students after repeating tasks. More precise, they noted that this improvement mostly concerns not with all the aspects included in of fluency, accuracy and complexity. Concerning fluency, students produced more verbs and words, and fewer sentences after they repeated the same task. However, these measures all increased when students repeated a same task-type. In addition, writing improved with regard to accuracy when students used more correct words in the second performance of the same task rather than the correct articles and

sentences which decreased in the post-test leading to no improvement. Similarly, participants used more correct words and articles in the post-test of same-task type when compared to the lower number of correct sentences they produced. As for complexity, the repetition of the same task led to a significant increase of lexical words' use and adverb use, and to a decrease of conjunctions and passive sentences. Whereas, lexical words and conjunctions increased in task-type treatment, adverbs decreased and passive sentences did not change.

Question 3: Which kind of repetition, same-task or task-type, would result in better results, if any, on the quality of students' written productions in terms of CAF level?

A3- teachers of written expressions favored task-type repetition to same-task repetition which gives better results in terms of accuracy and complexity. However, the experiment results show that same-task repetition is better than task-type repetition in terms of fluency, accuracy and complexity. According to the post-test scores, there is a significant difference between repetition of the same task and task-type. This difference agrees that students write better when they repeat the same task (423.58) not a same type of that task (337.68). This means that the more they become familiar with the task, the better their writing skill will be. For instance, the number of words produced in the second performance of the same task outperforms that of task-type repetition ($26.13 > 22.8$), and the same as for the correct use of words ($137.53 > 103.07$).

Conclusion

This chapter represents the results obtained from the pre and posttest for testing the effect of task repetition on students' written language. The information was gathered through two steps, the first step is a questionnaire which was distributed to a small number of teachers (10). The second step was a quasi- experiment conducted with two groups with a total number of 30 students.

The immediate conclusion that can be made after the analysis and evaluation of the teachers' questionnaire and the experiment is that the majority of teachers' answers on the questionnaire agree the use of task repetition in classroom. And, they favour task-type repetition to same-task repetition in order to let pupils write better in the second occasion. However, the findings of the quasi-experiment revealed that this research is statistically not significant. But, still there is a significant difference that cannot be ignored between the first experiment (identical-task repetition) and the second one (task-type repetition) in which task-type repetition score means in the post-test were lower than those of same-task repetition. Thus, it is possible that writing development of pupils can improve in the second performance of a same task.

General Conclusion

- 1. Putting it altogether**
- 2. Limitations of the Study**
- 3. Suggestions for Further Research**
- 4. Pedagogical Recommendations**

1. Putting Altogether

The present study was conducted to investigate and test the effect of task repetition on students' written language production. This dissertation is split up into three (3) main chapters: two theoretical and one analytical. The first chapter starts by shedding light on TBLT approach, its theories of language and learning and its implementation in classroom through doing tasks. Then, it moves to draw attention to task repetition as an important mechanism in language acquisition either same-task or task-type repetition with a main focus on form in both language production and performance. The second chapter considers the notion of writing. More specifically, the basic process; product and genre approaches of teaching writing and mentions its various types. Next, it focuses on language and writing developmental studies and the assessment of complexity, accuracy and fluency of writing.

The third chapter sheds light on the fieldwork of this research in the light of the results obtained from the data collected using a teachers' questionnaire and an experiment. The questionnaire was designed for 10 teachers of written expressions module of the English department in Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University. Also, the experiment was conducted for 2 classes of written expressions module for second year students during a period of two weeks at the same university. This experiment attempts to explore whether or not same-task or task-type repetition affects the students' writing.

The findings of this study revealed that the teachers' questionnaire emphasized the use of task repetition in classroom as an important technique to improve the students' writing skill. Also, the majority of teachers prefer asking their students to repeat the task-type not the same task in order to get better results of improvement. Therefore, the quasi-experiment which was a comparison made between the post-tests of two groups revealed that this research is statistically not significant. But, a strong difference has been found between the means of

post-tests of both experiments (same-task repetition VS task-type repetition) in terms of complexity and fluency where identical task-repetition scores were higher than those of task-type repetition.

2. Limitations of the Study

As with most research studies, this research paper has some limitations and difficulties that are worth noting. The first difficulty that the researchers of the present study faced was the lack of relevant resources concerning task repetition regarding the theoretical part.

The second limitation was the short period of time allotted to finish this thesis. It prevented the researchers from using other research instruments such as the interview. If extra time had been allowed, the researchers would have implemented an open interview with students as an additional tool of data collection.

The third limitation lies within the tools themselves that are used. Concerning the questionnaire, it was not given full attention by teachers; thus, some of them they refuse to collaborate, and others did not even hand back their copies.

3. Suggestions for Further Research

- Further study can be conducted by selecting a single measure of CAF triad using an experimental design as a research tool. To get into details, a researcher can choose complexity and study its different aspects in writing.
- This study can be continued by adding a third group as a control one to test whether the students who repeat a task outperform the ones who did not.
- It is worthwhile to consider carrying out more extensive research with wider range of students for longer duration in future studies to enhance the effect of task repetition on students' writing abilities.

- Because the findings of this research concerning the repetition of written tasks was not significant since the students' writing ability was very limited, it is necessary to conduct a further research with third year students in order to get significant results. Also, it is possible to continue a further research to test the effect of task repetition on students' oral performance.

4. Pedagogical Recommendations

In the light of the results obtained from this research which statistically disconfirmed the fact that students' writing is affected by task repetition. On the basis of these findings, the following recommendations are provided:

- Teachers at the department of English language should focus on how to develop their students' awareness about the importance of writing skill through engaging them to write using different techniques because writing helps them to express themselves and their own thoughts. Workshops, conferences and seminars can be useful to make future competent writers.
- It would be useful if course designers and why not teachers of written expression module assess for a second time the writing curriculum in accordance to the students' needs and wants.
- Also, students are recommended to practice writing outside classroom. When students write inside classroom such as an activity or an exam, they may write under stress. But, when they write outside classrooms such as diaries; invitation cards; letters and so on. They do it freely and this will encourage them not to be afraid of writing.
- Teachers should get closer with their students in order to know what each student wants to write, what topics motivate and encourage them to write and the best way

through which they should be asked to write meaningful and well-organized paragraphs or essays.

- Teachers of written expressions need to prepare a list of convincing reasons for their students when asking them to rewrite a task for a second time. This is mainly because students will get bored of repeating a task for a second time especially the same task or a task-type.

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APPENDIX A

Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear teachers,

You are kindly requested to fill in this questionnaire which is devised to collect data about **the effect of task repetition on students' written language production.** We would be grateful if you could answer these questions.

Please, answer each question by ticking (v) the correspondent choice(s) or writing in the space provided.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Section One

1. How do you estimate your second year students' levels in writing, in general?

a) Good b) Average c) Weak

2. Which aspects do you focus on or consider essential in your assessment of students' written productions?

- a. Grammatical accuracy
- b. Grammatical complexity
- c. Lexical accuracy
- d. Lexical diversity
- e. Sentence (or cause) length

3. Which aspects of writing do you consider as satisfactorily developed in each of the following categories of your students?

| Aspects of Writing | Excellent students | Good students | Average students | Poor students | Very poor students |
|--------------------------------|--------------------|---------------|------------------|---------------|--------------------|
| a) Grammatical accuracy | | | | | |
| b) Grammatical complexity | | | | | |
| c) Lexical accuracy | | | | | |
| d) Lexical diversity | | | | | |
| e) Sentence (or clause) length | | | | | |

Section Two

4. How often do you repeat writing tasks in your teaching?

- a. Every session
- b. Every other session
- c. Once or more a month
- d. Occasionally
- e. Never

5. Which kind of repetition do you recommend/use?

- a. Same task repetition
- b. Same task type repetition
- c. No repetition
- b. Please, explain your choice:
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

6. Which type of writing tasks is responded to positively (usually recruits involvement) by students, if any?

- e. Same task repetition
- f. Same task type repetition
- g. New tasks
- h. All of the above

7. When you repeat a task, how much time do students take to complete it?

- e. More than in the first time
- f. Less than in the first time
- g. About the same as in the first time
- h. Not sure

8. After asking your students to perform a repetition of a task, how do aspects of their writing usually become?

| Aspects of Writing | Improves | Doesn't change | Degrades | Not sure |
|-------------------------------|----------|----------------|----------|----------|
| f) Grammatical accuracy | | | | |
| g) Grammatical complexity | | | | |
| h) Lexical accuracy | | | | |
| i) Lexical diversity | | | | |
| j) Sentence (or cause) length | | | | |

9. Do you encourage your students to write more complex grammatical and lexical compositions with making errors or do you only insist that they do not make errors? And why?

.....

.....

.....

.....

APPENDIX B



Huizenga & Huizenga (1991, p.57).

APPENDIX C



Huizenga & Huizenga (1991, p.33).

APPENDIX D

Students' Compositions of Identical Task Repetition

Pre-test

S1. One day john was staying with his friends in a caffe shop. They were dissiscing some subject and suddenly a friend of john asked him! «when are you going to maried john ! »; opps !he directly answerd without thinking «on juin, this month inchallah. You are invited». But the problem that he didn't have a girlfriend? So he suggested to his parents to chose a wife for him. They gived him a solution which is: «Bridal contest !». There was a lot of women in, beautiful ones. But john saw one of them she was a beautiful lady. First he saw her, directly he thought that she is the perfect wife for him. At the end john and his beautiful lady get married and they lived a happy life full of love.

S2. John friends asked him when he get marriage. So he put a date in his mind but his was wondering about his pride cause he did not now the rightful girl. So he start asking his family and friends and one day a man propose for him one of his daughters. The man was known with his morals and rightness. After that he meet sarah his younger daughter she was beautiful and smart he find everything he need in his partner. So he ask her for marriage and she accepted hi gladly. After 2 month of engagement they fix the date both sarah and john invited their families and friends member for the wedding. It was a great day for everyone, after that john and sarah live in happy beautiful life.

S3. Kids, do you to know how i met your beautiful mother and married her? It started when I was 30 years old. Of course I had a home a job, a car and will that man needs to start a family and the only thing that was missing is a wife. After a while my fiend become insistant asking “so, when are you going to get married?” and reply “guys, I would love to but I can't soon to find mrs. right”. Aftersoing my struggle, my friend suggested a solution. I hesitated a bit then I thought” may be this can work “.the day has come. The contest day, and I was present along with my friends. I filled all the informatios need about myself on a sheet of paper and look off will sensation that my future wite is around the corner. The next five days I waited eayerly, checking my E-mail like curionschild. It was until day six that I received one. I opend it with a tourp my threat to find the picture of your

morher at the top for in that it seemed like an invitation to a date. And that's how I met the love of my life that's how I met your mother my kids.

S4. John was a business man who loved to party with family and friends. One day when his friends and family were at his house, he told them that he wanted to get married. So they started to ask him about the date and the person he was going to get married to. John surprised them with the invitations; he had already made up his mind to get married to the girl whom he loved for more than seven years, Olivia. John kept thinking about her the whole night after his friends and family left. The next day his father argued with him about his marriage, because he felt like John was not serious about it. So John asks his father to look for a wife for him. He said that as a joke, so his father became so mad and decided not to help in anything for his wedding. All that because John's father didn't believe that his son could actually build a family in a stable situation and take that big responsibility on his shoulders. But John had it all planned and decided to get married to Olivia. So he invited her to be a part of a bridal contest. And on the date of the invitations that he gave to his friends and family. He went to the bridal contest and took beautiful flowers and gave them to Olivia. They got married and lived happily for the rest of their lives.

S5. One day, there was a men how is late late in married. His friends asked them when he is going to married. This idea started to get a place in his mind. So he started to think to get married and he even appointed the month and the day .Then he asked his friends to help them chosing a wife because he has a list of girls in his mind and he can't decide. One of his friends predicte to him to do a bridal contest and the most beautiful and smart one it will be your wife. He accepted the idea and precise a day which will be the 13th of June to chose a wife. Finally, he chose one (the winner) and they get married and live happily.

S6. Once apon a time, there was a guy who had much enough of being alone and being single especially since all his friends were married and have children. They kept asking him the same question over and over every time. So, he was really into the idea of marriage. However, he did not find the right woman that he will spend the rest of his life with .So, his friends offer to help and they

told him to do a bridal contest. So, he really liked the idea of that and he told them that he agree of having a Bridal Contest. They set up a date and informed all the women who were single and went to get married. As the day arrived he saw a lot of different women. Finally found the one he was looking for. He brought her a ring and they agree that on the 14th August they will get married. So they did, and they live very happy together because he was very helping and well understanding man.

S7. All the human beings at least get married. Each bride dream with her groom. And how its behaviour. The groom also think the same thing. First, when are you going to get married. The people ask you do you know your future wife? Do you love her? If you answer them with no till now I didn't find future wife. They tolled you don't worry, we are here. Finally, the husband find his wife after a long searching and married her in well developed marriage and they live in happiness.

S8. One day, a men called harry decided to marry on June the, 13th. He was all the days dreaming about the girl of his dreams all the days planning how to prepare for his wedding and how his going to marry. He told his friend that this marriage is going to be complet through making a Bridal contest. Later on, this man made it, and he choosed his wife who he is going to complete his life with. The couple married and they lived happily ever after.

S9. Once upon a time, a man was dreaming to have a good wife. One day, he decided to make a bridal contest in order to realize his dream. After that his friends started asking him about the date of the marriage. He said that it will be in 13 June. But also he said to them that they must be there to help him to choose the most beautiful wife in the competition. When he went to the bridal contest he was very surprised because it includes many girls. He started looking for a beautiful girl. Suddenly he found her and went to ask her if she accept to marry him. The girl said yes. In the end they got married and lived in happiness forever.

S10. One day, John diceded to married. But it was a frock to his friends because John was not the kind of people who intrested about marriage and have children. In fact, they don't know that their best friend fail in love with a beautiful girl called "Sandra". A few day, John made a Bridal contest where all his friends get know by this beautiful future wife who toke his heart and they like her a lot.

Because on June 13, was the wedding. All people were happy for Sandra and John, and they wish all the best to that amazing couple

S11. Aissa is a single man all of his friend get married. They forced him to married. So he decided to do it. He bring the invitation and he bought the ring and custome. Also he chose the date of married. Aissa start to imagine his girl dream. One day he speak with his father to choice a wife for him. His father give him suggestion. They told him to make a bridal context and choiseth the wife. The bridal context was coming. Aissa whit his friend, suddenly he looked a girl. She wa very beautifull. Than he decide to choose her. Finally, devorce single life, and lived happy whit his wife.

S 12. One day there was a man who was always thinking to marry and to find his second half. He asked his friends to help him to find a good wife. Then his friends found a wife for him and he was very happy. Next, he determined the date of his widdig in 13th June. Then he married and he was very happy in his happy wedding. Finaly, he lived in happy with his wife.

S13. After long day, Jack meets his friends in the coffeshop and during their conversation, they say: when are you going to get married Jack. But he saies that he doesn't fix a date yet. Well they try to help him in his wedding. Jack keep imagine how he can find the right wife. Then he decides to tell their parents about it. But they tell that him that something serious and he should think carefully before his decissen. As well as Jack find his future wife and she acceptes him gladly. In conclusion, Jack get married and finally. He lives with his wife peacefully in their House.

S14. Tom is getting 40 years and he didn't get married yet. His family and friends always keep on asking him when will he get married. one day he just tought of an idea that will mikes it easier for him to chose a wife which was chosing a day for a bridal contest where his friends will be the juges to chose a good woman for him. So the day has come and a lot of girls showed up to the bridal competition. His friends started to chose according to some conditions and how they think the bride should be. Finally he found the perfecte one for him. They organised a small wedding and he get married at last.

S15. John was a very serious man who passes most of his time in hard working. He loves work, and he hopes to become a successful person in his life. One day, his friends started talk to him, trying to convince him to get married and have a small family. Then John started thinking seriously of wedding. But how could he get marry, while he doesn't even have a girlfriend?! So he asks his friends if they could choose a wife for him. When he suddenly remembers that there will be a Bridal Contest on June, 13th. He felt that here is a light of something serious while Jane –who he likes her- will be there. In the Bridal Contest, John met Jane, and he told her that he likes her so much since high school days. Jane was so happy to hear that and she told him that she do like him too, So John was sure that he finally found his beautiful princess. He asked her “would you marry me?” and she said “yes”. And they decide to marry on August. John was happy. His friends made for him a small well organized wedding. He lived with Jane happily.

Post-test

SI 1. Once upon a day, a group of friends asked their friend John where he is going to get married. Then suggested a date for him which is the 13th of June. John has accepted this date. But, he didn't have any idea about whom can be the wife. After that his friend help him to choose his future wife. Then he decided to get married with a beautiful girl named Sally and they live in a peace for all their life.

SI 2. While Jack was with friend at coffee they asked him about when he will go married. The question was really touching him cause he is a mature personal. So he decide to with his friends a challenge the he could do it if he want and they pick up a date for marriage. After that jack was wondering who it's pride. Asking his friend and family he decide to be a compet in the bridal contest to choose a wife. He ask people who have experience in this field to choose a wife for him. And when the day has come Jack meet a girl in contest she looks very beautiful and smart. He start a conversation with her and he could know that it very suitable for his life. After a while Jack ask her hand for marriage, and she accept gladly. They pick up a day to their wedding and invite all the friends and family. After a great day of marriage Jack and Sarah his wife live live in happiness and joy.

SI 3. Sit down my kids, you need to hear the story of how i met your mother. It all started one night when I was hanging out with my friends. At that time I had everything figured out; a job, a house, and my dear friends kept nagging constantly that I must find a life partner, a wife, I resisted their insistent for a while, but I had to give in eventually. Therefore, at that very night I decide to humour them and go along with what they suggest. I said “ok, how am I supposed to find missus right,” and suddenly they exploded on my face with all kind of suggestions! One particularly I welcomed, signing in a bridal contest. Next morning, we went to the contest where I deposed an application signed as a bachelor and left the place afterward with a feeling that the person I am going to spend life with is in the corner. Three days past, I waited my e-mail account to blip like a child; I was enthusiastic about the whole thing. It was until the firth day that I finally heard that blip. I felt a lamp in my throat as hit the open button, I scrolled down shaking to glimpse the most magical words I will ever glimpse; an invitation to meet with whom she is the love of my life today, your mother.

SI 4. Once in a family meeting, John was asked about marriage. He was in love with a teacher; Tira was her name. So he surprise dthem with invitations and he started to think of his future wife whom he loved so much for more than eight years. His father was absent during the meeting. So he told him that he decided to get married to Tira. His father was very angry at him, because he thought that his son wasn’t responsible at all, and decide not to help with the wedding or anything else. But John planned for all of that because he knew that, that would be his father reaction. He asked Tira to come to a bridal contest where he invites his friends and family on the 13th of June. One day arrived his friends and family were all there except of his father. John and Tira got married, and lived happily for the rest of their lives challenging his father and everyone who had ever thought that John wouldn’t be responsible enough to start a family.

SI 5. There was a men how was late in married. One day some friends of his asked them where are you going to get married. This idea taked place in his mind all day. He determined the date on 13 June and prepared the invitations and bags. Also he started thinking about his wife (how was his shape, was she beautiful). But he was confused. Finally he find a solution, he organized a bridal contest on June 13th and asking his friends to help them to choose a wife but they said “this makes light of something

serious". He adopted a great cilebration and he married the woman who win in the bridal contest and they lived happily.

SI 6. Jack was a man who had enough of being single especially since all his friends were married. So they kept on asking him if the day will come and they will see him as a broom. And if they will ever have the honor to stand next to him as his best man when he says his "I do". So he was really thinking about it. But he didn't find the right bride. So he kept saying no; as soon as his friends find out they offered to help. So they did; they set up a date and they throw him a party and it was a bridal contest party for him to have the chance to meet different kind of girls. So he might find the right woman to complete the rest of his life with. In the party he meet a lot of girls and as he was just about to give up because he thought he will never find his woman. He saw a girl sitting alone so he went to talk to her. They set and talked for hours they were having fun, right there when he notice that she complete him. They were match up. So he asked her to marry him and she said "yes". Two months later they set up the date of their wedding. They got married and they were really happy together because he is such an understanding man, he helped her in everything.

SI 7. One day, one man called tom decided to get married. But he didn't found the right wife that's why he ask everybody in order to search for a good wife for him. When he find his friends he ask them "will you choose a wife for me?" But his friends told him this makes light of something serious. Then he thought that his friends were right. And he went to the bridal contest and he found the best solution and best bride for him Finally, he get married and he invited people also to made a well-organized marriage. He lived in happiness with his wife.

SI 8. One day, Tom was in the coffee shop with his friend drinking coffee and discussing about their personal lives. Then they asked him about the day and date of his marriage. His friends were know that he doesn't have even a girlfriend that's push them to fixed a date for his wedding which was June 13th. Tom was all the time, days and night dreaming and imagining how would be his dreams girl. Later on the wedding day friends organized a bridal contest in where Tom could choose

the girl who will live with her and suits him. At the end, Tom found his wife and they lived happily ever after.

SI 9. Once upon a time, a man was dreaming to have a beautiful wife but he was very poor. He didn't have money to marry. When morning when he was walking alone in the street he heard someone talking about a bridal contest. After that he decided to join in this competition to realize his dream. As usual the word spreads very quickly in the country. Next day he went to a coffee shop and he met his friends there. He started asking him about the date of his marriage. Then he informed them that it will be on 13th June, and give each one of them an invitation to attend his marriage. While he was very confused and afraid about his future wife. He was thinking if she is beautiful. Today's competition, he dressed his best clothes and when he entered he was very surprised because there were many girls. However, he fall in love with a girl named Jolly and they get married. After that they live both in happiness forever.

SI 10. One day, John diceded to get married. It was a chock for his friends because he was against marriage and have children. They started to convince him to not get this step because it is something very serious and he will be regrated. But in fact, they don't know that their best friend failed in love with a beautiful girl called "Sandra". A few day after, he made a Bridal contest where his friends get know his beautiful future wife. They loved her a lot because she was so polite and nice with them. At day of wedding, everyone were happy to that beautiful couple and wished all the best to them.

SI 11. Aissa is a single man. All of his friend start to irony about him. So he decided to do it. He chose the date and he send the invitation to his friend. Aissa start dreaming about his dream wife. He speak with his father to choose a wife for him. His father said that in 13th June a bridal contest. The day come. Aissa was dancing. Suddenly, he saw a beautiful girl he go to speak with her. So they decide to marriage in a big wedding. Finally Aissamarraiage, and he leave in happy with his wife.

SI 12. There was a men who decided to marry. He was a bit confused and his friends asked him about the date of the wedding. Then he determined the date of wedding in 13th June and he gave the invitations to his friends. After that he talled his friends that there was a wedding contest in June13

and also he asked them to help him to choose a good wife. Then his friends gave him some advices. When the date of the contest came, he chose a wife and he married in a great celibration and he was very happy. After the wedding his life changed and he became very happy.

SI 13. Like all days John meet his friends at coffee shop. After doing conversations, suddenly one of his friends ask him when he will get married. But he tell them that he didn't fix a date yet. As well as they help him. But they tell him to ask their parent first. John decided to ask his parent to choose a wife for him however. His parents say that's to get married and make a family, is a thing very serious and he should think carefully before his decision. In addition, his friends collaborate between them and help him to find a beautiful wife. After they found the perfect wife for their friend. He engages and married and live in peace with his wife in their house.

SI 14. Johny is a simple man who already 35 years old and did not get married yet nor thinking about it. His family and his friends keep on asking him when is he going to marry and make a family. Someday he got sick and imaged of the same question everyday so he thought of an idea that would help him to find a wife and got married soon. He gathered some of his friends and his family and told them about the idea which is making a bridal contest where his friends will be the judges to choose the perfect bride for him and right after they find her. He gonna get married at the same day. The day of the bridal contest has come; June 13th. Everything is prepared as they want it to be. Many girls showed up to participate in the competition. As Johny thought, his friends finally found the perfect beautiful bride for him so they finished the bridal contest and prepared the bride and the broom to finally get married and make his friends and family wish come true.

SI 15. Once upon a time, a young man called John. John was a serious man who passes most of his time at work. He was a hard worker who wishes to be a successful man in his life. One day John friend asked him if he is ready to be married, and said "when are you going to get married John?" Then John started thinking seriously of marriage, and how will he get married while he does not have even a girl frien!. So, he asked one of his friends if he can choose a wife for him when he suddenly remembered that there will be a bridal contest at June 13th and he felt that he will meet his future wife

there. On June, 13th, John went to the bridal contest. When he found Jane - who he liked her since high school- Then they talked to each other for long. Finally, he told her that he likes her so much and ask her if she accept to be his wife for ever, and she said "yes". John's friends were all invited to the wedding. Finally John and Jane get married, and lived happily together.

Students' Compositions of Task-Type Repetition

Pre-test

T1. In 1941 in Russia, there is a woman who was pregnant. After nine months she gave birth to a girl. At Germany in 1942, the mother lost the baby. It was took away from her and return home without her child. In 1946 the father and the mother was talking imagining their daughter how she looks like. After years the mother found a picture of her daughter. And in 1989 she talked with her by phone after 56 years and they lived happily.

T2. In 1941 the young pregnant woman left Russia because of the revolution. She emigrate into Germanie in order to found peace and freedom. And there she put her baby; it was a beautiful girl. In 1942, she give her girl to someone else to take care about her, because she was poor and live in misery. In 1946 the woman feel regret about her girl and she started looking for her. She tells the police and even after she travels to America she still thinking of her. After some years she received some letters from her daughter and they start phone each other until they met again after 56 years. So the distance is doesn't matter when the heart are together again.

T3. Long time ago ; there was a pregnant women lived a simple and misrebale life. In 1941 exactly in Germany. The day of giving birth to the baby come. And after these the mother was obliged to put the baby at the house of aurphlens because she lived a difficult life. So her situation did not allowed her to keep these baby with her. When she come back to her home she started narrate her husband the story. After that she always thinkig about her baby if she is in a good healt , if she eat good food. She always remember her girl. In 1963, this mother received some letters and she found the picture of her girl she became happy. The mother become an old women and her girl also become youth the call each other every day anfter 56 years the lived the rest of life together and happy.

T4. In 1941, exactly when there was a war in Russia. There will be a women who was pregnant.

After a mounths when a new child was born and it was a girl.

Because of the situation in Russia, the women fraid on his doughter and she decide to save her. So she take her into another country in 1942. Gemany. After four years later, when she was over, the mother returns back to look for his doughter. She went to police and ask for her. But she didn't find anything. She was thinking about her every moment. One day the mother was look for the thing that belongs to her doughter. And sudenly she find a photo for her aughter. She take the photo and makes announcement to look the daughter. After 6 years she met her daughter again.

T5. One day, a women lived in Russia the women was a child and she was very happy with her baby. But this women was verry poor and she didn't have a home wher she leaved. The women decided to get her girl another familly because she didn't have money to buy lisa beatutiful clothes and good foods. The women become sad because his girl very far to her. And she made another decission which is to research for her daughter and she found her photo in newspaper. Then she took her number phone and she called her daughter. Finally both of them living in happiness.

T6. In 1941 in Russia, and in the period of Russian revolution. There was a pregnant women who suffered so much in her life because of the period of the war. After the birth of her little daughter. She was like her so much. But suddenly the mother miss her daughter by someone. The women feeling sad for a long period of time. In one day the mother remarried again and she find a familly and a good husband. She spended good time with him. But she did not forget her daughter and still remember her and spoken on her with the family. In one day the mother receive an say ; Mom, i miss you so much it was a perfect day for the . . Women finally she found her daughter.

T7. Once upon a time in Russia in 1941. There was a woman named Liza. She was lost his husband in an accident and she was pregnant. But unfortunately she remained homeless with his girl because she gave birth to a daughter. One day and because of his conditions she put his daughter in orphanage and in Gaermany in 1942. She regain his look girl because his situation becomes better because of his

second marriage and she live with his family very happy .The daughter and his mother was so happy in there life.

T8. In 1941, exactly in Russia, upon the Russian revolution. There was a pregnant woman. After that she put her baby in difficult conditions. The woman went to Germany in 1942 and there she lost her baby in mesterious way. In 1946 the woman started thinking about her child and she looked for her girl everywhere she went. After a long time of searching she lost hope of finding her girl. But in 1989 and after 56 year from being apart. She found her and they lived happily ever after.

T9. In 1941 there was a woman who was pregnant. It seems she love her so much after her birthday because it was a girl. This happened in Russia. In Germany in 1942 the girl takes away from her mother. In 1946. The mother went to the police in order to find someone to help her. The woman gets married again and finds another family. In 1963, the woman received a message contain the picture of her daughter. And she still looking for her until she connected her by the phone and tells her where she lived. This is happen after 56 years, they met and lived in happiness.

T10. Back to the Russian revolution, Melissa was a women who left alone carring a child because her husband was summaned to participate in the war. Few mounths later he died. When the baby came to life. She run away from the war to Germany to protect her baby. But unfortantly they took away her child from her. After the war ended, she went back to look for her child. Melissa remarried again and went to live in U.S.A with her new family. But her mind always thinking of her child the girl that she left in Germany until she lost hope on finding her baby. Years later, Melissa became old. One day while she was checking the letters that she had received she found a letter from lucy the daughter that she tought she would never find. When she called her and after 56 years of being apart.

They met again and the lived happily ever after.

T11. While woman was lived in Russia with suffer life. She was have a baby and after that she visited in Germany 1942 and there is steal your girl. In 1946 she started for research her. She want of police centre because for researching of her daughter, and always sad for her. In 1963 she founded a

picture for her daughter. In 1989 she connected with her daughter and if was her old girl and after 56 years she found her little daughter.

T12. In 1941, in Russia there was a pregnant woman. When this baby was born the mother has no place to go. In 1942 she travel to Germany where someone stole her baby. The mother feel so sad and she missed her baby too much for this reason she went to the centre of police to search for her daughter. In 1946.The policeman told her that she grow up in a rich family. She started searching until she found her. In 1989 after 56 years and they lived happily till the end.

T13. For a long time, a women was living in a bad situation doesn't had home.The women had a baby. One day, someone stolen her baby and left her alone. The women went to the policemen to complain in order to return back he baby. After a long time, the women became lived with a big and famous familly but she didn't fogot her girl. One day the policemen called her and told your girl is here, found her lived with a big man and women.Finally the women found her girl and had 20 years ago, lived with her mother just two years after that the young little girl married. And lived in happiness with his husband and her mother also.

T14. In Russia in 1941 there is a women that is pregnant. Her situation in her country is not so well. In 1942 in Germany the baby was took away and the mother returns home without her child. She told her husband about what happens. Day by day the family forget the baby. But the mom don't she always think about her. And imagine her in every place. In 1963 she find some photos that's remember her of her girl and find a number with them. She called the number and she found her after 56 years and they lived in happiness.

T15. The year was 1941 as armed forces invaded Russia. A pregnant woman was worried about her future and the future of her soon to be born child .Not too long after that the woman grave birth to little girl. But the city where she lived was destroyed by the war. So the woman bad no choice. But to escape to protect her child's life. When the woman reached the borders with Germany her child was taken away from her and she was forced to proceed alone in her journey .After years of roaming alone

in binks and cities destroyed by the war the woman entrusted an officer to give her news if he finds them about her daughter.

Post-test

TS 1. Once a time, there is a beautiful men he went to get married. But he didn't found a girl to complete his life with her. So in a day his friend tel him where are you going to merried? So he said I don't know. After that they suggest for him to choose a wife from the bridal contest on 13th of June. And he agreed about that. After that he stay alone and imagine his wife and how she will be. Then he go with his friend and ask them: will you choose a wife for me? They say yes we will do that. After a day one of his friend tell him today is the light of something serious it is your partner of life. He go to the bridal contest with his friend and they found a beautiful wife for him. Then they go and married with each other and they are so beautiful and go to their house and live with each other in happiness.

TS 2. Mark is a worker in a company who has a lot of friends who keep asking him about his marriage date, and that makes him feel annoyed at first. But he put the idea of marriage in his mind and he choosen the 13th of June. The date of bridal contest to get married. He started preparing and sharing invitation with his friends. Suddenly, he remembered that didn't find a bride yet. So he start thinking and dreaming about her all the time. After two days. Mark went to his father and uncls and he asked them to be with him in the bridal contest in order to choose him a bride. His father remembered him about the importance of the idea and insisted on him to be serious. They went to the contest and he succeeded to find a beautiful wife named Sarah by the help of his friends and family. After that they get married and lived happily ever after.

TS 3. Once upon a time, there was an elegant and handsome man who called John. He was decided to marry. But he didn't find a good bride in his city to continue his life with. So, he went to another place to search for a perfect girl. When he arrived to a small village he met a group of men in coffee. He asked them for one beautiful and serious woman "please, do you help me to find a good girl" Then, they told him "we think that you may find your perfect bride here". John was very happy. He

started to dream “Dear are you beautiful! Are you generous?”. He decided to marry on 13th June.

After he suddenly saw an attractive girl with gorgeous smile. Then, they lived happy.

TS 4. Once upon a time, there was a handsome guy named Charlie. His conditions allow him to get married. He used to work in a big company for clothes. One day he starts thinking about marriage. When he was at word he heard his friends talking about a bridal contest soon. He went to the office that organized this competition and take an invitation for this contest. Charlie start dreaming how his bride lookslike is she beautiful, kind or not. After few week the big day will be soon and Charlie is very excited to meet his wife. The day 13 from June has arrived. He wear elegant and chic clothes and went to the contest. Their he see a beautiful girl with a long hair and a wonderful red dress standing alone. He decide to go and speak with her so much both of them like each other and decided to complete their life together. They married in a very simple wedding in a small house and Charlie was very happy with his wife Anne.

TS 5. Once upon a time, a man decided to marry. But the problem that he didn't found a perfect women to marry her. He was thinking and imagining his future wife. Then, he told his friends to choose for him a beautiful wife and her friends found to him a beautiful women. He married this women. Finally, he lived in a small house which is full of happiness..

TS 6. In a happy house lived a men with his small family. He has a lot of friends. In one day this men want to married. But he did not find the wife. So the friends of this men decided to choose for him a good wife every one choose. The men did not accept any wife for this choosen from friends just a wonderful, beautiful and attract woman. So the men decided to get married with his perfect woman. So his friends go with him to choose a day for married and choose a large place. Finally he get married with the woman that he wish and he do a perfect wedding. Then he lived the perfect days with his wife.

TS7. Once upon a time their was a men descuss the topic of marriage with his friends. He decide to married in 19 June. But the problem is that he did not found a wife yet. His friend are not agree with her for this decision because they think that the marriage is something seious and their friend is just

joking because he fixed the date of weding. But don't fond the wife. But one day they found his wife of dream and he married her and together they live happy ever.

TS 8. There was a man in the age of married. Every one asked him when he got married and he was disturbed. One day he went to his friends and gave them invitations about a bridal contest. It was on 13th June. He started thinking about his future wife. How she looks like!, Before the date of the bridal contest he asked someone to choose a wife for him from the bridal contest and this person told him to be serious. The date of the bridal contest is coming. He looked for a wife, he found a beautiful one then he got married with her. And they live happily ever after.

TS 9. Many people always ask a man about his married and the question was when are you going to get married?, The man felt stressed and choose a day and sent an invitation to them to attend the bridal contest to choose with his a wife and he was all the time imagine her wife how was looked. The man came and told his friends the date and it was on June, 13. One of his friends told that this made light of something serious and it's not a joke. The bridal contest was ready and all the unmarried women came and choose a wife for his. The day of the hitch is the bridegroom and the bride became wedded and lived in happiness with each other.

TS 10. One day Toby got fed up of his friends question that they keep asking about when he will get marry. So he decided to set the date of wedding. He prepared for easy thing. But there was something mesing. When he gave his friends the wedding invitation they asked him about the chosen one. Toby told his friend that he didn't chose his wife yet and that he need their help to find a future wife. So they suggest on him to sign for the bridal contest but he needed to be serious about it. So when the day of the contest came up he won on beautiful wife and he married her. And they lived happily ever after.

TS 11. When day a youth the family deside him that to get married which select day marriage 13 June. But the bride no found which deside his family that choose a wife and taking point of view with his, this time the bridal contest he found the suitable wife which marriage with together and they lived happiest life forever.

TS 12. When a man is going to get married or decide to get married. He tells the other people about his decision. Then he identify the day of marriage on 13th of June and make invitation for them. And he starts imagining his bride with white dress. Then he goes to ask people to help him in shoosing a wife for him. These people high of something serious. And when the date of the bridal context come, the man could find the best wife for him, they married each other. And they live in happiness forever.

TS 13. One day, a man asked his friends. He want to married but I didn't find the girl who married her. After that he can make time for his marriage and start preparing the invitations. The men still imagine his future wife. One other day, he went to another men and asked him to choose a wife for him. The other men accept his bunned and tell him you must come for bridal contest and he came and can married with a good wife.

TS 14. There is a man who want to married. But he didn't find a woman to married her. Some friends of his sugest to do that there is a bridal contest on 13th June. He start dreaming about his partner lifer. He asked his father to choose with he a wife. Is the day of bridal contest there are many beautiful girls with wonderful dresses. He try to find the beautiful one. Ohh finally,he find her and he made a beautiful marriage and they live in happiness.

TS 15. John is a young man in the prime of his life. While all his friends are married, he was the only one of them who was single. Because of that John's friends always bugged him to get married, asking him when will get married every time they meet. After a period of thinking John came up with a plan to get the perfect partner. First, he bought the wedding rings, and then he set the date for the wedding day and prepared invitations and gave them to his friends. The only thing tha was missing was the most important. The bride, but John was not worried because he set up a bridal contest on the day of the wedding. John then asked his friends to choose a bride for him. The friends were surprised and took the matter seriously. On the contest day, the friends interviewed the competing girls one by one. After choosing the perfect bride in their opinion. They held a wedding ceremony for John and his bride which was the perfect woman for him. And they lived happily ever after.

APPENDIX E

3.4.2.1.3.1 The Paired Sample t-test

a) Paired t-test for Same-Task Repetition Frequencies

$$t = \frac{(\sum D) \setminus N}{\sqrt{\sum D^2} - \frac{(\sum D)^2}{N}} \over N - 1(N)$$

$$t = \frac{30.71/15}{\sqrt{464.89} - \frac{943.10}{15}} \over 15 - 1(15)$$

t=1.47

b) Paired t-test for Task-Type Repetition Frequencies

$$t = \frac{(\sum D) \setminus N}{\sqrt{\sum D^2} - \frac{(\sum D)^2}{N}} \over N - 1(N)$$

$$t = \frac{32.14/15}{\sqrt{206.90} - \frac{1032.97}{15}} \over 15 - 1(15)$$

t=2.67

c) Paired t-test for Same-Task Repetition Ratios

$$t = \frac{(\sum D) \setminus N}{\sqrt{\sum D^2} - \frac{(\sum D)^2}{N}} \over N - 1(N)$$

$$t = \frac{\frac{2.38/15}{\sqrt{3.73} - \frac{5.66}{15}}}{15 - 1(15)}$$

t=1.25

d) Paired t-test for Task-Type Repetition Ratios

$$t = \frac{\frac{(\sum D)\setminus N}{\sqrt{\sum D^2} - \frac{(\sum D)^2}{N}}}{N - 1(N)}$$

$$t = \frac{\frac{0.17/15}{\sqrt{1.12} - \frac{0.49}{15}}}{15 - 1(15)}$$

t=0.14

3.4.2.1.3.2 The Unpaired Sample t-test

The calculation of the unpaired t-test value or statistic value goes through a number of procedures as the following:

a) The Identical Task Repetition Frequencies of Post-test Means is:

$\sum x_1 = 423.58$. \sum refers to the summation of x_1 .

$$\bar{x}_1 = \frac{\sum x_1}{N_1} = \frac{423.58}{15}$$

$$\bar{x}_1 = 28.57$$

b) The Task-Type Repetition Frequencies of Post-test Means is:

$\sum x_2 = 337.68$

$$\bar{x}_2 = \frac{\sum x_2}{N_2} = \frac{337.68}{15}$$

$$\bar{x}_2 = 22.51$$

c) The Identical task Repetition Ratio of Post-test Means is:

$\sum x_1 = 22.71$. \sum refers to the summation of x_1 .

$$\bar{x}_1 = \frac{\sum x_1}{N_1} = \frac{22.71}{15}$$

$$\bar{x}_1 = 1.51$$

d) The Task-Type Repetition Frequencies of Post-test Means is:

$\sum x_2 = 18.59$

$$\bar{x}_2 = \frac{\sum x_2}{N_2} = \frac{18.59}{15}$$

$$\bar{x}_2 = 1.23$$

e) The Standard Deviation (SD)

f) The Squared Sum ($\sum x^2$) of Frequencies of Same-Task Repetition

$$\sum(x1)^2 = 147830.27$$

g) The Squared Sum ($\sum x^2$) of Frequencies of Task-Type Repetition

$$\sum(x2)^2 = 29014.37$$

h) The Squared Sum ($\sum x^2$) of Ratios of Same-Task Repetition

$$\sum(x1)^2 = 274.90$$

i) The Squared Sum ($\sum x^2$) of Ratios of Task-Type Repetition

$$\sum(x2)^2 = 172.62$$

3.4.2.1.3.3 The Difference between the Post-tests of both Same-Task and Task-Type Repetition

Same-Task VS Task Type Repetition Frequencies

$$\sum Df_1 = 85.9$$

$$\sum Df_1^2 = 2403.54$$

Same -Task VS Task-Type Repetition Ratios

$$\sum Df_2 = 4.12$$

$$\sum Df_2^2 = 11.97$$

$$N = 15$$

Frequency t-test

$$t = \frac{M_{X1} - M_{X2}}{\sqrt{(\sum x_1^2) - (\frac{\sum x_1}{N})^2 + \sqrt{(\sum x_2^2) - (\frac{\sum x_2}{N})^2}}} \cdot \frac{1}{N_1} + \frac{1}{N_2}.$$

$$t = \frac{28.25 - 22.51}{\sqrt{147830.27 - 816.24 + \sqrt{29014.37 - 506.70}}} \cdot \frac{1}{15} + \frac{1}{15}$$

$$t_{28} = 0.22$$

Ratio t-test

$$t = \frac{M_{X1} - M_{X2}}{\sqrt{(\sum x_1^2) - (\frac{\sum x_1}{N})^2 + \sqrt{(\sum x_2^2) - (\frac{\sum x_2}{N})^2}}} \cdot \frac{1}{N_1} + \frac{1}{N_2}.$$

$$t = \frac{22.71 - 18.59}{\sqrt{274.90 - 2.28 + \sqrt{172.62 - 1.51}}} \cdot \frac{1}{15} + \frac{1}{15}$$

$$t_{28} = 0.02$$

Resumé

Différents types d'exercices sont utilisés pour promouvoir l'apprentissage des langues dans l'enseignement des langues basé sur les exercices. la répétition de l'exercice contribue à aider les apprenants à améliorer leur performance. La présente étude vise à étudier e l'efficacité de répéter l'exercice sur la expression écrite de l'étudiant et si la répétition des exercices écrits contribue à améliorer l'écriture des élèves en termes de complexité, de précision et de volubilité. Les données sont recueillies à l'aide d'un questionnaire adressé à 10 enseignants qui ont enseigné l'expression écrite au département d'anglais, Université Mohamed Essedik Ben Yahia, Jijel. En outre, une quasi-expérience a été menée avec deux groupes d'étudiants de deuxième année de la même université, l'échantillon est constitué de 30 étudiants par groupe. Les résultats obtenus à partir du questionnaire des enseignants démontrent que la majorité des enseignants soutiennent la répétition de même exercice en classe et ils affirment que cette répétition contribue à développer l'écriture des élèves. De plus, les chercheurs se sont appuyés sur une analyse de test t afin de tester la validité des résultats obtenus à partir de la quasi-expérience qui n'étaient pas statistiquement significatifs. En d'autres termes, la répétition de la même tâche ou d'un même type de tâche n'améliore pas la compétence d'écriture des élèves. Sur la base de cette analyse, les deux hypothèses ont été rejetées. Cependant, les résultats obtenus à partir d'une répétition de tâches identiques ont augmenté en termes de fréquences de fluidité (mots, verbes), de précision (mots et articles corrects) et de complexité (mots lexicaux et adverbes). De même, les résultats obtenus à partir de la répétition du type de tâche ont augmenté en termes de rapports de fluence (mots par phrases) et de complexité (Mots lexicaux par mots, Conjonctions par phrases et phrases passives).

Mots clés: TBLT, répétition des exercices, répétition le même type d'exercice, répétition des exercices, deuxième performance, mesures CAF, précision, volubilité.

الملخص

يعتبر تكرار التمرين ذو فعالية كبيرة حيث يساهم في تحسين أداء التلاميذ بشكل كبير. تهدف الدراسة الحالية الى بحث وتفصي مدى فعالية وتأثير تكرار التمرين على تنمية مهارات الكتابة لدى الطلبة هدا من جهة، ومن جهة اخرى ما إذا كان تكرار التمرين الكتابي ذو تأثير على كتابة التلاميذ من حيث التعقيد والدقة والطلاق او لا. تم جمع البيانات من خلال استخدام استبيان تم تقديمها إلى 10 اساتذة يدرسون مقياس التعبير كتابي او لهم خبرة معترفة في هذا المجال ويشغلون مناصب في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية بجامعة محمد الصديق بن يحيى، جيجل. علاوة على ذلك، أجرنا شبه تجربة مع مجموعتين من طلاب السنة الثانية في نفس الجامعة حيث تكون عينة الدراسة من 30 طالبا. اسفرت النتائج المتحصل عليها من استبيان الأساتذة أن غالبيتهم يدعمون تكرار نفس نوع التمرين في الفصل وادعوا أن هذا التكرار يساهم في تحسين كتابة الطلاب. قام الباحثون أيضا بالاعتماد على اختبار احصائي يتمثل في t-test لاختبار صحة النتائج التي تم الحصول عليها من شبه التجربة التي اثبتت ان النتائج ليست ذات دلالة إحصائية. على أساس هذا التحليل تم رفض الفرضيتين. وبالتالي، فإن تكرار نفس التمرين من حيث طلاقة (الكلمات و الافعال) دقة (الكلمات وادوات التعريفات المستعملة بطريقة صحيحة) و تعقيد (الحقل الدلالي و الظروف). كما ان النسب المتحصل عليها بعد تكرار نفس نوع التمرين ارتفعت من حيث طلاقة (مجمل الكلمات على اجمالي الجمل) و كذا تعقيد (الكلمات الدلالية على مجمل الكلمات و مجمل الروابط على العدد الا جمالي للجمل و الجمل المبنية للمجهول).

الكلمات المفتاحية: تكرار نفس التمرين، تكرار نفس نوع التمرين، الأداء ثانٍ، الدقة، التعقيد والطلاق.