

UNIVERSIDAD DE GRANADA



TEACHER TRAINING ON TBLT: A STUDY WITH PRE-SERVICE EFL PRIMARY TEACHERS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF GRANADA

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DEDICATION

I dedicate my dissertation work to my family and many friends. A special feeling of gratitude to my loving parents, Leila and Abdel Allatif whose words of encouragement and push for tenacity ring in my ears. My sisters Ilhem, Soumia and Meriem who have never left my side and are very special. I also dedicate this dissertation to my beloved brother Amine who have supported me throughout the process. I dedicate this work and give special thanks to my supervisor Dr. Raúl Ruiz Cecilia for helping and guiding me throughout the entire doctorate program. I also dedicate this work to my dearest nephews Iheb and Aylan and my niece Cyrine. I finally, dedicate my graduation to everyone who accompanied me along my research journey.

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Abstract

The current thesis seeks to explore the efficacy of a task-based language teaching (TBLT) programme in influencing Spanish pre-service EFL teachers' knowledge and beliefs regarding teaching English by using tasks. Despite the sheer amount of research and empirical evidence for the adequacy of TBLT, findings demonstrate that the implementation of TBLT in classrooms is not always successful in different language classes worldwide (Adam & Newton, 2009; Butler, 2011, 2017; Thomas & Reinders, 2015), and also show teachers' low understanding of TBLT and lack of awareness regarding using this approach in their classes. These factors are the main reasons behind undertaking this research and make it a valuable topic to advance in this research context.

This is a descriptive exploratory study that uses mixed methods: a questionnaire with Spanish primary-education in-service EFL teachers (Spanish in-service teachers) and an experiment with student teachers in their final year at Granada University. Data was collected from a sample of 76 Spanish primary-education in-service EFL teachers from primary schools in Granada. The sample comprised 16 male and 60 female teachers, both senior and junior; and 55 pre-service teachers across two groups, consisting of an experimental group (13 males and 16 females) and a control group (12 males and 14 females). Following this, only six pre-service teachers continued the research during their three-month school placement at primary schools in Granada, in order to study in depth the effects of the introduction of a subject on task-based language teaching (TBLT) in the teacher-training programme for pre-service EFL teachers in their final (fourth) year of study. The research process thus passed through three phases.

Phase One started first by investigating evidence about Spanish in-service EFL teachers' knowledge and attitudes regarding the use and application of TBLT in Spanish EFL classes. The teachers answered a questionnaire, which consisted of 17 items and was divided into 4 sections. The findings indicate that the Spanish in-service teachers (SITs) generally had favourable attitudes towards TBLT, even though some of the teachers still had a low understanding and cognition of TBLT. They agreed that teacher training in using TBLT is very important for both in-service and pre-service teachers and could contribute to spreading this approach in Spanish EFL classes. Moreover, the results demonstrate that the gender, age and academic qualifications of the teachers have no significant effect on teachers' knowledge, beliefs and opinions towards using TBLT, in contrast to teachers' teaching experience, which had a remarkable effect on Spanish in-

service teachers' acceptance or rejection of using tasks in their classrooms. The findings also reveal significant discrepancies between the teachers' perceptions of TBLT and their actual practices.

In Phase Two, evidence of student teachers' understanding and ability to design and teach a task-based lesson was investigated after the completion of the TBLT module in the teacher-training programme. The experiment lasted for approximately three months, twice a week and two hours for the theoretical session (Mondays), and one hour and half for the practical session (Wednesdays). For the latter, we opted for a pre-test and post-test group research design and lesson plans designed by the Student Teachers (STs). Although the teaching training module was the same, the two groups learnt differently: the control group did not learn about TBLT whereas the experimental group did learn about TBLT. The findings for the experimental group showed that the TBLT training module had a better impact on the understanding and implications of TBLT among the STs who learned about TBLT (experimental group) than those that had the teaching training without TBLT (control group). However, most of them showed a favourable disposition towards TBLT at the theoretical rather than at the practical level. Moreover, a comparison between the two groups revealed that TBLT knowledge affects STs' beliefs and attitudes towards accepting or rejecting TBLT in their classes. At the end of the training, all the STs from the experimental group were generally able to plan a lesson reflecting TBLT principles, although there was some limited comprehension and application of task features in authentic EFL classrooms.

Phase Three encompassed carrying out case studies of six of the STs from the experimental group, who undertook a one-semester school placement in different primary schools in Granada. During the teaching placement, lesson planning and presentation data was gathered using a reflective questionnaire (after planning and presenting the first task-based lesson) and a training impact interview (after the whole teaching placement). The data demonstrates how the STs' knowledge, teaching beliefs and practices progressed over these two phases, in addition to the teaching and learning aids and obstacles they have encountered during their teaching that constructed their acceptance or rejection of TBLT.

Based on the conclusions drawn from the research, this study enriches the field of TBLT research at the theoretical and practical level by shedding light and increasing

awareness on the methods through which TBLT is presented in pre-service teacher education in a framework that has not been discussed or comprehended previously. The results presented in this study prove that TBLT training is considerably productive in influencing both STs' comprehension and teaching process, with a tangible improvement when implementing it in their school placement.

Keywords: Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), teacher education, Spanish pre-service primary teachers, language teaching, EFL

Resumen

La tesis actual surge del interés por explorar la eficacia del programa de enseñanza basado en tareas para influir en el conocimiento y las creencias de los profesores en formación de inglés como lengua extranjera en España y sus creencias sobre la enseñanza del inglés mediante tareas. A pesar de la gran cantidad de investigación y evidencia empírica de la idoneidad de TBLT, los hallazgos demuestran que la implementación de TBLT en las aulas no siempre es exitosa en diferentes clases de idiomas de todo el mundo (Adam & Newton, 2009; Butler, 2011, 2017; Thomas & Reinders, 2015) así como la poca comprensión de los profesores de TBLT y la falta de conciencia sobre el uso de este enfoque en sus clases. Estos factores son las principales razones para que esta investigación se ha llevado a cabo y la convierte en un tema valioso para avanzar en este contexto de investigación.

Se trata de una investigación exploratoria descriptiva que utiliza métodos mixtos: un cuestionario con docentes de inglés de educación primaria en ejercicio y un experimento con profesores en formación en su último año en la Universidad de Granada. Los datos se recopilaron de una muestra de 76 docentes españoles en ejercicio en Granada, incluyendo a 16 profesores varones y 60 mujeres, tanto senior como junior; y un número de 55 profesores en formación en dos grupos. Un grupo experimental (13 hombres y 16 mujeres) y un grupo control (12 hombres y 14 mujeres). A partir de este momento, solo seis profesores en formación continuaron la investigación durante sus prácticas escolares de tres meses en las escuelas primarias de Granada. Con el fin de estudiar en profundidad los efectos de la introducción del enfoque basado en tareas (TBLT) en el programa de formación de docentes de inglés como lengua extranjera que se encontraban en su último (cuarto) año de estudios. El proceso de investigación, entonces, pasó por tres fases.

La fase uno comenzó primero investigando la evidencia sobre el conocimiento y las actitudes de los profesores de EFL en servicio hacia el uso y aplicación de TBLT en las sus clases. Los profesores respondieron el cuestionario que constaba de 17 ítems y estaba dividido en 4 apartados. Los hallazgos indicaron que los docentes generalmente tenían actitudes favorables hacia TBLT a pesar de que algunos de los profesores todavía tienen poca comprensión y conocimiento de TBLT. Estuvieron de acuerdo en que la formación docente en el uso de TBLT es muy importante tanto para los profesores en servicio como

para los profesores en formación y puede contribuir a difundir este enfoque en las clases de inglés como lengua extranjera. Además, los resultados demostraron que el género, la edad y las calificaciones académicas no tienen un efecto significativo en el conocimiento, las creencias y las opiniones de los maestros sobre el uso de TBLT en contraste con la experiencia docente de los maestros, lo que tuvo un efecto notable en la aceptación o el declive de los docentes en servicio en el uso de tareas en la enseñanza. Los hallazgos también reflejan discrepancias significativas entre las percepciones de los profesores sobre TBLT y sus prácticas reales.

La fase dos desarrolló el experimento en el que el investigador investigó evidencia de la comprensión y capacidad de los estudiantes en formación para diseñar y enseñar una lección basada en tareas después de completar el módulo TBLT en el programa de capacitación docente. El experimento tuvo una duración aproximada de tres meses, dos veces por semana, con dos horas para la sesión teórica (lunes) y una hora y media para la práctica (miércoles) en la que el investigador optó por un diseño de investigación grupal pre-test y post-test y unidades didácticas diseñadas por los estudiantes. Aunque el módulo de teórico fue el mismo, los dos grupos aprendieron de manera diferente. El grupo control no aprendió sobre TBLT mientras que el grupo experimental aprendió sí lo hizo. Los hallazgos para el grupo experimental mostraron que el módulo de capacitación TBLT tuvo un impacto en la comprensión y las implicaciones de TBLT de los que aprendieron sobre TBLT (grupo experimental) mejor que los estudiantes que tenían la capacitación docente sin TBLT (grupo control). Sin embargo, la mayoría de los maestros en formación habían mejorado su disposición favorable hacia TBLT en el nivel teórico más que en el práctico. Además, la comparación entre dos grupos reveló que el conocimiento de TBLT afecta las creencias y actitudes de los maestros en formación hacia la aceptación o rechazo de TBLT en sus clases. Al final de la asignatura de formación, todos los estudiantes del grupo experimental pudieron, en general, planificar una lección que reflejara los principios de TBLT, aunque hubo cierta comprensión y aplicación limitadas de las funciones de las tareas en aulas auténticas de inglés como lengua extranjera.

La fase tres abarcó estudios de caso de seis de los maestros en formación del grupo experimental que estaban realizando sus prácticas de tres meses en diferentes escuelas primarias de Granada. A lo largo de las prácticas, se recopilaron datos sobre la planificación y la presentación de las lecciones mediante un cuestionario reflexivo

(después de planificar y presentar la primera lección basada en tareas) y una entrevista de impacto de la capacitación (después de finalizar sus prácticas). Los datos demuestran cómo el conocimiento, las creencias y las prácticas de enseñanza de estos docentes en formación progresa en estas dos fases, además de las accesibilidades y restricciones que construyeron su aceptación o rechazo de TBLT.

Al final de este trabajo de investigación, y según las conclusiones extraídas, este estudio enriquece el campo de la investigación TBLT a nivel teórico y práctico al brindar conciencia dentro de los métodos a través de los cuales se presenta TBLT en la formación inicial del profesorado en un marco que anteriormente no ha sido discutido o comprendido. Los resultados presentados en este estudio demostraron que la introducción al entrenamiento de TBLT fue considerablemente fructífera para influir en la comprensión y el proceso de enseñanza de los maestros en formación, lo cual supuso una mejora palpable a la hora de implementarlo en el aula durante su periodo de prácticas.

Palabras clave: Enseñanza de idiomas basada en tareas (TBLT), formación del profesorado, profesores de primaria en formación, enseñanza de idiomas, EFL

TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of abbreviations	XVI
List of acronyms	XVII
List of figures.....	XVIII
List of tables	XIX

CHAPTER I: BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1. Introduction	2
1.1. Background of the study	2
1.2. Problem statement.....	3
1.3. Purpose statement	4
1.4. Research hypotheses	6
1.5. Objectives	6
1.6. Research questions.....	6
1.6.1.Phase one: Investigating teachers’ knowldege and tendency towards TBLT .6	
1.6.2. Presenting a TBLT training module in the 4-year teacher education program	7
1.6.3.Phase three: Implementing TBLT approach in the school placement	8
1.7.The research significance.....	8
1.8.Dissertation structure	9

CHAPTER II: THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2. Introduction	12
2.1.Foreign language education in Spain	12
2.2.English education in Spain	125
2.3. Teaching from theory to practice.....	199
2.3.1. The impact of teacher education on teachers’ and student teachers’ beliefs	21
2.4. Historical Background of task-based language teaching	23
2.5. The task-based curriculum.....	288
2.6. Task-based language methodology of teaching.....	30
2.7. Course design in TBLT	33

2.7.1. Pre-task	297
2.7.2. Task-cycle	378
2.7.3. Post-task	388
2.8. Types of tasks	39
2.8.1. Jigsaw task	45
2.8.2. Information-gap task	445
2.8.3. Problem-solving task	455
2.8.4. Decision-making task	456
2.8.5. The opinion-exchange task	456
2.9. The difference between ‘task’ and ‘exercise’	478
2.10. Thematic Background Study	49
2.11. Training the EFL teachers	56
2.12. Task-based teaching and teacher education	59
2.13. Teachers’ roles in task-based methodology	61
2.14. Teachers’ training and teachers’ performance	65
2.15. Teachers’ performance and practical knowledge	656
2.16. Teachers’ performance in task-based lessons context	657
2.17. Conclusion	668

CHAPTER III: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3. Introduction	71
3.1. Research standard	71
3.2. My research paradigm	733
3.3. My Research design	744
3.4. Context of the study	755
3.4.1. Research location and period	755
3.4.2. Research participants	756
3.4.3. Research instruments	78
3.5. Data collection process	782
3.5.1. Phase one: Conception	82
3.5.2. Phase two: Experiment	83
3.5.2.1. The pre-test:	83

3.5.2.2. The experiment:	84
3.5.2.4. The post-test:	85
3.5.3. Phase three: School placement	85
3.5.3.1. Training impact interview data analysis method	86
3.6. Data analysis procedures	89
CHAPTER IV: RESULTS OF THE STUDY	
4. Introduction	91
4.1. Results of the first tool (phase 1)	91
4.1.1. Teachers' demographic statistics (section 1)	91
4.1.2. Teachers' knowledge of TBLT (Section 2)	92
4.1.3. Teachers' views on implementing TBLT (Section 3)	95
4.1.4. Teachers' reasons towards using or avoiding TBLT (Section 4)	97
4.1.5. Teachers' teaching training experience (Section 5)	98
4.1.6. Teachers' special recommendations for TBLT implication in Spain (Open question)	100
4.2. Results from the experimental tool (phase 2)	103
4.2.1 Pre-service teachers' demographic information	103
4.2.2. Pre-test analysis of experimental and control groups	104
4.2.3. Post-test analysis of experimental and control groups	105
4.2.4. Comparing experimental group's knowledge and understanding of TBLT prior and after the training	106
4.2.5. Comparing control group's knowledge and understanding of TBLT prior and after the training	107
4.2.6. comparing experimental group's views on TBLT implementation before and after the training	108
4.2.7. Comparing control group's views on TBLT implementation before and after the training	109
4.2.8. Comparing experimental and control groups' opinions of an appropriate TBLT training	110
4.3. The analysis of the TBLT training and school placement lesson plans (phase 3)	114
4.3.1. Lesson plan 1 'Sports'	114

4.3.1.1. Analysis of lesson plan 1 ‘Sports’	115
4.3.2. Lesson plan 2 ‘country, flats and language’	117
4.3.2.1. Analysis of lesson plan 2 ‘country, flats and language’	117
4.3.3. Lesson plan 3 ‘Team sports’	12020
4.3.3.1. Analysis of lesson plan 3 ‘Team sports’	12020
4.4. Analysis of the school placement lesson plans and reflective questionnaires ...	122
4.4.1. Lesson plan 1 ‘what’s your favorite sport?’	122
4.4.1.1. Lesson plan 1 presentation: Descriptive narratives	1223
4.4.2. Lesson plan 2 ‘Andalucía Landscape’	126
4.4.2.1. Lesson plan 2 presentation: Descriptive narratives	1228
4.4.3. Lesson plan 3 ‘My musical taste!’	13131
4.4.3.1. Lesson plan 1 presentation: Descriptive narratives	122
4.4.4. Lesson plan 4 ‘Traditions from weird to wonderful!’	135
4.4.4.1. Lesson plan 1 presentation: Descriptive narratives	12237
4.4.5. Lesson plan 5 ‘How do I get there?’	140
4.4.5.1. Lesson plan 1 presentation: Descriptive narratives	12240
4.4.6. Lesson plan 6 “Animals around the world!”	14243
4.4.6.1. Lesson plan 1 presentation: Descriptive narratives	12243
4.5. Training impact interview results	146
4.6. Concluding remarks	146
CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS	
5. Introduction	156
5.1. Discussion of the first tool (phase one)	156
5.2. Discussion of the experimental tool.....	156
5.2.1. TBLT training course and pre-service teachers’ learning	16162
5.2.2. Discussion of pre-service teachers’ lesson plans.....	162
5.3. Conclusion	169
CHAPTER VI: CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATION	
6. Introduction	171
6.1. Summary of key findings.....	171

6.1.1. Phase one	171
6.1.2. Phase two	171
6.1.3. Phase three: Applying TBLT in the teaching practicum	172
6.2. Conclusion	174
6.3. Implications	174
6.3.1. Reflection for in-service teachers	176
6.3.2. Reflections for pre-service teachers.....	177
6.4. Recommendations.....	178
6.5. Research limitations.....	181
6.6. Further research	182
6.7. Observaciones finales	182
REFERENCES	171
APPENDICES.....	217

List of abbreviations

BOE Boletín Oficial del Estado

CLT Communicative Language Teaching

EFL English as a Foreign Language

ELT English Language Teaching

ESL English as a Second Language

FLL Foreign Language Learning

FLT Foreign Language Teaching

LOMCE Ley Organica para la Mejora de la Calidad Educativa

L1 Mother tongue

L2 Foreign language

SIT Spanish In-service Teachers

SLA Second Language Acquisition

ST Student Teachers

TBLT Task Based Language Teaching

List of acronyms

CEFR Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

CLIL Content and Language Integrated Learning

ICT Information and Communication Technology

LOMCE Ley Orgánica para la Mejora de la Calidad Educativa

PETALL Pan-European Task Activities for Language Learning

TALIS Teaching and Learning International Survey

List of figures

Figure 1: Teachers' and students' actions resulting in classroom interaction (Branden, 2006 p.402).....	19
Figure 2: An example of one-way task suggested by Levkina (2014)	41
Figure 3: Example of two-way task adapted from Mackey (1999).	41
Figure 4: Focused and unfocused tasks adapted from Ellis (2003) and Willis (2007)....	42
Figure 5: The process of carrying out a learning task	43
(adapted from Clark, Scarino & Brownell, 1994, p. 41)	
Figure 6: Constructivist research paradigm designed by the researcher	74
Figure 7: The summary of the three phases for the data collection process.....	86
Figure 8: Training impact interview data analysis method	87
Figure 9: Teachers' demographic statistics	92
Figure 10: Teachers' reasons to use TBLT	97
Figure 11: Teachers' reasons to avoid TBLT	98
Figure 12: Gender experimental and control group.....	104
Figure 13: Control group age.....	104
Figure 14: Experimental group age	104
Figure 15: The mean of pre-test scores for experimental and control groups	105
Figure 16: The mean of post-test scores for experimental and control groups	106
Figure 17: Experimental group's understanding and knowledge of TBLT.....	107
Figure 18: Control group's understanding and knowledge of TBLT	108
Figure 19: Experimental group's views on TBLT implementation	109
Figure 20: Control group's views on TBLT implementation	110
Figure 20: Experimental and control groups' concerns of appropriate TBLT training period	111

List of tables

Table 1: Language teaching methodological principles description and implementation	
33	
Taken and modified from Doughty and Long (2003, p.52).	
Table 2: Ellis' framework for designing task-based lessons (2003 p.80)	36
Table 3: The TBLT framework (Willis, 1996, p. 132)	36
Table 4: The four components of the task framework	42
(Clark, Scarino & Brownell, 1994, p.40)	
Table 5: Types of tasks by (Pica, Kanagy, and Falodun, 1993; Willis, 1996; Nunan, 2001)	44
Table 6: Concise analysis of positivism, constructivism and pragmatism	72
adapted from Crotty (1998) and Patel (2015).	
Table 7: The participants' number and gender	77
Table 8 : Participants' socio-demographic information	77
Table 9: The schedule of the use and distribution of the research instruments	78
Table 10: The dates of the practical lessons during the TBLT training course	84
Table11: A sample of the qualitative data analysis procedures	88
Table12: Teachers' demographic statistics	92
Table 13: Teachers' Knowledge of TBLT according to their teaching experience.	94
Table 14: Teachers views on implementing TBLT	95
Table 15: Teachers' Reasons to Use TBLT	97
Table 16: Teachers' Reasons to Avoid TBLT Implementation	98
Table 17: Teachers' Teaching Training Experience	99
Table 18: Analysis of themes from open question (Question number 17)	102
Table 19: Pre-service teachers' demographic information	103
Table 20: The mean of pre-test scores for experimental and control groups	105
Table 21: The mean of post-test scores for experimental and control groups	106
Table 22: Paired sample t-test results comparing experimental group's understanding and knowledge of TBLT	107
Table 23: Paired sample t-test results comparing control group's understanding and knowledge of TBLT	108

Table 24: Paired sample t-test results comparing experimental group’s views on TBLT implementation	109
Table 25: Paired sample t-test results comparing control group’s views on TBLT implementation	110
Table 26: Experimental and control groups’ concern of appropriate TBLT training period 111	
Table 27: Experimental group pre and post-test desired improvement.....	112
Table 28: Control group pre and post-test desired improvement	113
Table 29: Experimental and Control groups’ suggested topics	113
Table 30: TBLT-based lesson plan of student teachers 1 and 2.....	116
Table 31: TBLT-based lesson plan of student teachers 3 and 4.....	119
Table 32: Student teachers 5 and 6 TBLT training lesson plan.	121
Table 33: Student teacher 1 school placement lesson plan	125
Table 34: Student teacher 2 school placement lesson plan	130
Table 35: Student teacher 3 school placement lesson plan	135
Table 36: Student teacher 4 school placement lesson plan	139
Table 37: Student teacher 5 school placement lesson plan	142
Table 38: Student teacher 6 school placement lesson plan	145
Table 39. TBLT training and school placement lesson plans analysis.....	154
against Ellis 4 task features	

CHAPTER I
BACKGROUND OF THE
STUDY

1. Introduction

This introductory chapter sets the stage for the study by giving an overview of Spain's English language teaching and teacher education. The provided information portrays why this study is needed. The goal of the present research is described and justified and the research problem and purpose statement are outlined. This is followed by research questions, hypotheses, and research objectives. The chapter continues with the research significance and closes by presenting the dissertation structure.

1.1. Background of the study

English has an international role unlike other languages in the world. In Europe, this emergence influences the Europeans in daily language use. English is strongly present in Spain, as it is in the rest of world. Historically, French was taught in Spain as the first foreign language. However, nowadays, English has invaded the Spanish educational system, replacing French as the first foreign language in Spain. Lorenzo (1996, p.17) stated that English has taken the first position and French is ranked in the second position in comparison to the 1950s where English was not mandatory and was taught to a minority of students (5%), while above 90% of students learned French and considered it as the first foreign language in Spain. In order to promote the learning and teaching of English in Spain, much focus should be placed on the different teaching methodologies and practices used by teachers at all stages and levels. In primary and secondary schools, the most widely used approaches to the teaching of EFL is communicative methodology although teachers are free to choose.

According to Lujan (2009), the Organic Law on the Improvement of the Quality of Education (LOMCE, 2013), or Law on Education in Spain (2006) insist that students learn the foreign language communicatively and through real-life contexts. This offers a broad pedagogical framework for syllabus designers and teachers wishing to plan useful, beneficial lessons for students, rather than focusing on the Spanish language in isolation of other foreign languages. English has imposed itself on the Spanish society and among the youth. As stated in the Spanish Official State Newsletter (Boletín Oficial del Estado, 2015), in order to improve students' communicative competence, learning must be based on tasks, projects, problems solving and adopt methodologies and approaches that support this type of learning. This law paved the way for the introduction of the use of task-based

language teaching in Spanish schools and commands EFL teachers to adopt this approach in their teaching process.

Task-based language teaching (TBLT), a popular communicative approach in recent years, prioritizes the use of relevant tasks and the language practiced in the classroom. Often defined as an active communicative approach, the focus of the lesson is not grammar or vocabulary, but on the task itself, in its practical application. Many scholars and practitioners have advocated that its directed attention to the task is its strength, however this study posits that in terms of the existing research, this has also been its shortcoming. Much focus is given to the application and use of TBLT in university EFL contexts whilst the primary EFL environment is comparatively neglected. There is a lack of investigation into the effectiveness of TBLT in primary EFL classes, particularly focusing on how primary EFL in-service and pre-service teachers implement this approach in the 21st century classroom. This gap provided the idea of this research topic, emerged to give space to pre-service teachers to speak openly about their teaching knowledge of appropriate teaching methodologies, and expectations for the future.

It has been suggested that several aspects impact on what teachers believe, and in turn, on how these beliefs influence classroom practices (Borg, 2009; Pajares, 1993; Phipps & Borg, 2007). Johnson's (1994) and Numrich's (1996) studies claimed that teachers are strongly influenced by the beliefs that have been shaped by their own learning and pre-teaching knowledge. To enhance the use of TBLT in various EFL/ESL classes, inclusive of primary EFL classes, a set of criteria affecting the implication of this approach, rather than the task, should be taken into consideration. Examples of such considerations include the perceptions of pre-service teachers of this approach and their tendencies and decisions towards this approach. It is worth mentioning the developing resources available, particularly those generated by the European funded project *Pan-European Task Activities for Language Learning* (PETALL). The project aims to afford teachers with good examples of good forms and methods to teach using Information and Communication Technology (ICT) and tasks in approximately ten countries around Europe. So, this will help me structure part of the actions I intend to take regarding the use of tasks with pre-service primary teachers.

1.2. Problem statement

The last few years has seen a growing interest in language teaching using effective communicative approaches. The headline ‘task-based language teaching’ has gathered much attention as a controversial approach among TBLT advocates and researchers. It is believed that such approach has a fundamental effect on teacher teaching competence (Borg, 2003). Therefore, language teachers play an important role in the positive or negative results of knowledge dissemination (Markee, 1997; Borg, 2003; Van den Branden, 2009; Ellis & Shintani, 2014). Thus, developing and enhancing the teachers’ competences is a must and all ministries of education, schools and education policymakers should take into consideration the role of both pre-service and in-service teachers, taking measures to boost their performance through training programmes, for instance. In this respect, there is still a need for deeper research into pre-service teacher beliefs (Peacock, 2001) and for more discussion regarding tools for evaluating the educational impact of the pre-service teacher (Zanata, Birello & Borg, 2014) and the impact of teachers’ training on their self-performance and actions. The situation became more aggravating when it comes to Spain. Unfortunately, even though the declaration of the Spanish Ministry of Education stated the need for teachers to use the current communicative teaching approaches in their classes (BOE, 2015, p. 6991), there are few empirical studies to date that have embodied such topic of research. Moreover, through some research about task-based language teaching predominantly with in-service teachers, researchers found that teachers lack confidence in conducting English lessons and have doubts about their success in using TBLT in their classes (Kusumoto, 2008; Jeon & Hahn, 2006). The urgent need for training teachers using TBLT was emphasised. Nevertheless, there is scant research into the use of TBLT in teacher training and how such method can be applied in EFL teacher training courses (Robinson, 2011; Klein & Riordan, 2011). Task-based training, as a research field was largely neglected and remains out of the educational research (Van den Branden, 2009). Therefore, in order to reach the literature review and demonstrate the importance of task-based training programmes for primary pre-service EFL teachers in Spain, the current study addresses this problem and intends to investigate the impact of task-based training on the primary pre-service EFL teachers’ performance.

1.3. Purpose statement

In recent years, a debate has been raised over which approaches to structuring, planning and implementing lessons are more effective for language learning. According to Robertson (2014) task-based language teaching has become increasingly recognized as an effective pedagogy. This approach was firstly developed by Prabhu (1987) in Bangalore, Southern India. Prabhu assumed that learning may be more efficient if students' attention is directed to the task, they are learning instead of the language used in the classroom. In line with this, it is commonly documented that language acquisition is a multifaceted practice and successful in comprehensible settings. As stated by Lujan (2009) English is the most studied language in Spain where it is optional at age three and mandatory at age six. Thus, this research will be conducted with pre-service teachers who teach English to young learners, an age some communities in Spain give much interest to with regards to teaching English.

The region of Andalucía is a community with an encouraging programme which is being presented by the Spanish Ministry of Education (BOJA, 2015). TBLT is increasingly disseminating and in recent years has been implemented in many countries such as Argentina, China, France, Spain, Germany and Vietnam, among others (East, 2013). However, it is important to note that most tasks used in the research studies have been practiced in non-authentic classroom settings (Shehadeh & Ellis, 2009; Van den Branden, 2006). The researcher believes that since most research studies focused on TBLT and the adult ELT context, the task based as a teaching approach provides the primary pre-service teachers chances to consider their positions and duties as future teachers, strengthen their teaching knowledge, plan, present and practice communicative tasks planned mainly for elementary learners. It equips future teachers with a worldwide method from the onset of their careers rather than requiring change further down the line.

The degree of teacher performance might be affected by a range of factors and in turn, rotate and change the scales. The work and performance of teachers come under scrutiny from multiple agencies resulting in EFL teachers encountering troubles and issues in their teaching with the students, the school administration, the subject, the parents, themselves as teachers and many other issues (Chang & Goswami, 2011; Wang & Cheng, 2009; Dang, 2006). Others face difficulties in differentiating a task from an activity (Shehadeh & Combe, 2012). In this respect, the purpose of the research is to raise awareness among pre-service EFL teachers to the use and integration of this method in

their teaching. This purpose takes into consideration the thoughts and concerns revealed during the researcher's background interview by some primary EFL teachers in primary public schools in Granada, Spain. These teachers claimed that they are aware of the changes that occur in teaching and wished they had received training about the different teaching approaches prior to starting their teaching career. They expressed desire to be updated and reach the students' language needs that are changing over time. Therefore, very few studies have addressed the impact of pre-service teacher opinions and outlooks regarding their teaching career and performance. Thus, awareness building is considered key, calling on pre-service teachers to reflect upon teaching experience and prospective teaching futures. The teacher who wants to implement TBLT successfully, is required to have sufficient methodological knowledge related to lesson planning, presentation and assessment and be strongly confident and competent (Jeon & Hahn, 2006).

1.4. Research Hypotheses

The hypotheses that will be tested in the present study are as follows:

HYP. 1: The researcher hypothesizes that Spanish EFL in-service teachers have a satisfying knowledge and positive attitude towards TBLT approach.

HYP. 2: The researcher hypothesizes that there will be a significant difference between control and experimental groups results at the achievement level.

HYP. 3: The researcher hypothesizes that TBLT module has an impact on the pre-service teachers' disposition towards TBLT and lesson plan design processes and practices.

HYP. 4: The researcher hypothesizes that pre-service teachers' understanding and teaching practices change during the school placement.

HYP. 5: The researcher hypothesizes that pre-service teachers' experience of TBLT, as a university subject and a teaching approach in authentic classrooms, will provide opportunities for them to learn experientially what contributes to boosting pre-service teachers' beliefs and performance.

1.5. Objectives

All previous research studies have shown and posed the problems encountered by teachers in a task-based lesson but have yet to present solutions or practices. Thus, the gap between literature and practice is recognized, but no research practices have emerged.

For this reason, the general objective of this research is to explore the Spanish EFL teachers' knowledge and understanding of TBLT (phase one) and to investigate whether the PTs are able to convert the knowledge of TBLT, learnt in a TBLT education programme, (phase two) into their teaching practice in the following school placement (phase three).

Importantly, the study aims to rigorously examine the effect of TBLT training on the understanding and teaching practices of the 4th year teacher students (Degree of Education). Thus, this study directed its focus to investigate:

- 1) The extent to which Spanish in-service teachers support or oppose the use and application of TBLT in the Spanish EFL classes.
- 2) The extent to which a TBLT training module can influence the PTs' cognition and teaching practices in authentic language.
- 3) The preparedness of these junior teachers in converting TBLT standards into their teaching actions.

1.6. Research Questions

The research's main objective was to investigate the impact of the Spanish primary pre-service EFL teachers' training in TBLT pedagogy, measure the student teachers' beliefs, knowledge and attitudes towards TBLT and their preparedness for using such an approach in their future teaching experience. Therefore, for the purposes of this research, the following questions and sub-questions have been posed:

RQ1: What knowledge and beliefs do primary EFL teachers have of TBLT? (re phase one: Investigating teachers' knowledge and tendency towards TBLT using a questionnaire)

RQ2: What understandings do primary pre-service EFL teachers have of TBLT training sessions? (re phase two: Presenting a TBLT training module in the 4-year teacher education programme):

- What are their perceptions and attitudes towards the TBLT training sessions?
- How comfortable do primary EFL pre-service teachers feel with a particular approach like TBLT?
- How can a methodological training like TBLT help elementary pre-service teachers in the lesson planning and presentation process?

RQ3: What learning outcomes from the TBLT training sessions are reported by primary EFL pre-service teachers? (re phase three: Implementing the TBLT approach in school placement):

- How did the pre-service teachers' cognition of TBLT and their teaching actions shift during the school placement?
- What are the pre-service teachers' impressions and reflections in planning and presenting a task-based lesson in authentic classrooms?
- Do the former beliefs of primary EFL pre-service teachers change during and after the TBLT training sessions?

1.7. The research significance

The present study is conducted in order to switch research objectives about TBLT from process-oriented approach to classroom-based research alongside teacher training as indicated by Van den Branden (2007). In this research, I focus on pre-service teachers' interaction during task performance by giving value to the participants' beliefs and performance in a task-based lesson. However, the purpose of the current research is to enlighten the research topic of TBLT in Spain, specifically with the Spanish primary EFL pre-service teachers. Clarification of the student teachers' understanding and attitudes regarding TBLT shows the issue from in-service teachers' perspective to provide a general overview of the research topic from both sides. Consequently, this study's main significance is the collaboration between the researcher and the participants. This cooperative effort attempts to co-author useful TBLT training guideline that may be helpful to school leaders, university teachers and curriculum designers when making decisions about training pre-service and in-service teachers. These guidelines work towards to building of TBLT knowledge for pre-service training and continued professional development opportunities within schools. Moreover, this study is designed to be a leading tool for related contemporary and future research for the pre-service teachers' sector. A methodological framework for analysing a task-based lesson plan is provided, adapted and modified from a selection of methodology and task advocators such as Daughy and Long (2009) and Ellis (2003, 2009). Fundamentally, this study counts on reaching the literature, enriching it with meaningful data in relation to pre-service teacher performance, development and preparedness as novice EFL/ESL teacher.

It is hoped this research will empower educators and educational decision-makers to consider the pre-service teacher and training when thinking about ways to improve the quality of language teacher education programmes.

1.8. Dissertation structure

The present dissertation is organized into six chapters. In the current chapter the problem and purpose statements have been presented to show the gap in the existing knowledge of this topic and describe the main goals and aims of the research project, followed up by three research questions, sub-questions, hypotheses and objectives. The chapter closes by explaining the significance and value of the research.

The literature review features in the second chapter, focusing on the relevant literature that serves this research project and pours into the topic area. The presented literature shows a deep gap concerning this type of research which highlights the need for a comprehensive analysis of task-based training in relation to primary EFL pre-service teachers around the world, and in Spain in particular. This chapter collects information, evidence and facts about TBLT in relation to pre-service teachers. This chapter arrives at the conclusion that such topics are very sensitive and delicate areas for investigation and shows how such a global research topic is needed to inform and illuminate task-based training comprehension.

The methodology procedures of the research and the process of the study is presented and explained in the third chapter. It lists the research phases, which comprises the research (location, participants, period, tools, the procedures of the data collection and data analysis). The chapter closes with the different assumptions proposed by the researcher and the concluding points in the dissertation.

The fourth chapter is dedicated to data analysis with the three main research questions and sub-questions analysed and answered methodically, consistently based on the data analysis ethics. The research discussion is further elaborated in chapter five, providing detailed explanation of all the research findings.

In the last chapter of this dissertation, Suggestions and Recommendations, the implications and the final conclusions were presented. The researcher shares reflective thoughts of TBLT training and the methodology used within this study. Implications of this study for research into task-based language training and English language teaching

as a foreign language are explored and detailed. More importantly, the researcher reserved this chapter to introduce a ‘guide’ for training the pre-service teachers for used and development in the future. In particular terms, this chapter demonstrates how the research findings are informative about the task-based training programme and the Spanish primary EFL pre-service teachers and ends by providing a set of recommendations for possible future research.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2. Introduction

This chapter reviews the existing literature in the four main areas of research that serve the study, namely: pre-service teacher education, pre-service teacher action (performance), TBLT, and the impact of training on pre-service teachers' cognition. To start with, I provide an overview of the status of teaching EFL in Spain, followed by the literature on relationship between teacher education and cognition and its impact on teachers' beliefs and practices. Then, I discuss the literature on language teacher training and its impact on pre-service teacher education. Next, I focus on the literature by providing the theoretical background and research on TBLT in Spain and worldwide concentrating on pre-service teacher education and/or teacher cognition and TBLT. Finally, I highlight the use of this analysis in my present investigation.

2.1. Foreign language education in Spain

This section traces a general overview of foreign language teaching in Spain. For a century and a half, English studies were conducted using different methods that represent different cultural and pedagogical tendencies. To understand them better, it is necessary to know the environment in which they settle because, when we speak of the learning of foreign languages, we do not refer to the majority of the population but to a minority engaging in secondary or higher studies (Menéndez, 2011).

Historian Manuel Tuñón de Lara and the data provided in *Spain of the Nineteenth Century* help to paint the academic picture in Spain between 1859-1860. Records show 1,024,882 students in Spain across public and private elementary schools (from a total of 2,500,000 school children), failing to complete their studies. 'Of those, almost half abandoned the courses ahead of time to help their parents'. In the last 28 years (between 1880 and 1908) they had increased by 8% while the population had increased by 20%. In 1887, 71.5% of Spaniards could not read or write. In 1900, illiteracy had dropped to 63.79%; in 1910 it was still 59.79% and in 1920 it was 52.23%. Considering the Moyano Law of 1857 established compulsory education up to the age of 9, condemning parents not sending their children to school, these figures are significant.

Education in Spain started to make headway and much attention was given to this field. In recent days, the teaching of languages in Spain has gained much interest despite

not having a first-rate record throughout history (Monterrey, 2003; Sánchez, 1992). The Central School of Languages in Madrid (*Escuela central de Idiomas* in Madrid, 1911), stated that by the 20th century, the teaching and learning of foreign languages has been raised and given importance as language institutions started to give specific importance to overseas languages, enhancing research and language studies, in addition to the requirement of both senior and junior teachers to keep up with all that is new in the teaching and learning field (Departments of present day Philology at the colleges of Madrid, 1954; Salamanca , 1952, 1954; Barcelona,1955).

The ‘General Law of Education’ in 1970 (*Ley General de Educación*) was the unequivocal point for venturing forward in the methodological updates of foreign language teaching. This law established compulsory education until the age of 14. With this law, the entire instructive framework was reformed, from pre-school to university education, adapting it to schooling needs (BOE, 1970). However, the teaching and learning of English did not properly obtain any particular emphasis until the 1970s, whilst Spain unfolded to Europe and initiated an important economic improvement. In doing so, the instruction of languages in Spain involved the teaching method that was common, at that time, in the United States and was well implanted in western Europe (audio-lingual). Therefore, the audio-lingual method was distinctly considered by teachers as the method that the schools should follow. Teaching languages using this method requires teachers to intensify the practice of linguistic and syntactic structures, neglecting the practice of reading and writing skills after finishing a minimum of six classes following the onset of oral learning (BOE, 1970). However, the audio-lingual method principles, that were put into action for teaching foreign languages in primary education, received a barrage of negative feedback and critiques that paved the way for the emergence of a new teaching approach, the so-called Communicative Language Teaching (CLT).

As explained by Criado and Sánchez (2009), the teaching and learning of the four skills became the central aim in this approach, and the term ‘communicative’ started to be embedded itself in language teaching contexts. In 1975 the Spanish Ministry of Education and curriculum designers committed the field of ‘language teaching’ to expanding the Spanish learners’ ability in speaking and comprehending the language effectively. The aim of this decision is to help students acquire and command the language

communicatively in which the learner can conduct conversations with no constraints or language barriers.

Spain has always endeavoured to develop the teaching of foreign languages at all educational levels through frequent new legislations and reforms, inclusive of primary education. In order to better comprehend the process of foreign language education at elementary level in Europe, and in Spain in particular, it is beneficial to turn to the European Commission report (2015). The report came with new reforms such as those executed in 2002 urging the teaching of foreign languages in elementary education. Thus, as soon as European member states agreed on the necessity to teaching foreign languages from an early age, Spain declared new educational reforms aligned with this new reform (Caraker, 2016). As a result, Spaniards started gaining knowledge of English at age six and Spain was regarded as one of the first European countries who acknowledged the inclusion of teaching a foreign language in early education. These changes and reforms were done so that the methodologies to teach and learn foreign languages in Spain paralleled the new European emerging approaches at that time. The Ley Orgánica, executed in 2002, established a new requirement stating that elementary students had ‘to be able to communicate fluently in one or more foreign languages’ (*Expresarse con fluidez en una o más lenguas extranjeras*) (Criado & Sánchez, 2009). On the other hand, the communicative learning of a foreign language in secondary education was still more obviously associated with a student’s general communicative competence, requiring highly developed skills so that they are able to communicate effectively in one or more foreign languages and have knowledge of other cultures (BOE, 2002). In that case, despite the fact that CLT approach is more complicated than the audio-lingual method in terms of application, this was greatly acknowledged and authorized by the end of the 20th century.

Thus, Spain has dedicated the European protocols that intended at promoting plurilingualism and raising awareness of the importance to learn foreign languages. In deep, Spain has shifted as one of the European commanders in content and language integrated learning (CLIL) improvement that has been portrayed as ‘the growth industry of educational linguistics’ (Coyle, 2010). In approximately all European countries, schools provide a form of education provision according to which non-language subjects are taught either through two different languages, or through a single language which is

‘foreign’ according to the curriculum. This is known as CLIL. Of European countries, only Denmark, Greece, Iceland and Turkey do not make this kind of arrangement (European Commission, 2015). Spain’s affluent cultural multiplicity has made foreign language education in general, and CLIL policies and practices in the country hard to represent in simple provisions. In order to better comprehend CLIL in Spain, it is recommended to take into consideration that Spain contains 17 independent Autonomous Communities governed by the Organic Law Education 2/2006 (Ley Organica de Educación LOE 2006). While the Organic Act of Education creates a framework for the educational system of the country at a national level, the independent regions readjust and accustom this law to their corresponding districts which make various EFL/CLIL models overall Spain. The Spanish model can be as a good example for many European and non-European countries desiring to promote foreign language learning and teaching as well. Albeit CLIL samples in Spain vary from one region to another, they can be split into two principal frameworks: monolingual areas and bilingual areas (Coyle, 2010). Monolingual areas are those in which Spanish is the official language, and education is done in Spanish and one or two foreign languages as dictated by CLIL. Bilingual communities symbolise those where Spanish is the official language in combination with another co-official regional language, specifically Basque, Galician, Catalan and Valencian. Both co-official languages in these regions are applied in the classrooms, plus one or two foreign languages when applying the CLIL methodology. CLIL has been viewed as the outstanding approach to widen multilingualism in both the monolingual and bilingual regions in Spain since the bilingual communities have had years of practice accommodating two languages into the curriculum, and this knowhow has enabled them to transfer their experience to monolingual communities. Therefore, priority has been given to CLIL in enhancing multilingualism in Spain, even though not all communities apply it in identical manner.

2.2. English education in Spain

English has now become a lingua franca and its use shifted from a privilege use to being a fundamental need for all-sector development, particularly in education. This is the reason why English has gained worldwide importance (Zirene & Dios, 2013). As in the past, French was taught in Spain as the first foreign language. Nowadays, the first

foreign language studied in the great majority of Spain is English. In the early 1950s, English, an optional foreign language at schools, was secondary to French with a total of 90 per cent of students studying French. Unexpectedly, the equation flipped, and English took first place, displacing French to second choice (Lorenzo, 1996).

The importance of English is clearly reflected in the educational field. Therefore, the implementation of the EFL starts from elementary education. Bilingual education as a new trend for teaching was adopted and English was given importance as the key element for the success of bilingual education. The growing demand of parents interested in having their children study in a second Language has sparked the emergence of bilingual schools in Spain. The introduction of English for early age students is the biggest future bet of the education system. Being bilingual involves managing two linguistic codes with the same efficiency. And to be bilingual, many experts point out that immersion in the language is necessary before six years of age, because at twelve years of age, learning falls more in memorizing the language. Studying in English before that age can mark the difference between having an advanced knowledge of the language or being bilingual (Master, 2009). Bilingual education is an educational system in which two languages are used as a teaching instrument, of which normally, although not always, one is the first language of the students (Siguan & Mackey, 1986).

In Spain, the first measures in the adoption of bilingualism as a model of education date back to 1996, the year in which an agreement supporting bilingual schooling programme in Spanish public schools was signed between the Ministry of Education and the British Council. This agreement was intended to enhance bilingual education through the provision of an adequate Spanish-British curriculum, from 3 to 16 years old (Agreement MEC-British Council, 2014). Due to the notorious rise of foreign languages in the current society, primary education teaching is one of the objectives of the acquisition of at least one foreign language. Royal Decree 1513/2006, of 7 December, insists on developing foreign language education at the primary education. This Royal Decree (2006) called for the acquisition of at least one foreign language and improvement of students' communicative competence that allows them to express and conduct everyday conversations. In primary education students should be capable of performing the foreign language and this can be achieved by giving students the opportunity to take part in their learning.

English status in Spain is not yet stable. Despite studying this language for more than 10 years in elementary and high schools, getting students to reach the university with an acceptable command of English is still a headache for those responsible for public education policies (Mariscal, 2014). Only 13 per-cent of Spanish students have an intermediate level of English by the end of their high school. Therefore, it is confirmed that in Spain, although English is imposed as a compulsory language in both elementary and secondary schools, Spanish students still have trouble speaking and using the English accurately. In line with this, Alcon (2017) claims that this inability to master the language drives Spanish students to refuse to learn any foreign language, considering the action of learning a foreign language as a waste of time and something worthless.

In this vein, García (2009) sees the teaching of English a fundamental need in the development of primary education by obtaining learners with a good communicative competence in that language. Thus, it is not enough to teach vocabulary and grammar of the language. Instead, teaching must centre around applying those words and grammatical expressions appropriately and fluently in real-life contexts and daily life situations. For this, it is the school itself (and the teacher) who must devise their own strategy of action and follow some basic guidelines. From Kristina Cunningham's point of view, Head of the Multilingualism Unit of the European Commission (2017), Spain's main problem with languages is the 'lack of competence' of the teaching staff. Additionally, all measures aimed at improving the quality of teaching are welcome, but until Spanish language teachers spend time abroad, their ability to teach will be reduced (Menárguez, 2017). Thus, a short-term solution could be the participation of teachers in the Erasmus programmes, which includes the exchange of teachers between European centers or collaborative work. In 2015, a total of 8,994 teachers and 3,273 European schools participated in activities related to mobility between countries (Menárguez, 2017). On the other hand, as it was mentioned above that CLIL had a fundamental role in the introduction of foreign language teaching in Spain. English education through CLIL in Andalucía and the Madrid independent regions where CLIL is to some extent a contemporary teaching-learning event. In 2005, the Andalusian authority conceived a language policy in line with the instructions of the EU that bounded a set of blueprints. The most important among them was that up to 40% of the content of the school curriculum could be taught in English, the utilization of native speakers, and continuous assessments of results and mobility

(Lorenzo, 2010). However, there was genuine anxiousness among teachers that there would not be able to transfer the whole content because of the use of the second language in the classrooms. Native speakers, from their sides, transported the opportunity for learners to form their learning over native models and permit teachers to practice their English and ameliorate their levels. Additionally, native teachers are considered as a resource for the creation of authentic teaching materials, which had been a time-consuming task for the teachers. Assessment pursued the codes of CEFR that supplied ‘a more manageable, compartmentalized description of skills development’ (Lorenzo, 2010, p. 2). Corresponding to Dafouz and Llinares (2010), 30% of the Madrid curriculum must be in English and a maximum of 50%. This explains that 8 hours is taught in English, 3 hours are committed to language study and 3 hours are dedicated to another subject. Mathematics and Spanish must be taught in the students’ native language. Specialized teachers are being recruited.

All in all, in order to promote the learning and teaching of English in Spain, much focus should be done on the different teaching methodologies and practices used by teachers in all stages and levels. In primary and secondary schools, the most widely used approaches to the teaching of EFL is communicative methodology although teachers are free to select their preference. The scene is, therefore, eclectic. Most Spanish classrooms make little use of newer technological resources (internet, CDs, etc.). The most widely used variety of English is British English and the most commonly used types of texts are those included in the textbooks themselves (Permingo, 2009). According to Lujan (2009), one of the rules sustained by the Organic Law on the Improvement of the Quality of Education (LOMCE, 2013), or Law on Education in Spain (2006), is the case of making students learn the foreign language from real-life situations and tasks. This may give a broad scope for syllabus designers and teachers for designing and planning useful and beneficial lessons for students, rather than using the Spanish language alone, and chiefly English, has become crucial for Spanish students. Accordingly, English is no longer an option but a must for the contemporary Spanish student. As stated in the Spanish Official State Newsletter (Boletín Oficial del Estado, 2015), in order to improve students’ communicative competence, learning must be based on tasks, projects, problems solving and adopt methodologies and approaches that support this type of learning. This law paved the way for the introduction of the use of more communicative methodologies in

Spanish schools and command EFL teachers to adopt these active approaches in their teaching process.

2.3. Teaching from theory to practice

The definition of ‘belief’ remains relative and beliefs on their own are neither visible nor measurable (Borg, 2012). In the context of education, the lens needs to home in on teachers’ educational beliefs and practices within the class and how they interpret their beliefs through their actions (Borg, 2006; 2012). Pajares (2009) was the first to give a definition to teachers’ educational beliefs and viewed that the major gap of educational beliefs is that these beliefs are vast and difficult for teachers to interpret. Pajares’ definition was joined by all of Clark and Peterson (1986) and Kagan (1992) who described teachers’ beliefs as teachers’ acceptance and expectation of their own teaching that may affect their teaching knowledge and goals. As teachers’ educational beliefs have a crucial impact on the educational process, Kuzborska (2011) accentuates the value of comprehending the relationship between beliefs and practice for boosting teachers’ professional preparedness. Broadly speaking, the main focus of any teacher is to create a forceful and positive learning atmosphere in their class. With this, teachers perform and act correctly and more cautiously in the classroom in order to construct an interactive learning process between the teacher and the learners as it is shown in figure 1 (Van den Branden, 2006).

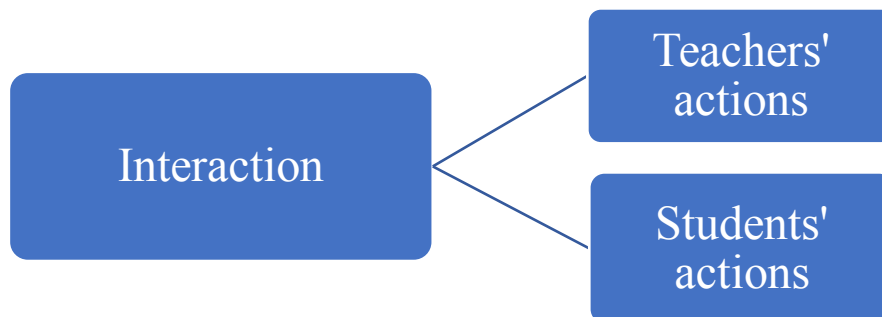


Figure 1. Teachers’ and students’ actions resulting in classroom interaction (Branden, 2006, p. 402).

In his explanation, Van den Branden (2006) claims that teacher interaction in the class is not often connected to what they know or believe but often a response to what is happening in the class at the time, based on what actions can be realized. However, several

studies, over the past decades, have investigated the interactive relationship between teachers' knowledge and classroom practices in the field of language teaching (Bailey 1996; Bartels 1999; Borg, 2003, 2006, 2009, 2012; Breen 1991; Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver & Thwaite 2001; Burns 1996; Gatbonton 1999; Golombek 1998; Johnson 1992a; Lam 2000; Nunan 1992; Richards 1996, 1998a, 1998b; Richards, Li & Tang 1998; Smith 1996; Ulichny 1996; Woods 1991, 1996; Zheng, 2015; Zhu, 2018). The provided results from the prevailing literature demonstrate that language teachers' classroom practices are formed by a broad spectrum of reciprocal actions that may happen in the classrooms. On the other hand, Van den Branden (2006) claimed that research studies have related teachers' actions to what they already know about the teaching profession (e.g., education, school context, language curriculum and language learning). In this respect, researchers affirm the available interactive relation between teachers' cognition and teachers' action in the classroom. It is believed that actions are formed and performed by the actions and vice versa (Breen et al., 2001; Fang; 1996). Therefore, a crucial issue in this taxonomy is the main reason and motive that drive teachers to behave in an exceptional manner in the classroom (Van den Branden, 2006). Thus, light should be shed on teachers' training for either pre-service teachers (student teachers), novice teachers or in-service (experienced) teachers to measure the impact of such training on the teachers' professional development and how this progress influence their productivity in the educational process.

As it is discussed in the literature, beliefs should be searched attentively, wary of their elusive, deep-seated and non-measurable nature (Pajares, 1992). Therefore, various studies have been carried out to assess both in-service teachers (Çabaroglu, 1998; Mattheoudakis, 2006; Aulls & Ibrahim, 2012; Debreli, 2011, 2012) and review the role of training for reconstructing these beliefs and perceptions. Despite that, pre-service teachers' beliefs have dominated interest in this field of research (Debreli, 2012) whereas experimental-based research about the impact of training on teachers' cognition and action are rather modest (Van den Branden, 2006). In this respect, studies that have been conducted with mainly in-service teachers revealed that teachers' decisions are largely dependent on their own educational experiences (Clarck & Peterson, 1986; Lortie, 1975; Richards, 1998; Borg, 2011, Xiong, 2016).

2.3.1. The impact of teacher education on teachers' and student teachers' beliefs

Beliefs are described as the focal point in establishing the teachers' behaviours and actions (Rokeach, 1986). A set of empirical studies have specifically studied the impact of training programmes on teachers' cognition and action (Borg, 2006). In a Flemish study conducted by Peeters and Van den Branden (1991, 1992) proposed in-service training showed the tendency of the in-service trainers to complain about the theory aspect of the course, rather than the practice. In other studies, conducted by Borg (2011); Busch (2010); Deberli (2012) and Xiong (2016), it was confirmed that in-service teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning EFL changed among teachers during a teacher education programme. The lack of research on the impact of training on the in-service teachers' beliefs in the course of history is noticeable (Borg, 2011), but studies continue, gathering contradictory results. Thus, worldwide research projects were ranked according to the research settings and findings in relation to in-service teachers. Firstly, studies that demonstrated little and scanty changes of beliefs (Lamb, 1995). Secondly, those proving evidence of notable impact (Lamie, 2004; MacDonald, Badger & White, 2001; Çabaroglu & Roberts, 2000). The remaining studies collectively concluded that beliefs may change in different manners among teachers according to their foundational beliefs but were all resulting from pre-service teachers' research.

Proceeding from the unsatisfactory results generated (Van den Branden, 2006) about in-service teachers' perceptions following training, and despite the numerous studies operated in this field, there is still need for advanced research about pre-service teacher beliefs (Peacock, 2001) with deeper discussions about the tools for evaluating the educational impact of the pre-service teacher required within the literature (Zanata, Birello, Borg, 2014).

Within the last two decades, research into the impact of pre-service language teacher education has started to gain interest (Deberli, 2011). The mainstream literature backdates to the 1970s and up to the present day, substantial research has revolved around the beliefs pre-service teachers hold when attending a training programme, and to what extent these beliefs are changed along the training. Attention has consistently gravitated toward the interactive relation between the training and the pre-service teachers' beliefs.

In education, the prevailing research on the impact of training on pre-service teacher's education showed that in the 1990s interests were whether the education of pre-service teachers had a special effect on trainees or not where it is terminated by Richardson (1996) that 'teacher education has a frail mediation' (p.113). In today's research, pre-service teacher training may provide teachers with adequate empirical learning that help them relate theory to practice and apply their own experiences as learners in the training as future teachers (Hammond, 2006; Hammerness, et al., 2005). In this regard, it is ratiocinated that student teachers' language learning and teaching beliefs start increasing from their status as learners until they enter the educational teaching process (Freeman, 1992; Kagan, 1992; Vibulphol, 2004). This explains the influence of the teachers' educational background as learners on their teaching knowledge in the future and on the expected results of the training. Therefore, it is believed that pre-service teachers attend the teacher training with positive beliefs about teaching (Freeman, 1992; Kagan, 1992, Tatto, 1998) that they have acquired during their learning as students (Lortie, 1975). Therefore, results generated from the mainstream studies, which have emphasized the influential relation between the training and the trainees' beliefs, have been mixed and proven inconsistent. On one hand, some studies demonstrated little and scanty changes of beliefs and the training is not effectual (Borg, 2005; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Peacock, 2001; Pennington & Urmston, 1998). With those on the other hand proving evidence of notable impact (Bramald, Hardman, & Leat, 1995; Borg, 2006, 2009, 2011, 2012; Busch, 2010; Çabaroglu & Roberts, 2000; Debreli, 2012; Nettle, 1998; Yuan & Lee, 2014). Eventually, other investigations concluded that beliefs may change in different manners among teachers, according to their foundational beliefs and during the teaching experience (Löfström & Poom-Valickis, 2013; Özmen, 2012; Liu & Fisher 2006; Richards et al., 1996; Urmston, 2003; Debreli, 2012).

In general, the studies reviewed and summarized above demonstrate conflicting conclusions about the impact of training on both in-service and pre-service teachers' beliefs and how the pre-service teachers' beliefs should be followed. Various types of the proposed teacher education programmes may lead teachers to either accept or refuse to attend a teaching training. Thus, despite the diversity of conclusions and outcomes in this field of research, the common conclusion that can be proposed is that in one way or another, the pre-service teacher education impacts the teachers' beliefs when teachers are

aware of the opportunities provided by the training and, more importantly, the chance to link theory to practice (Zanata, Birello, Borg, 2014). Consequently, it appears that there is ambiguity regarding the impact of teacher training research and there is no rigid outcome on whether the training has no direct impact on the trainees or if the training misses a well-structured programme according to teacher educational and pedagogical needs. Thus, in order to clear this ambiguity from this area of research, supplementary empirical research is needed. The present research study therefore examines the pre-service teachers' beliefs and understanding through a task-based language education programme.

2.3. Historical background of task-based language teaching

With the arrival of the CLT approach in the early 80s and with greater stress on learners' communicative skills over the last 20 years, TBLT witnessed a soaring use within the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA). The concept emerged in order to create and design real communicative tasks that push learners for appropriate language use. TBLT also known as task-based language learning (TBLL) or task-based instruction (TBI) can be traced back to 'strong' communicative approach where teaching is delivered thoroughly through communicative tasks. The communicative approach was expanded from sociolinguistics in the mid-1970s, with its guiding principle emphasizing the prospect that there is a lot more to communication than just descriptive linguistics (grammar and vocabulary) (Harmer, 2008; Lightbown & Spada, 2013; Nunan, 2004). Nowadays, most teachers and students appreciate that for real communication tasks, it is not simply a matter of using communicative activities to activate passive knowledge of the language that has been pre-taught at an earlier stage.

Task-based language teaching's early appearances date back to 1979 and became a compelling subject in the area of second language acquisition (Hismanoglu, 2011). The term TBLT was linked to the Indian scholar Prabhu (1987) when he executed the 'Bangalore Project', in which he tried to experience a new teaching methodology in the field of second language teaching and learning. At first, the project introduced a set of tasks where students were asked to accomplish these tasks in a communicative way. This project is regarded as the first step towards the introduction of communicative tasks in foreign language learning and attracted much attention to this field (Ruiz-Cecilia, 2017).

Over the last decades, SLA researchers, teacher trainers, language teachers, etc. sought to make good use of TBLT in SLA classes (Ruiz-Cecilia, 2017). Proceeding from Prabhu's work, the term 'task' was largely defined, and scholars conflicted in representing and delineating this term.

In the eighties, it was believed that language learning is an enlightening process, embellishing learners' communication through real-life tasks rather than dealing with language learning as a rigid process. This point of view flourished and gave rise to various publications about TBLT as a new emerging communicative approach (Breen, 1987; Candlin & Murphy, 1987; Nunan, 1989; Prabhu, 1987). Additionally, during the nineties, TBLT structure was explored with attention given to the communicative classroom where a task-based lesson was based on a pre-task preparatory, task performance, and post-task (Crookes & Gass, 1993; Ellis, 2003; Estaire & Zanon, 1994; Skehan, 1996; Willis & Willis, 2007; Willis, 1996). As task-based approach has attracted distinct attention in the foreign language teaching field since the 1980s, the term 'task' has been described and interpreted by many researchers and scholars.

According to Prabhu (1987, p. 24), a task is 'an activity which required learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought and which allowed teachers to control and regulate that process'.

Long (1985) viewed a task as an instrument for handling learners' language process and defined it:

A piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward. Thus, examples of tasks include painting a fence, dressing a child, filling out a form, buying a pair of shoes, making an airline reservation, borrowing a library book, taking a driving test, typing a letter, weighing a patient, sorting letters, taking a hotel reservation, writing a cheque, finding a street destination, and helping someone across a road. In other words, 'task' refers to the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play, and in between. 'Tasks' are the things people will tell you they do if you ask them, and they are not applied linguists. (p. 89)

Candlin (1987) related task to learning-centeredness by defining it as:

One of a set of differentiated, sequencing problem posing activities involving learners and teachers in some joint selection from a range of varied cognitive and communicative procedures applied to existing and new knowledge in the collective

exploration and pursuance of foreseen or emergent goals within a social milieu. (p. 10)

In turn, some scholars considered a task as class work and defined it as:

‘a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward’ (Long, 1985, p.89).

‘a piece of work or an activity, usually with a specified objective, undertaken as part of an educational course, or at work’ (Crookes, 1986).

Breen comprehends task as ‘a range of work plans’ (1987, p.23). Similarly, in addition to defining ‘task’ as a work plan, some scholars pointed out the focus on meaning rather than form like Nunan (1989, p.10), who states that task is ‘a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form’. As a key scholar in TBLT, Skehan (1998, p. 95) noted four main criteria of a ‘task’: ‘(1) meaning is primary; (2) there is some sort of relationship to comparable real-world activities; (3) task completion has some priority; (4) the assessment of tasks is in terms of outcome’.

From another perspective, Ellis (1994) and Willis (1996) focused attention on the communicative goal of tasks by considering:

‘Some kind of activity designed to engage the learner in using the language communicatively or reflectively in order to arrive at an outcome other than that of learning a specified feature of the L2’ (Ellis, 1994, p. 595).

Willis (1996, p. 23) claimed that ‘a task can be defined as an activity where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose in order to achieve an outcome’. Coming at it from another angle, Richards, Platt and Weber (1986) and Ellis (2003) presented a pedagogical definition and stated that ‘task is an activity or action which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding the language’ (p.289). Ellis (2003) declared that ‘a task occupies a significant position in second language acquisition research and language pedagogy’.

Bygate, Skehan and Swain’s (2001) research on task is considered as one of the recent developments in TBLT. They revealed that a task ‘is an activity which requires learners to use language, with emphasis on meaning, to attain an objective, and that the central

challenge for language teaching is to develop learner's communicative language ability through pedagogic intervention with tasks accomplished' (p. 11).

All the definitions featured above share commonalities and collectively provide the consensus of task as a learner-centred pedagogical activity. In this outlook, the task has a particular communicative goal that focuses on meaning rather than the language structure. It creates opportunities for learners to participate in communicative tasks and contribute within real-life situations. In this respect, Ellis (2003) stated that for a language-teaching activity to be a 'task', it must accomplish the following criteria:

1. The primary focus should be on 'meaning' (by which is meant that learners should be mainly concerned with processing the semantic and pragmatic meaning of utterances).
2. There should be some kind of 'gap' (i.e., a need to convey information, to express an opinion or to infer meaning).
3. Learners should largely have to rely on their own resources (linguistic and non-linguistic) in order to complete the activity.
4. There is a clearly defined outcome other than the use of language (i.e., the language serves as the means for achieving the outcome, not as an end in its own right) (p.223).

In the sense of the above criteria, Ellis (2009, p.223) claimed that "tasks" can be either "focused" or "unfocused" with the latter referring to tasks created for learners to use language communicatively, in common situations, focused tasks are designed for specific communicative situations and satisfy all the four features stated above.

Despite the different viewpoints and the criticisms associated with TBLT as a communicative approach, advocates of TBLT agreed that this instructional approach attracts sociocultural theory and SLA theories like 'input-providing' or 'output-prompting' (Ellis, 2003a; Nunan, 2004a). Ellis clarified by explaining that in-put providing tasks engage learners in listening and reading, at the same time output-prompting tasks engage them in productive skills (speaking and writing). In this manner, a task can provide opportunities for learners to communicate in the four language skills. In his view, Krashen (1985) directed attention to comprehensible input asserting that for learners to acquire the target language at a higher level, they need to be exposed to the 'comprehensible input'. In this respect, Nunan (2004b) discussed

Krashen's "input hypothesis" noting that it has influenced TBLT in two substantial ways. Nunan claims that the message should be comprehensible, and learners should be exposed to meaning at an early age. In contrast, Long (1985) argued that comprehensible input alone is not sufficient to boost learners' language acquisition as Richards and Rodgers (2001) contradicted with the structural approach that provides learners with decontextualize linguistic features in the beginning of the lesson.

Face-to-face interaction in the target language is considered beneficial for learners' language proficiency enhancement; this argument is known as the 'interaction hypothesis' in TBLT (Long, 1985a, 1985b). The process of 'negotiation of meaning' is credited as pivotal in productive skills, by which the auditor necessitates the talker to adapt language codes intelligibly allowing the speaker to modify the conversation by him/herself. Talking about TBLT curriculum design and appropriate tasks integrated in the lesson, Long (1985) believed that negotiation of meaning and selection of tasks have a fundamental role in the addition of various tasks in the curriculum. In this respect, two-way tasks such as an information gap activity, can create more negotiation of meaning in comparison to one-way task. Nunan's (1991a) open and close tasks introduced are based on learners' intercommunication in the class. Basically, curriculum design and tasks selection in TBLT are affected by the Interaction Hypothesis theory that develop the negotiation of meaning.

A critical point to Krashen's 'comprehensible input hypothesis' was discussed by Swain (1985). She claimed that after providing her students with a certain amount of comprehensible input, they were still unable to use the language appropriately. She directed attention to 'comprehensible output', defined as 'a mechanism that enables learners to become aware of the linguistic gaps in their knowledge through noticing' (Swain & Lapkin, 1995). Swain's concerns are not only about providing comprehensible input tasks to learners but also the necessity of giving learners opportunities to take part in producing comprehensible language that contribute in the practical connotation for TBLT.

In view of all that has been mentioned so far, it is supposed that the different theoretical development of tasks and the Second Language Acquisition theories introduced above, play a crucial role in curriculum design and task selection in a TBLT lesson. In order to comprehend the relation between task-based curriculum and lesson

topic, the following section provides an in-depth description of curriculum, methodology and course design in TBLT.

2.5. The task-based curriculum

The process of teaching and learning is to share comprehensible knowledge with students in appropriate ways and in a well-structured manner where the teacher must follow an adequate curriculum (Ellis, 1988a). According to Armstrong (1989), a curriculum is a master plan for selecting content and organizing learning experiences for the purpose of changing and developing learners' behaviours and insights. In order to reach this purpose, the school curriculum should be divided into four basic elements: 1) programme of studies, 2) programme of experiences, 3) programme of service, and 4) hidden curriculum (Oliver, 1977). In this regard, Ellis (1988b) stated four leading hotspots in the process of developing school curriculum which are (1) information organized for study (that is, texts, curriculum guides, reference materials); (2) topical events which are external to the school (matters of interest, cross-cutting problems, unresolved issues); (3) the learner (his or her interests, needs, moods, and behaviours); and (4) the teacher (his or her experience, interest, needs). Occasionally, there will be apparent tension for the teacher on following one element more than another. These diverse hotspots for educational programmes call for various methods for sorting out the educational programmes and in-depth goals and objectives should be decided and restricted along the selected teaching method (Ellis, 1988b).

Task-based framework first appeared in the early eighties resulting from the failure of the previous traditional methodologies such as the Presentation, Practice, Production (PPP) model. The PPP model enabled students to use the language communicatively while neglecting completely the meaning (Willis, 1996a). In contrast, Prabhu (1987) gave main importance to language meaning rather than the grammatical form. Thus, the task-based framework differs from all the previous teaching methods which prioritised language form over meaning (Willis, 1996b).

Despite the modifications and compelling changes made to the task-based language curricula, these were at the theoretical and research level rather than practice (East, 2012). Thus, many language theorists have discussed the integration of TBLT in EFL classes and

designed different tasks to support the TBLT curriculum (Estaire & Zanon, 1994; Lee, 2000; Prabhu, 1987; Skehan, 1996; Willis, 1996)

In reference to the strong and weak interpretations of CLT syllabuses (Howatt, 1984; White, 1988) and TBLT (Skehan, 1996), Ellis (2003a) introduced two types of task-based curriculum (strong and weak task-based curriculum). By the same token, Ellis (2003b, 2013) elucidated a difference between task-based curriculum and task-supported curriculum. The latter is dependent on the use of tasks for performing pre-set linguistic features. On the other hand, task-based curriculum teaching content insists on the implication of tasks set apart from the linguistic statements. There was unanimity by the researchers agreeing that supported-based curriculum is in accordance with the traditional linguistic methods, relying on grammar linguistic features (Carless, 2004, 2009; Widdowson, 2003). Distinguishing further, Ellis (2003a) claimed that ‘in the case of task-supported language teaching, tasks do not serve as the unit for designing courses but only as a means for implementing a methodological procedure’ (p. 240). From the generated distinctions provided by TBLT scholars, it is noted that task-based curriculum is still under discussion. The focal point of the current study is the implication and integration of TBLT in EFL classes via training of EFL pre-service teachers and cooperating with them to develop appropriate TBLT practice. The first segment consults the TBLT methodology. The second segment is about TBLT course design and planning from different scholars’ presentations in order to assemble a common TBLT lesson paradigm. The third segment is about teachers’ participation and role in TBLT curriculum.

2.6. Task-based language methodology of teaching

Designing realistic and well-structured tasks in a TBLT lesson are one of the fundamental points that scholars and curriculum designers value most and continue to prioritise. Therefore, lesson planning and language methodology has become the determining criteria for the success or failure of the teaching and learning process. According to Sundari, Febriyanti and Saragih (2018, p. 1), developing syllabus, planning lesson, selecting materials, and preparing tests are the essential items in designing a course. As a collection of essentials, these come together to form the *methodology* – a concept defined by Stern (1983) as an umbrella term in accordance with Richards and Rodgers explanation (1986, p. 44) that, with information and material structure taking

into consideration objectives, materials, procedures and assessment, the methodological model of teaching can be framed. Henceforth, in the present study task-based language teaching methodology is the key research element.

As explained by Brandl (2008), tasks are pedagogical; they are intended to act as a bridge between the class and the real world in the sense that they serve to prepare students for the use of language in real life. In the case of the TBL approach, the teacher maximizes the use of the target language; the input is meaningful, comprehensible and elaborated. It is intended to have positive feedback and recognize effective factors of student learning. On the other hand, communicative language teaching (CLT) was generally regarded as an approach to language teaching (Richards & Rodgers 2001). It was based on the theory that the primary function of language use is communication. Its fundamental goal is for learners to develop communicative competence (Hymes, 1971), or simply put, communicative ability into practice. In other words, its goal is to make use of real-life language skills in order to engage the learner in contextualized, meaningful, and communicative-oriented learning tasks. The TBLT method is recognised as similar to the CLT approach. The TBLT approach focuses on the use of authentic language and asks students to carry out meaningful tasks using target language. The lessons are mainly based on completing a central task following a series of stages: *pre-task* to introduce the topic, *task* to work with and use the target language, and *post-task* which allows students to learn more about a specific feature of the language using during the task-cycle (Willis, 1996). With this approach, students will improve their fluency and their confidence. In this respect, Brandl (2008) pointed out to the learners' learning competences and talked about the importance of enhancing student communicative skills through real-life situations, requiring communication as the main feature of CLT. TBLT is conversely characterised by using tasks as the main instrument to organise the lessons. For example, the use of a structured pattern of activities with pre-task, task-cycle and post-task.

The Spanish Educational Authorities (Orden de 17 de marzo de 2015) pointed out linguistic competences and required teachers to take into consideration cultural competences. The law also suggested a methodology which promotes both autonomous and cooperative work, critical thinking and the exposure of students to the development of capacities such as identification, analysis, association, reflection, reasoning, deduction, induction, etc. Moreover, according to Orden del 17 de marzo de 2015, in primary

education in particular, priority is given to the development of communication skills, which will be developed gradually and in an integrated manner. For these reasons, the language teachers must be prepared and competent in implementing a communicative approach in their classes and be able to practice the four basic skills (Listening, Reading, Writing and Speaking), as well as linguistic points such as grammar, vocabulary or pronunciation with the goal of learning a new language. Furthermore, Orden *ECD/65/2015* points out seven key competences in primary education that teachers should involve in their communicative lessons. Moreover, the Orden ECD 65 de 21 de enero de 2015 introduced the competences-based learning whose aim should be ‘learn to know, do, be and coexist’. Competence means the combination of practical skills, motivation, knowledge, ethical values, emotions and other social and behavioural elements that are synthesized to achieve effective action. Thus, the linguistic and communicative competences are considered key for continuous development of the four skills implied for a language mastery. In addition, Orden ECD 65 de 21 de enero de 2015 mentioned the social and civic competence playing a vital role regarding the collaboration and the communication involved in the use of TBLT and CLT approaches. In accordance with the above-mentioned criteria, the combination of CLT and TBLT are the perfect match to develop students’ language competences. Additionally, Orden 17 de marzo de 2015 discussed the cultural considerations and the pedagogical freedom that the Spanish educational settings are provided with so as to make adaptations. Socioeconomic and cultural aspects may vary from school to school and every student is influenced by their own circumstances. Therefore, an environment whose priority has to do with the acquisition of values such as empathy, equity and respect is a priority for the full development of pupils and their competences. All these previous considerations lead to the ultimate purpose of providing students with an environment and situations that allow for effective communication.

Methodology and course design present various contradictions and inconsistencies in the TBL classroom and it has been argued that the differentiation between ‘design’ and ‘methodology’ in TBLT is not applicable (Ellis, 2003). Methodology is viewed as the core element of task-based instruction and both the ‘what’ and ‘how’ of teaching are combined and one completes the other in the TBLT course design and class methodology (Nunan, 1989 & Kumaravadivelu, 1993). Broadly speaking, TBLT is envisaged as the way of

implementing tasks, controlling the learners’ task accomplishments, and attracting learner interest toward meaning (Samuda, 2011).

Scholars and TBLT experts (notably Ellis 2003, Nunan 2004, and Willis 1996, 2012) have arrived at three main models for task-based methodology with some differences between the three models. However, they all agree on the teacher’s use of various methodological alternatives to boost learners’ performance during the task-based lesson. These distinctions and similarities gave TBLT various understanding and conception (Long, 2015). For teachers to reach these different interpretations about tasks and apply them methodologically in the classroom, Doughty and Long (2003) defined methodological principles as a list of design features that can be generally regarded as being facilitative to second language acquisition. Some main methodological principles of CLT and TBLT could be used as an organizational principle or to promote learning by doing. Importantly, these methods also focus on developing cooperative and collaborative learning and provide error corrective feedback.

Doughty and Long (2003) and Long (2015) articulated 10 ‘methodological principles’ (MPs) to reflect “what” teachers have to do to increase language learning. The ‘how’ of teaching is the ‘pedagogic procedures’ which demonstrate the implementation of these MPs. According to them, teachers must be ready and accustom themselves with the MPs presented if they want to produce valuable and effective lesson plans and tasks designs. It is argued that these methodological principles enhance the teacher pedagogical and methodological competence. The 10 MPs and some pedagogical principles are outlined in Table1.

Table 1

Language teaching methodological principles description and implementation (Adapted from Doughty & Long 2003, p. 52).

MP	Description	Implementations
MP1	Use tasks	Task-based language teaching (TBLT; target tasks, pedagogical tasks, task sequencing)
MP2	Promote learning by doing.	Learners must do the task themselves. Teachers facilitate the process, set them up for task performance, and help learners to notice.
MP3	Elaborate input	Be creative! (For good examples, see Long, 2015, pp.250-255).
MP4	Provide rich (not impoverished)	Exposure to varied input sources (e.g., videos from the internet, journal excerpts or magazines, invite a guest speaker in the class)

	input.	
MP5	Encourage inductive chunk learning	Implicit instruction of group words like lexical phrases, idioms and certain forms.
MP6	Focus on form.	Move to grammar structure implicitly or explicitly at certain stages of the task.
MP7	Provide negative feedback.	Correct student errors.
MP8	Respect learner syllabuses and developmental processes.	Time pedagogical intervention in relation to developmental readiness
MP9	Promote cooperative or collaborative learning.	Have learners learn together and interact in pairs or groups.
MP10	Individualize instruction	The information should be suitable to the learners' capacities, needs and interests.

As reported by Ellis (2003), since the 'how' of teaching was related to 'methodology' and the 'what' of teaching attributed to 'course design' (p. 79), the nomination and coherence of content in task-based curriculum should be targeted, not disregarded, by keeping an eye on the choice of tasks and the way of teaching them in a TBL class.

2.7. Course Design in TBLT

The use of tasks in divergent TBLT curriculum facets are considered key for undertaking TBLT as a flowing approach in curriculum design and classroom pedagogics (Candlin, 1987; Long & Crookes, 1993; Nunan, 1989). Lesson planning in TBLT revolves around the required language to perform special tasks and not the language structures such as grammar and vocabulary. Moreover, planning a lesson in TBLT distinguishes between the syllabus and methodology, as the latter is about 'how' to teach while syllabus is about 'what' is to be taught (Ellis, 2003, p.30).

Pedagogically speaking, TBLT lesson planning has pursued the following concepts and principles:

- 'a needs-based approach to content selection,

- an emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language,
- the introduction of authentic texts into the learning situations,
- an enhancement of the learner's own experiences,
- the linking of classroom language learning with language use outside the classroom' (Nunan, 2004, p.1).

In terms of lesson planning, researchers and TBLT scholars argue that a TBLT course design is related to the decisions that should be taken regarding the type of tasks that have to be included, content of tasks, and, essentially, how to place and set the tasks to ease language learning (Ellis, 2009; Nunan, 1989, 2004). In a task-based curriculum and course design, the election and placement of tasks determine, figure and plan the TBLT course pedagogy. Obviously, every class lesson requires its specific planning based on the students, materials, activities and so on. Nunan (1989, 1993) introduced two approaches through which tasks are chosen and established: SLA theories and learners' needs analysis. For needs analysis, the teacher follows this basic stage to designate the classroom tasks and the teacher focuses on developing the learners' needed skills following the students' answers to the 'what' and 'why' questions (Nunan, 1989). Despite that, following learners' needs analysis is viewed as a very demanding approach and less pragmatic in tasks picking, especially for teachers in very surcharging heterogeneous classes as is the case in Asia (Adams & Newton, 2009; Baurain & Ha, 2010).

On the other hand, it is argued that task choice based on SLA theories relied on the input interaction and output hypotheses (e.g., Krashen, 1985; Long, 1985b; Swain, 1985). Some researchers have pinpointed some task selection features (Ellis 2003a; Nunan 2004) stating that learning should be done through meaning-focused tasks at an early age. In contrast, Johnson limited this idea to the 'deep-end strategy' (2008, p. 275) in TBLT. The deep-end refers to the difficulties presented to the learners when the meaning-focused tasks are introduced at the beginning of the lesson. This sequence is contrary to the traditional teaching methods whereby the linguistic items are outlined to the students at the start of the lesson and then followed by profound practices and exercises (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). As meaning takes the central part in tasks selection, the second standard of tasks selection is either the teacher stimulating learners' negotiation of meaning or reinforcing them to produce more language in task achievement. In this vein, it has been suggested that 'closed tasks' can create negotiation of meaning just as well as 'open tasks'

can boost students' language production (Nakahama, Tyler & Van Lier, 2001; Willis, 2004). Last but not least, Swain (1985) proposed the 'output hypothesis' stating that learners should be provided with an apprehensible and coherent output to produce language. Correspondingly, researchers (e.g., Fotos 1994; Schmidt 1990; Willis & Willis 1996) suggested the adoption of 'consciousness-raising' tasks to control language production of learners in an apprehensible way. In short, this approach of task selection opened the door to tasks sequence that focuses on tasks pedagogy and coherency (how should a task be sequenced?).

Whilst it is important to explore these different aspects of task-based teaching, it is essential to study the connections between the theoretical perceptions with their practical applications. The design and sequencing of a task-based lesson is very notable in task-based pedagogy (Skehan, 1996; Willis, 1996). Various designs have been schemed and suggested by TBLT scholars and researchers (Estaire & Zanon, 1994; Lee, 2000; Prabhu, 1987; Skehan, 1996; Willis, 1996). Anyhow, all their designs share the same guideline stages and agree that a task-based lesson can encompass three phases as portrayed in Table 2 (Ellis, 2003).

Table 2

Ellis's framework for designing task-based lessons (2003 p.80)

Phase	Examples of options
A. pre-task	* Framing the activity (e. g. establishing the outcome of the task) * Planning time * Doing a similar task
B. during task	* Time pressure
C. post-task	* Number of participants * Learner report * Consciousness-raising * Repeat task

Willis (1996) presented a model of three phases for a task accomplishment (pre-task, task cycle and post-task). This approach has afforded positive vantage from the sociolinguistic norms that have been described by Willis (1996). He stated that the language lesson can be filled with only tasks through pairs or group works where learners can interact freely and be confident expressing themselves in the target language. He cited work by Labov (1972) about a group of people talking in wide social contexts. It has been

revealed that there were common varieties of language use between public and private contexts. In this respect, Willis (1996) revealed that the communicative situation informs the language people use in their conversations. See the summary within the Table 3 below:

Table 3

The TBLT framework (Willis, 1996, p. 132)

Willis Framework of TBLT	
Pre-task	Introduction to topic and task
Task-cycle	*Task *Planning *Report *Students hear task recording or read textbook
Language focus	*Analysis and practice * Review and repeat task

In this approach, Willis (1996) signalled the fundamental structure to planning and sequencing these phases for appropriate language acquisition circumstances. Willis' three essential phases for a task-based lesson will be discussed in the coming sub-sections. It is viewed that a task-based lesson form is agreed to focus on the three main stages (Willis, 1996; Prabhu, 1987, & Nunan, 1985), that can be stated as follows.

2.7.1. Pre-task

The pre-task stage is to ensure student readiness for the main task. The teacher creates a comprehensible atmosphere for the language topic (Willis, 1996), prepares students to execute the task in an encouraging language acquisition atmosphere (Ellis, 2003), as well as familiarising learners with lesson subject and topic-related words and phrases (Forst, 2004). Willis (1996) believed that in this stage both the target language and topic can be introduced to the learners through brainstorming activities with the class, using pictures, mime or personal experience to introduce the topic (p.4). In his regard, Ellis (2003) gave teachers a choice to either concentrate on the general cognitive demands or on the linguistic factors in the pre-task. He proposed four ways in which teachers can choose one to undertake this phase.

- a) supporting learners in performing a task similar to the task they will perform in the during-task phase of the lesson,
- b) asking students to observe a model of how to perform the task,

- c) engaging learners in non-task activities designed to prepare them to perform the task,
- d) strategic planning of the main task performance (p.81).

Prabhu (1987) deemed the use of a ‘pre-task’ in his Communicative Teaching Project as something that cannot be overridden. This phase was regarded as a general activity that is practiced by all the students in order to prepare them to work individually in the coming phase (main-task). This expected level of engagement confirmed the pre-task as a real task rather than a demonstrative activity. The previous data alludes to common agreement between TBLT scholars that this tier (pre-task) is an integral part of the task-based lesson design and paves the way to the task implementation.

2.7.2. Task-cycle

The task cycle is the base phase of the task-based lesson design. According to TBLT scholars, various techniques and practices are essential to the undertaking of this task cycle. In this phase, the learners can execute the task by themselves (Prabhu, 1987). They can work in pairs or groups and act on their own in the task while the teacher simultaneously observes their performance (Ellis, 2003). This stage integrates the four skills in which learners exchange knowledge through communicative tasks, generating their competences (Willis, 1996). The above demonstrations show unanimous researcher admission that the learner is the cornerstone of the task-based lesson, with agency to plan and conduct the task individually or collaboratively under the teacher control. It is also acknowledged that organization of the task stages remains one of the underlying issues that face the teacher in conducting a task-based lesson successfully. In this regard, linguists, most notably Willis (1996), proposed three components of task cycle involved in task-based teaching as it is presented above in Table 3.

The provided components clarify the role of the learner in planning their report and increasing their language learning opportunities. Likewise, Candlin and Murphy (1987) claimed that, in addition to Willis’s (1996) main task components, tasks can be structured systematically comprising (goals, input, context, tasks - without neglecting the role of both learner and the teacher and task evaluation feedback.

2.7.3. Post-task

The post-task is the closing phase of the task in which teachers exercise choice in how it is executed. According to Willis (1996) the post-task phase is the last stage after the task cycle accomplishment. The post-task phase or the language focus stage can be done, first, by involving students in some ‘consciousness-raising activities’ that raise students’ language use (Willis, 1996). In turn, Skehan (1996) called attention to students’ performance in order to attract their attention to some linguistic features that were embedded in the previous stages. Second, the students can be more exposed to topic-related material and intense use of the target language (Willis, 1996). Third, the students can participate in the content or form correction and feedback. Despite their conflicting points of view concerning the post-task sequencing, both Skehan (1996) and Willis (1996) recommend teachers to postpone the form focus to the concluding stage of the task. In this respect, Ellis (2003) gathered three significant pedagogic goals of the post-task (performance repetition, reflection on the task and focus on form) (p.93).

Between supporters and opponents, the controversy remains because of the teaching of the linguistic items or keep in teaching content far from form in TBLT. The literature review concerning main task depicts high demand and complexity of task planning and sequencing in which the teacher remains the key element in a well task-based implication in EFL classes.

2.8. Types of tasks

Teacher is the fuel of well-established education and has a vital role in the success or failure of the teaching and learning process at all stages (Markee, 1997; Borg, 2003; Van den Branden, 2009a; Ellis & Shintani, 2014). In this sense, the role of the teacher has been regarded as very important in any pedagogical reform or interreference (Hattie, 2012). That is why the effective integration or adaptation of any teaching pedagogy or method is linked to the role adopted by the teacher (Ellis & Shintani, 2014). With reference to TBLT adaptation, researchers found that the introduction of TBLT into the teaching curriculum generated numerous constraints and challenges (Adamson & Davison, 2003; Zhang, 2007; Samuda & Bygate, 2008; Barnard & Nguyen, 2010). This

explains why teachers, when they come to choose and select a suitable task for their lesson, will eventually recognize a wide range of task types they have to select from (Pavel, 2014).

In response to task types, a broad debate was sparked about the task structure for the sake of teaching and learning. The major disputes examined the differences between ‘task’ (focus on the language use) and ‘exercise’ (focus on evolving the language form features) or between ‘pedagogic’ tasks (tasks designed purposely for classroom learning) and ‘real-life’ tasks (tasks include real-world situations for language use). For instance, Long (1985a) was among the first scholars who talked about task types and related distinction. He made an important differentiation between “target tasks” and “pedagogical tasks”. To him, the former relates to tasks people do in their everyday life for instance, when at work, at school or during play. Examples of work-related tasks include filling out a form, writing an email or reading an executive summary. In contrast, pedagogic tasks are clear forms of target tasks that language learners can work on in language classes. In this vein, Nunan (1989) discussed real world tasks and pedagogic tasks, giving the example of ordering a meal in a restaurant as a real task and explained pedagogical tasks as interactional authenticity. In foreign language settings students could write an email to another student who is also a user of the language. International school collaboration projects draw upon such pedagogical tasks routinely.

The second distinction concerns whether tasks are open or closed. Crookes and Rulon (1985) claimed that in open tasks, there is no predetermined outcome that participants need to achieve. In closed tasks participants need to reach a given solution. There is a predetermined correct answer. ‘Spot the Difference’ is a classic example of a closed task, requiring participants to locate a pre-planned set of differences. A story sequencing task in which participants need to put events in the correct order also constitutes a close task if there is only one logical solution. On the other hand, if participants are free to come up with any story using a different and unrelated set of pictures, the task could be categorized as open because there would be no one predetermined correct solution.

A third related distinction is whether tasks are convergent versus divergent. Duff (1986) stated that in convergent tasks, participants are required to reach an agreement regarding the task outcome. In divergent tasks on the other hand, participants do not need to agree about the task solution. Examples of convergent tasks include decision-making

task where, for example, participants need to decide how to allocate funding to competing community projects. Another line of task distinction is based on the number of students

respons (1986) claimed convey complet of the ta follow learners need to take part in the task to ensure successful completion. A one-way task for example, as it was demonstrated by Levkina (2014), can involve one participant giving directions to the other participant about where to place pictures of furniture in a drawing of a room (Figure 2). This task can be inspired by the real-life scenario of moving company workers being directed (by homeowners) where to put furniture in a new home.

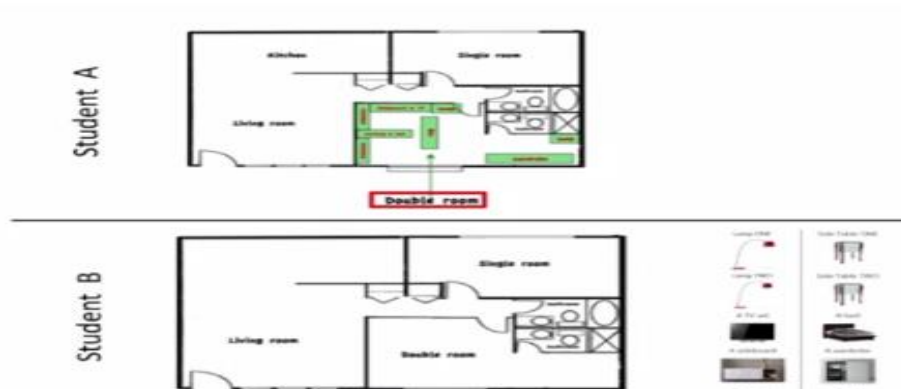


Figure 2. An example of one-way task suggested by Levkina (2014)

Another example of a two-way task brings us back to the ‘spot the difference task’ (Mackey, 1999). In this variant of the classic spot the different, learners are given similar pictures with only some different details. As it is apparent in Figure 3, the learners’ task is to find the differences between the two pictures without showing each other the pictures themselves and the instruction in this task is to find the differences.

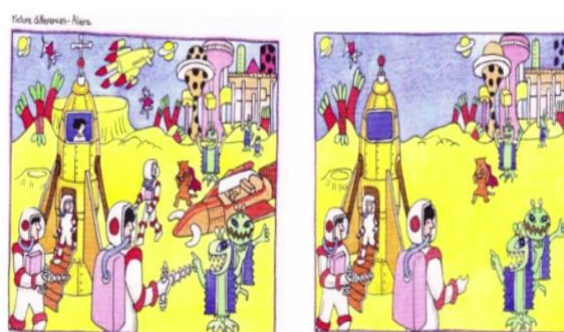


Figure 3. Example of two-way task adapted from Mackey (1999).

Crookes (1989), Foster and Skehan (1996), and Ortega (1995) went further by defining tasks as ‘planned’ and ‘unplanned’. The former relates to a task pre-planned and discussed prior to learner (in groups) engagement. However, in unplanned tasks learners directly engage in the task without prior preparation. In addition to that, tasks are categorised as either “focused” and “unfocused”. The terms were coined by Ellis (2003), and they denote whether a task is designed to elicit a specific linguistic feature. Unfocused tasks do not have a predetermined language focus, whereas focused tasks are constructed to induce the use of specific linguistic constructions. Focused tasks are preferred by Ellis (2013) and Long (2015) explaining that a pre-determined linguistic feature, for instance a specific grammatical structure or a set of vocabulary items, is designed into the plan. Ellis (2003) claimed that in focused tasks, learners perform the task knowing what the focus is. On the other hand, Willis (2007) and Skehan (2011) lean toward unfocused tasks and describe learners perform the task in natural language use with opportunities for using language in general communication. Figure 4 demonstrates the difference between focused and unfocused tasks.

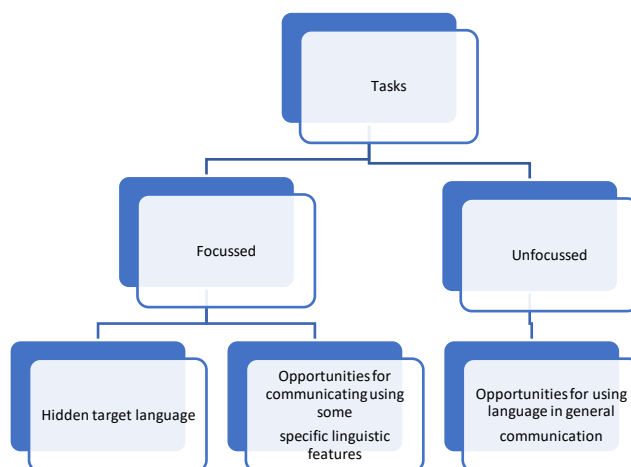


Figure 4. Focused and unfocused tasks adapted from Ellis (2003) and Willis (2007)

Additionally, the sequencing of tasks is deemed as an important component to the progress of teaching and learning, paying attention to the continual relationship between the previous and upcoming learning of the task (within a purposeful and contextual manner) (Clark, Scarino & Brownell, 1994). The components are depicted in Table 4 below.

Table 4

The four components of the task framework (Clark, Scarino & Brownell, 1994, p.40).

A purpose	an underlying reason for undertaking the task (beyond the mere display of subject knowledge)
A context	the thematic, situational, and interactive circumstances in which the task is undertaken the context may be real, simulated or imaginary - considering context includes knowing where the task is taking place, when and by whom, what previous experiences they share and what relationships they have
A process	a mode or process of inquiry, thinking, problem-solving, performing, creating
A product	the result of completing a task

As it is stated by Clark, Scarino & Brownell (1994), tasks occupy a valuable, unifying, and contextualized piece of work. They claimed that:

while learners perform a learning task, they draw upon their existing framework of knowledge to interpret what they are being asked to do in terms of the purpose and context set. They then engage in the process of carrying out the task to achieve a product, continually refining their interpretation of what has to be done. (p. 40)

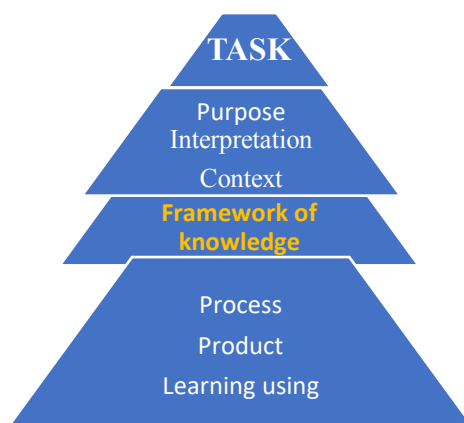


Figure 5. The process of carrying out a learning task (adapted from Clark, Scarino & Brownell, 1994, p. 41).

In addition to the explained framework of knowledge, and the different types of tasks, Ellis (2003, 2013) made a distinction between ‘input-based’ versus ‘output-based’

tasks. To Ellis (2003), the main difference between these two tasks types lies in whether learners are required to produce the language while they're carrying out the task or not. Output-based tasks require language learners to produce language. In other words, they need to engage in either speaking or writing thus prompting tasks categorizing. Six corresponding task-types of the Australian Language Levels Guidelines (Scarino et al, 1988) included:

- interacting and discussing
- interacting and deciding/transacting
- obtaining information and using it
- giving information
- personal response
- personal expression.

Furthermore, a different plan of task-types centres on thinking skills:

- enquiring, interpreting
- presenting
- problem-solving
- performing
- creating, designing, composing
- judging, evaluating, responding (see Clark, Scarino & Brownell, 1994).

This categorization of tasks caused TBLT advocates and experts to raise various discussions around different classifications. Table 5 details the classification of types according to Pica, Kanagy, & Falodun (1993), Willis (1996), Nunan, (2001) –their inspiration taken from the founder of TBLT, Prabhu (1987). As it appears in Table 5, Pica, Kanagy, & Falodun (1993) proposed five communicative task types (jigsaw, information gap, problem-solving, decision-making, and opinion exchange). Such task genres are explained respectively.

Table 5

Types of tasks by Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993), Willis (1996) and Nunan (2001).

Task designer	Types of tasks
Pica, Kanagy, and Falodun (1993)	1. jigsaw 2. information-gap 3. problem-solving

	4. decision-making 5. opinion change
Willis (1996)	1. listing 2. ordering 3. comparing, 4. problem solving 5. sharing personal experiences 6. Creative
Nunan (2001)	1. Real-world 2. Pedagogic
Skehan (2011)	1 Pedagogic
Ellis (2003; 2013)	1 Focused tasks 2 Unfocused tasks

2.8.1. Jigsaw task

According to Pica (1987, p.17), the jigsaw task has pinpointed the subsequent features:

1. Each interactant holds a different portion of information which must be exchanged and manipulated in order to reach the task outcome.
2. Both interactants are required to request and supply this information to each other.
3. Interactants have the same or convergent goals.
4. Only one acceptable outcome is possible from their attempts to meet this goal.

2.8.2. Information-gap task

An information gap task is defined as a group of students containing information that the other group needs to know in order to accomplish a task (Davies, 1982; Johnson & Morrow, 1981). In the information-gap task there is a holder of information (sender) and the receiver of information. Thus, the modification and modeling of the task comprehension is not possible due to the fixed role designed for each student (Pica, Kangagy & Falodun, 1993). Despite the ‘information gap’ task’s limit on modification of the tasks’ language, it remains an activity that creates a motivating and communicative language atmosphere among students (Pica, Holliday, Lewis & Morgenthaler, 1989).

2.8.3. Problem-solving task

The title 'Problem-solving' denotes a task with a problem posed on the one side whereby students' attention orients towards finding the resolution of the problem on the other side (Duff, 1986; Ur, 1984). In this type of tasks, the information is distributed to all the interactants, but for the successful achievement of the task, it is not obligatory for all the students to engage (Crookes & Rulon 1985). The task complexity varies depending on the proposed problem; however, it is often recorded that learners are usually actively involved and enjoy the process of figuring out the problem (Willis, 1996, p. 27). From a simple problem-solving task to a more complex and demanding one, in a 'short logic puzzle' task students can resolve the problem more easily in comparison to a 'real-life' problem that requires learners to evaluate, compare existing problem in real life and set hypotheses (Willis, 1996, p.27).

2.8.4. Decision-making task

In decision-making tasks, the rule changes and learners review the problem with access to a range of information and solutions that they negotiate in order to reach the possible decisions to accomplish the task. The negotiated tasks are not restricted, but rather open-ended and do not necessitate the enrolment of all students in the task (Pica, Kangagy & Falodun, 1993, p. 31).

2.8.5. The opinion-exchange task

This type of tasks fosters the learners' discussions as well. Learners are open to exchange their own ideas and negotiate others' opinions related to the proposed topic. However, learners are not expected to arrive at a common idea or goal (Ur, 1984).

Pica, Kangagy & Falodun (1993) ended that there are obvious and disparate differences in the strength of all the above-mentioned tasks. In his regard, Willis (1996) proposed six distinct types of tasks (listening, ordering, comparing, problem solving, sharing personal experiences, and creative) tasks. The tasks are defined and explained as follows:

a. Listening task

Listening tasks are regarded as tedious and uninspired tasks and provoke the productive skill (speaking) (Willis, 1996 p.26). The tasks are mainly completed through

interviews with, for instance, one student speaking and the other one listening, or one group speaking and explaining and the other group listening and taking notes accordingly. The learners' action in the task can be recorded via brainstorming in pairs or groups or through stimulating the learners' own knowledge and learning adventures. (Willis, 1996, p. 26).

b. Ordering task

Ordering and sorting tasks implicate the fundamental processes: ranking items or events into a logical or chronological order, sequencing them based on personal or given criteria, grouping given items and classifying items under appropriate categories not previously specified. (Willis, 1996, p. 26).

c. Comparing and contrasting tasks

According to Willis (1996), these tasks compare and contrast task information (p. 27). In these tasks, learners are recommended to compare the information and note the common differences and similarities through linking the particular points to each other (Willis, 1996 p.27).

d. Sharing personal experience tasks

In sharing personal experience tasks, the lesson is designed and planned from what the information the interlocutors (students) will present from their personal experiences. This means that learners are engaged in speaking about themselves and interchange stories of their own adventures with classmates and the teacher (Willis, 1996).

e. Creative and project tasks

The creative tasks in fact can be expanded to become project tasks. They are frequently regarded as pair or groups tasks. Learners are asked to create their own products through medium such as short stories, art works, videos, magazines, etc. This type of task generally involves other types of tasks such as listing, ordering and sorting, comparing and problem solving (Willis, 1996: 27).

Inspired by Willis's (1996) task types, Nunan (2001) suggested two main types of tasks which are real-world and pedagogic tasks. Real-world tasks take the target language applied outside the learning context into the real world. Inversely, pedagogic tasks are

communicative tasks that ease the employment of language in the classroom towards the completion of a set of useful educational goals.

In this respect, Bruton (2002a, p. 282) classified the tasks into nine main tasks: ‘problem-solving, decision-making, spontaneous role-playing, etc.’; ‘information/opinion gap resolution’; ‘cued prompted interaction’; ‘question-answer exchange’; ‘prepared role plays’; ‘focused receptive language (+/- itemized)’; ‘focused written language (+/- itemized) [reproduction]’; ‘understanding’; and ‘written expression’. Based on such a miscellany of activities, skills, modalities, pedagogic procedures, language, conversational moves, and cognitive processes, it would be impossible to define *task* or *task type* or know what would and would not qualify as examples of either.

2.9. The difference between ‘task’ and ‘exercise’

In order to complete this study, it is essential to examine tasks and exercises and pinpoint the difference between them. This distinction permits us to better comprehend the degree to which tasks are understood and embedded by the student-teachers in their lesson plans. The similarities between ‘tasks’ and ‘exercises’ can often confuse student-teachers, and even in-service teachers. According to Ellis (2003), tasks and exercises have the same objective of easing the language learning process and improving learners’ language learning.

The differentiation between tasks and exercises offers a practical tool for teachers when selecting the appropriate teaching medium to suit learning styles and match the different learning aspects. A task is defined by Nunan (2004) as the communicative act usually without a restrictive focus on a single grammatical structure and with a non-linguistic outcome. By contrast, an exercise (according to Nunan 2004) is usually organized around a restrictive focus on a single language element, with a linguistic outcome. Richards (2020), on his official webpage, responded to a student from India asking about the difference between a task, an exercise, and an activity. He explained that these terms are understood differently depending on who defines them. He defined an “exercise” as a teaching procedure that involves controlled, guided or open-ended practice of some aspect of language. He gave examples of exercises like a drill, a cloze activity, a reading comprehension passage and considered them all as plausible exercises. However, he claimed that the term ‘activity’ is more general and refers to any kind of purposeful classroom procedure that involves learners doing something that relates to the

goals of the course. He listed many teaching activities as examples: singing a song, playing a game, taking part in a debate, having a group discussion. Finally, ‘tasks’ were defined as something that learners do, or carry out, using their existing language resources or those that have been provided in pre-task work. In alignment with Nunan (2004), Richards (2020) agrees that tasks can have an outcome which is not simply linked to learning language, though language acquisition may occur as the learner carries out the task. He added that a task involves a focus on meaning and provides opportunities for reflection on language use by using communication strategies and interactional skills. In line with this, Ellis (2003) depends on the language teaching styles and learners’ position to differentiate a task from an exercise. He agrees with Nunan’s (2004) view and thinks a task is an activity with a primary focus on meaning whilst an exercise is an activity with a primary focus on form (Ellis, 2003, p. 3). He added that the learner role in a task differs from that during an exercise because their roles replicate more closely real-life. In contrast, the learner in an exercise should take the role as language learner and mainly directs attention to intentional learning. In light of the existing disputes regarding the task as a work-plan or task as a process (Breen, 1989, p. 188), Ellis (2003, 2018) distinguished between the task and exercise at the workplan level.

2.10. Thematic background study

TBLT has progressively spread over recent years and is now practised in many countries around the world. TBLT has gained interest in Asian educational settings, with the communicative and task-based language approach being adopted by educational decision makers across the continent. The widespread recognition and growing implementation of TBLT in Asia has prompted much research conducted into this approach in relation to the teacher, the learner and the teaching context (Adams & Newton, 2009). TBLT has gained large fame in Japan (Lowe, 2012) and largely in the Asian-Pacific region (Butler, 2011). In 2010 the Japanese Association for language teachers under the name of Task-Based Language Learning Special Interest Group (TBLSIG) was set up to increase the TBLT application in Japan and Asia (Harris, 2016). Thus, the expansion of TBLT in many nations is in the wake of the ministries of education and their support of this method in the EFL classrooms.

The Chinese Educational Authority issued a decision mandating teachers to concentrate on the teaching methodology rather than the learning outcomes (Cheng & Moses, 2011, p. 292). Additionally, the ministries of education approved the use of TBLT in all school curricula and at all teaching levels in all of China (Hu, 2005, 2013; Zhang, 2007). Whereas, in South Korea (Shim & Baik, 2000) and in Vietnam (Canh & Barnard, 2009) education policymakers urged teachers and curriculum designers to follow a communicative approach, required teachers to provide tasks that permit learners to interact in a meaning-based class, and enable learners to have a basic communicative level in all four skills. These national interpretations and advised approaches were found in the different declarations enacted by the ministries of education around Asia.

In Europe, CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001) fixes persistent attention to TBLT and the European Commission funded the PETALL project that stands for Pan-European Task Activities for Language Learning number 530863-LLP-1-2012-1-NL-KA2-KA2MP. The project came together in response to teacher hesitancy to the use of TBLT in their EFL classes and the lack of connection and collaboration among teachers. PETALL involves ten countries (Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal, Serbia, Spain, Turkey, and the UK), and its main objective is to model good examples of teaching forms and methods inclusive of tasks and ICT. This is coupled with its ambition to create a collaborative European atmosphere among EFL teachers and trainers for the advancement of ICT-based tasks. In this regard, the Spanish educational authority consistently promotes the learning and teaching of English in Spain. The Spanish Ministry of Education urged teachers to implement new communicative teaching methodologies in all stages and levels. According to Lujan-García (2012), one of the principles supported by the Organic Law on the Improvement of the Quality of Education (LOMCE, 2013), or Law on Education in Spain (2006), is the process of learning foreign languages via communication throughout students' lives. In this respect, the Spanish Official State Newsletter Orden ECD/65/2015, de 21 de enero (Boltín Oficial del Estado, 2015) stated that in order to improve students' communicative competence, learning must be based on tasks, projects, problems solving and adopt methodologies and approaches that support this type of learning. This law paved the way for the introduction and the use of TBLT in Spanish schools and commands EFL teachers to adopt this approach in their teaching process. Consequently, Spanish EFL teachers concentrated heavily on TBLT – this shift

in teacher interest and approach in Spain featured in Spanish contribution in PETALL. The commitment was also brought to attention during the TBLT conference that took place in Barcelona in 2017, accentuating understanding about task-based teaching as a recommended teaching methodology.

US education, paralleling educational systems around the world, urges educational policymakers to give importance to innovation as the necessary instrument for confident education (Hoffman & Holzhter, 2012). In his research, Serdyukov (2017) claimed that the US education needs impressive innovations that mainly focus on the teaching and learning theories, performances and methods. In line with PETALL, US reforms emphasizes the skilful integration and use of technologies at all the educational levels and stages. Task-based teaching however has seen few studies conducted.

However, a large amount of research and studies have been carried out to evaluate both teachers and learners' participation in task-based teaching. The preceding research realised in East Asia confirmed that there is still a gap in applying a task-based lesson appropriately and teachers are still sticking to the traditional teaching methods as they feel safe using them in their classes (Carless, 2007; Hu, 2005; Zhang, 2007; Deng & Carless, 2009). This casts lights on the major role of the teacher in paving the way and integrating TBT in EFL classes (Markee, 1997; Borg, 2003; Van Den Branden, 2009a, 2016; Ellis & Shintani, 2014). Although teachers' beliefs and persuasion has witnessed extensive research (Borg, 2006), there is still lack of research regarding TBLT and its effect on both the teacher and the learner (Viet, 2014). Part of this study, therefore, commits to the collection and analysis of most of the research done about TBLT and the teachers' perceptions of its approach. The studies included in this collection conform to common findings but they vary according to their research variables and focus. The studies addressing different contexts around the world (Carless, 2004, 2007, 2009; Jeon and Hahn, 2006; Cheng & Moses, 2011; Jackson, 2012; Hu, 2013; Ansari, 2014; Liu & Xiong, 2016; Harris, 2016; Thi & Tran, 2017; Baralt & Morcillo Gomez, 2017) share TBLT as research topic and are relate to both in-service and pre-service teachers. The data, deriving from different global contexts, is collected through a variety of research methodologies incorporating quantitative questionnaires, qualitative interviews, case studies and mixed methods. Their area of investigation concentrates chiefly on the use and implementation of tasks, exploring teacher application, integration and acceptance of

TBLT practice. Work also paid attention to how these teachers interpret and evaluate their tasks practices.

Studies of EFL (pre-service/in-service) teachers' perceptions of TBLT application and integration as a new communicative approach in the EFL classrooms have eminently revealed that, in one way or another, teachers encounter authentic troubles and face serious obstacles in using such approach. Carless (2004), through qualitative means, explored the task-based innovation application in three elementary public schools in Hong Kong. Much TBLT research has been conducted with adults rather than within the elementary school contexts (Candlin, 2001). The research reveals three teachers' shared belief in the efficacy of task-based lesson in driving learners' good use of English whilst illuminating the complex issues that face teachers in task application. These challenges include students' use of the mother tongue, classroom management difficulties and target language production within the lesson period.

In 2007 Carless extended research to include secondary school teachers and teacher educators, examining the appropriateness of task-based lessons in Hong Kong secondary schools. The intention was to explore the need for the development of teaching recommendations for best TBLT practice within secondary and higher education. He arrived at the urgent need for the adaption of TBT, the integration of language form in the task-based lesson according to the teachers' selection and implementing a yielding "situated-version of TBT". To reinforce the need for modification, Carless (2009) collected data about teachers' attitudes and acknowledgment about their use of either TBLT or PPP (Presentation, Practice and Production) and the reasons behind their choices. Data revealed via this comparative study suggests that teachers tend and prefer the use PPP as it is a familiar method. Consequently, communicative approaches were often avoided (Gatbonton & Gu, 1994), considered too complex for classroom application. In contrast, it is also concluded that teacher educators have shown higher support for TBLT than PPP Dealing with TBLT in relation to teachers' perceptions and knowledge of this method. Related literature bolsters Carless's (2009) cause for concern demonstrating the persistent presence of traditional teaching methods and traditional role of the teacher in Asian classes in general, Chinese settings in particular (Meng & Tajaroensuk, 2013; Du, 2012). Despite elevated teacher consciousness and understanding of the communicative objective of TBLT they still use tend to focus on form rather than content in a task-based

lesson (Illin, Inozu, Yumru, 2007). In South Korea, Jeon and Hahn (2006), through quantitative research, once again explored EFL teachers' perceptions of TBLT with 228 secondary school teachers. Findings yielded that the majority of respondents have a higher level of understanding about TBLT concepts but have some negative views on implementing this method appropriately in their classes (Ansari & Shahrokhi, 2014). It is ratiocinated that one of the major reasons teachers avoid implementing TBLT is deeply related to a lack of theoretical knowledge of TBLT (Carless, 2003; Xu et al., 2008; Littlewood, 2004), low self-confidence (Morris et al, 1996; Li, 2003; Thi & Tran, 2017, Cheng & Moses, 2011; Jeon & Hahn, 2006), and unpreparedness for the use of this approach (Kusumoto, 2008; Jeon & Hahn, 2006, Ansari & Shahrokhi, 2014).

Further exploration of educator attitudes, in China for instance, shows that most EFL teachers hold positive attitudes towards TBLT (citing high understanding level of TBLT), but not all showed interest in implementing it in their classes. Some teachers were using it for boosting students' motivation features and providing a collaborative learning environment, but others avoided using TBLT altogether due to the large class sizes and lack of pedagogical knowledge to and tools to evaluate students' task-based performance (Cheng & Moses, 2011). Liu and Xiong (2016) research contradict aspects of Cheng and Moses's findings by confirming that TBLT, as a teaching communicative approach, received very positive feedback from teachers, despite their low-level understanding of tenets and practice of TBLT. Correspondingly, Hu (2013) reports a passive response by EFL teachers in general to TBLT adoption. Discomfort in application of the approach and a sense of ineffectiveness in relation to exam preparation, explained the lack of TBLT acceptance.

Bogali (2009) adds to the discussion with his exploration of college EFL instructors' and learners' perceptions of TBLT within teacher education in Ethiopia. His main purpose was to assess teacher practices of TBLT principles in their classes in the college context. The findings coincided with the previous research results, pointing to a clear mismatch between what teachers knew about TBLT and how and what they practiced in EFL classes. Constantly, in response to the various affirmations declared by the researchers about teachers' beliefs and acceptance of TBLT. Ansari and Shahrokhi (2014), looking into the acceptance or refusal of task application by the Iranian EFL teachers, point out that every teacher has his/her own reason for using or avoiding TBLT in their teaching. They refute

the notion of teachers feeling the method is useless and instead imply that the teacher's choice depends upon their own professional context at that time. (Ansari & Shahrokh, 2014, p.136). Some teachers avoid using TBLT due to the lack of English mastery (Jeon & Hahn, 2006) or their fear of taking risks in the classroom (Watson, 2006). Others found that the task-based lesson preparation is very time consuming and demanding (Carless, 2003; Jeon & Hahn, 2006; Watson, 2006). These declarations reflect the teachers' low competence in moving from a teacher-centred lesson to a mainly learner-centred lesson (Jeon & Hahn, 2006; Xu, Gelfer & Perkins, 2005; McDonough & Chaikitmongkol, 2007). Similarly, Justin Harris (2016) in his research with 78 members in the TBLSIG Japanese Association, revealed that regardless of the reported difficulties and challenges faced by Asian teachers while using TBLT, TBLSIG members support TBLT use and regard it as a powerful device for English teaching in Japan. To some extent, the members deny the direct criticisms of task-based teaching and view the teacher as responsible for choosing the tasks and simplifying the TBLT use ensuring integration meets the needs and levels of the students (McDonough & Chaikitmongkol, 2007). Some teachers also acknowledged the usefulness of TBLT in small-group tasks and in raising students' interaction and motivation (Jeon & Hahn, 2006).

Research into the training of in-service or pre-service teachers using TBLT worldwide emphasises the issue of teacher confidence (Jackson, 2012, 2015; Lockhart, 2014; Ansari & Shahrakhi, 2014; Chamorro & Humberto, 2017; Thi & Tran, 2017). The generated data demonstrated levels of fear felt by the teachers using TBLT, even after having a TBLT training. Familiarity with traditional teaching methods and their feel of security when returning to these methods is cited as a main reason for such aversion (Thi & Tran, 2017). When asked about their feeling towards TBLT, Iranian teachers showed hesitation to adopt TBLT, despite their clear understanding of TBLT principles. It is attested that the most important problem that faces teachers is a lack of confidence. Exemplifying doubt and lack of confidence, some teachers admitted not knowing the technique to assess learners' performance (Jeon & Hahn, 2006), fearful of being subjective while assessing (Watson, 2006).

Since teachers do not have the practical experience of implementing TBLT in classrooms, it is argued in this thesis that they should be trained or taught about how to plan, implement and assess a TBLT course. Here, research calls attention to teachers

training and tuition for using TBLT in their EFL classes. Jackson (2012) examined aspects of novice teachers' cognition among fifteen participants in one semester: task-based undergraduate seminar on language teaching methods. The main findings illustrate seminar participants acquiring an appropriate teaching practice knowledge. It is observed that teacher educators in Japan and elsewhere must be aware of the need of formal training in language teaching at all levels and that teacher cognition is affected before entering the profession (Xhaferi & Xhaferi, 2013; Roessingh, 2014). From this perspective, task-based teacher training may be a good starting point for improving second language education globally.

Moving from novice teachers to pre-service teachers, Lockhart (2015) aimed to raise teacher awareness of the importance of working with communicative methodologies during training in Spain. To Lockhart (2015), TBLT is an active methodology that allows students to learn through discovery, discussion and collaboration. After analysing the participants' needs, it was found that the trainees need to have a good command of the oral English and they had less knowledge on how to teach a foreign language in a motivating and an active learning atmosphere based on communication. Lockhart (2015) clarifies that the planning of the TBLT training course is difficult and time demanding (Ansari & Shahrakhi, 2014) but argues that in the end it is worthy of time and effort as results demonstrate positive feelings transmitted by the students towards this training course, with improvements to their own English. One praising source suggests it helps students improve their speaking, writing, grammar, vocabulary and in their language learning strategies (Chamorro & Benavidez Paz, 2017). It is suggested that for teachers to manipulate their classes correctly they need to be equipped with various tasks genres and suitable tasks-assessment techniques (Ansari & Shahrakhi, 2014). This comes back to what Jackson (2012) pointed out after examining the effects of task-based assessment practices on raising Japanese university students' awareness and confidence of their ability to teach English lessons. It is illustrated that task-based assessment was used to motivate students to act out their own understanding of several teaching tasks. The course helped student to gain knowledge about lesson planning constraints and facilities, the challenges and benefits of English teaching and the inherited teachers' roles and responsibilities. Crucially, the course explores how to control a TBLT classroom with less stress and more confidence (Jackson, 2015).

The literature review of TBLT so far has shown the researchers focus on the problems faced by teachers and obstacles which prevent them from applying this approach, including an absence of explicit and thorough training or resources to help overcome these problems. Consensus across much of this literature centres around the nature of teacher training, with gaps found in areas such as teacher attitudes and pedagogical challenges. For instance, it is observed that TBLT users (pre-service, in-service teachers, teacher educators, and curriculum designers) confirm and request that teachers should receive training which overlaps planning, implementing and assessing a TBLT course. Another agreed priority is the consideration of the strengths and weaknesses of TBLT, and the teachers' role in selecting and performing tasks. It is worth mentioning the omissions or areas lacking within the literature. Research instruments to assess the impact of TBLT on teachers' beliefs and performance are not discussed and searched in the literature. Few studies have addressed the pedagogy of teacher education regarding task-based lesson planning and designing. Finally, it is found that TBLT affects the teachers' performance (teaching psychology) but no studies about TBLT and its psychological effect on teachers are undertaken, especially across Europe.

2.11. Training the EFL teachers

In recent years, there have been intense discussions about the need to boost teachers' performance in the EFL classes. Both pre-service and in-service teachers' beliefs and assumptions about their language learning and teaching practices have been researched (Tercanlioglu, 2005; Thompson, 1992; Inceçay, 2011). However, there is a persistent body of proof signifying that teachers' beliefs and philosophy of teaching shape their didactic practices, influence the way they act and approach teaching and learning (Almarza, 1996; Erkmen, 2010; Nespor, 1987), and impact the learners' performance and learning (Borg, 2006). Moreover, it is stated the beliefs teachers hold regarding the teaching and learning process that affects their lesson planning, selection of method, tasks and materials used in their classes (Clark & Peterson, 1986). The difficulty of accurately defining and assessing teacher beliefs and preconceptions is widely recognised and appreciated (Elmas & Aydin, 2017). In his broad definition of teachers' beliefs, Pajares (1992) related teachers' beliefs to the teachers' personal adjudication of the reality of what is proposed to them. This definition indicated the central role of teachers' beliefs in reaching the teaching

requirements as asserted by Fenstermacher (1979). Looking at these beliefs and their sources, Barker (2012), in his work about the pre-service teachers' perceptions of teaching at the pre-service level, talked about the teachers' belief system and incorporated a range of sources. They read as follows:

- a. teachers' individual experiences as foreign language learners;
- b. teachers' own experience of successfully (or unsuccessfully) applied techniques of teaching in their own context;
- c. preferred teaching practices and routines in a given institution (established practice);
- d. personal preferences (e.g., preferences for more interactive techniques);
- e. knowledge relating to theories of learning/teaching acquired in the course of training or recently encountered (educational or research-based principles);
- f. acceptance of a certain approach or method in teaching (principles derived from an approach or method, e.g., the belief in communicative language teaching as the best way to develop communicative skills of learners).

Together with the above sources, Richards and Lockhart (1994) mentioned that teachers relate their beliefs to some other sources that have a focal role on teachers' convictions; the language taught; the specificity of FLL process; FLT as a process; the programme and syllabus implemented; and FL teaching as a profession.

It is for this reason that research constantly related teachers' beliefs to the deep understanding of teachers' cognitive process (Fenstermacher, 1979), realising the shift from teachers' cognition to teachers' action and movement in the class (Van den Branden, 2006), and the contribution of teacher training programmes for both pre-service and in-service teachers in modelling and effectively reconfiguring the teachers' teaching beliefs.

One important area of teacher cognition research involves developing or changing the beliefs of student teachers during their teacher education programme. Research has been carried out to investigate the impact of teacher education on previous beliefs (Freeman, 1992; Kagan, 1992a) developed as students during their previous years at school (Lortie & Clement, 1975). Researchers have long, and extensively, debated the impact of teacher education programmes on cognition and practice among teachers (Borg, 2006). On the one hand, some research found the beliefs of student teachers to be inflexible and deeply grounded, and thus persist as filters on teacher education pre-service

programmes (e.g., Borg, 2005; Kagan, 1992; Powell, 1992; Tatto, 1998; Zeichner, Tabachnick, & Densmore, 1987). For example, Kagan (1992) concluded that teacher education had a limited impact on pre-service teacher cognitions, and no significant relationship existed between them. Similarly, Borg (2005) reported that teacher education had limited impact on teacher pre-service beliefs. Other studies have challenged such claims and provided evidence that teacher education influences student teacher beliefs and/or behaviours, particularly during practice (e.g., Borg, 2006, 2009, 2011, 2012; Busch, 2010; Debrel, 2012; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Nettle, 1998; Phipps & Borg, 2007; Tillema, 1998). Nettle (1998) found changes in the beliefs of the student teachers regarding teaching during the practice.

Tillema (1998) developed a teaching-belief test to investigate the beliefs of the student teachers about teaching and learning before and after the course. Although the results showed the apparently unchanged beliefs, more detailed analysis revealed that there was some evidence of change that was not in 'a unidirectional or intended way for each student teacher and not in the same manner' (p.217). Such a result can be explained Çabaroglu and Roberts (2000) who argue that the notion of inflexibility is ambiguous. As they said, 'inflexibility could mean that a whole group has failed unidirectionally to move towards the course-promoted beliefs' (p.389). Alternatively, it could also mean a lack of dramatic change, aligning with Borg's (2006) point that impact does not necessarily mean change but can also be seen as strengthening prior cognitions. Çabaroglu and Roberts (2000) tested the inflexibility view of the beliefs of student teachers by exploring the nature of twenty student teachers during a one-year PGCE programme. They concluded that the belief of teachers is flexible, and therefore 'variable, cumulative, and evolutionary' (p.398). Further evidence of teacher education's influence on teachers is shown in the study by Yuan and Lee (2014). During the practice, they reported multiple processes of change of belief held by three student teachers, thus concluding that the beliefs of the student teachers are not stable but open to change and development. To enhance our understanding of the complex cognitive development process among novice teachers, they also highlighted the need for more studies on the cognitive change process in situated sociocultural contexts. Similarly, during the training programme, Busch (2010), Debrel (2012) and Xiong (2016) found changes in teacher belief in teaching and learning EFL. Overall, the studies reviewed above suggest inconsistent conclusions as to whether the

beliefs of student teachers should be viewed as deeply rooted (and thus as filters or barriers to pre-service teacher education programmes), or as evolving (and thus a tool for professional development). In Borg's arguments (2003, 2006, 2009), he observed that many studies of teacher education's ineffectiveness in changing pre-service teacher beliefs tended to focus primarily on the content of teacher cognition (e.g., what teachers thought) while studies that looked at cognitive development processes (e.g., how teachers restructured their thinking at different times) found changes in student teacher beliefs during teacher training. In addition, due to the differences between the nature of each teacher education programme (e.g., a short course or a year programme) and the evidence of change reported in each study (e.g. questionnaires, interviews or classroom practices), the comparison and interpretation of these findings warrant caution and must take these variables into consideration. Borg (2003) notes that the lack of consensus on what counts as evidence of cognition, and how to measure its change, is reason for this controversy. He proposed more spheres to invest further.

Despite the variations, Borg (2006) concluded that 'the impact of teacher education cannot be taken for granted and that teachers make sense of and are affected by training programmes in different and unique ways' (p. 276). Our understanding of the impact of language teacher education on teacher cognition and behaviour is emerging. Clearly, this area merits further empirical attention. Despite the growing number of recent studies on language teacher cognition, most focus is placed on the content of cognition (e.g., teacher's beliefs, knowledge or attitudes) rather than on the way cognition evolves. In response to this gap, this current study, therefore, explores the dynamic processes of how pre-service teachers develop their understandings and practices of TBLT. Insights from the development processes will add to our understanding of how student teachers develop their understanding of TBLT and how these processes can be supported through teacher education syllabus. A deeper understanding on how teachers construct and apply their understanding of TBLT is important for providing more efficacious training in TBLT teacher education curriculum.

2.12. Task-based teaching and teacher education

The beliefs conveyed and demonstrated by the student teachers speculate and reflect their thoughts and perceptions about their future teaching profession (Barker, 2012). However, teaching and learning go hand in hand in the educational process and what

teachers adopt as teaching approaches are related to the learners' learning approaches and their comprehension outcomes (Postareff, Lindblom-Ylänne & Nevgi, 2007). According to Gibbs and Coffey (2004), as long as the teaching approaches are affected by the teachers' perceptions and philosophy of teaching, teacher training should primarily be directed to raising pedagogical approaches that are mainly student-centered and be careful to acknowledge the vital role that the teacher plays in every pedagogical change and the success or failure of the pedagogical teaching training (Hattie, 2012).

Since teacher education trainings are ideally designed and arranged to create serious transformations in the educational practices (Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010), pre-service teachers have their part within the research on the effect of teacher education. Research has revealed that pre-service teachers' performance is vigorously affected by what Lortie (1975) called the 'apprenticeship of observation'. This explains the period spent by the pre-service teachers in the classroom as learners. During this academic learning period, exposure to the modelling of teaching and learning is argued to have informed the beliefs and knowledge of the training teacher (Pajares, 1992). As a result, individuals build their special teaching design (Kagan, 1992). Therefore, these beliefs root in the pre-service teachers' mind throughout time and will come up in their future classes if not changed and modified through training (Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010). The process of pre-service teacher education happens when they start moving from the status of 'learners' to the professional status of 'teacher' (Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010, p. 164) and over this process of transformation, pre-service teachers would be readier and more receptive to the training than if trained as in-service teachers. This is believed to be the case as their applicable knowledge (as in-service teachers) would already be inherited (Beijaard & Verloop, 1996). Besides, training can provide pre-service teachers with a well-protected teaching atmosphere in which the pre-service teachers thoroughly interact with the training without the pressure to perform like in-service trainees.

Notwithstanding the evidence obtained via research, it is observed that the main focus of literature regarding the task-based communicative approach (Van den Branden, 2006; Zang, 2007) pertains to the in-service teachers' views on the implementation of TBLT, rather than the possible impact of pre-service teachers' education on promoting the pedagogical teaching approaches (Van den Branden, 2009a). Moreover, literature has concentrated chiefly upon teacher performance within the classroom (Brandl, 2016;

Carless, 2004, 2012; East, 2012; Ellis, 2015; McDonough, 2015; Samuda, 2001; Shehadeh & Coombe, 2012; Van den Branden, 2006). In this context, it is generalised that the TBLT research limited itself to inspecting and noting the teachers' behaviour and perception of this approach, rather than evaluating and analysing their TBLT understanding. Thus, there is little research about the utilisation of such methods (TBLT) in teacher training and how these methods can be applied in EFL teacher training courses (Robinson, 2011; Klein & Riordan, 2011). Task-based training, as a research field, was largely neglected and remains outside of educational research (Van den Branden, 2009).

In spite of the lack of conducted research about TBLT training and TBLT acceptance and adjustment among teachers, Van den Branden's (2006) study about training the in-service teachers in Flanders revealed the success of TBLT. He claimed that because of a well-structured training programme across a period of time, along with the existence of extra support at various implementation stages, the training was to some extent successful (Van den Branden, 2006). In another study, Ogilvie and Dunn (2010) attested that TBLT implication to teacher training had a good impact on student teacher teaching innovations. This result confirms that providing pre-service teachers with pedagogical training is worthy in the effort to increase teachers' pedagogical invention in implementing TBLT.

2.13. Teachers' roles in task-based methodology

The role of the teacher is considered the fuel of education and as a vital role in the success or failure of the teaching and learning practices (Markee, 1997; Borg, 2003; Van den Branden, 2009a; Ellis & Shintani, 2014). There exists a considerable body of literature that avowed the role of the teacher as enhancing professional and educational programmes (Kagan, 1992; Vélez-Rendón, 2006). Marcus (2012) confirms that teacher education and professional development are certainly one of the leading districts that facilitate for advanced and ingenious approaches - meaning that teachers must be taught to teach well.

Despite the plethora of suggestions, teacher education is still an 'unstudied problem'. Little is known about what happens in different educational settings and how it affects teachers. Friends and foes in the world of teacher education hold different conceptions and understanding of what teaching is like, what teachers have to know and how to act to best evaluate the various proposals for reform (Freeman, 1996).

Clark and Peterson (1986) claimed that since 1975 teacher learning and thinking have become established as core concepts in educational research, which has led to a re-examination of the stories and common assumptions by which teaching, and teacher education are practiced. Until very recently, language teacher education has been slow to engage these core concepts or to pursue similar research that could inform its practices. Most conventional practices have been based on academic tradition and the need to define a professional identity for language teachers rather than on any solid, inquiry-derived understanding of what individuals need to know to teach or learn in the classrooms (Freeman, 1996).

This research is considered the first step in establishing a formal research base for language teacher education. Calls to establish a research base for language teacher education dates back to the late 1980s (Richards & Nunan, 1990), but with slow progression due to the lack of common theoretical foundation through which to organize such work (Freeman & Richards, 1993). Research confirms that there has been no shared view of the basic elements of plot, setting, and character by which to assess the different stories about language teaching that are told in teacher education, curriculum design, methodology, and so on. It is viewed that there is no common way to analyse the language education practices in order to establish a feasible and critical conversation about those practices (Freeman, 1996).

The important role of language teachers in the success or failure of a diffusion of an innovation or in training programmes is considered “obvious” by many (Markee, 1997; Borg, 2003; Van den Branden, 2009; Ellis & Shintani, 2014), but the amount of research into the effects of pre-service and in-service teachers’ training on teacher action and how training may affect their teaching performance, is still scarce (Thi & Tran, 2017).

The role of the teacher has been seen as extremely important in all educational practices, especially in relation to pedagogical changes and decisions (Hattie, 2012). Regarding teaching methods, task-based language teaching is a method where a teacher must be strongly present to facilitate the application of this method in language classes. It is argued by Ellis and Shintani (2014) that one of the most crucial factors contributing to the success of TBLT can be seen in the roles adopted by the teachers.

TBLT advocates see the role of the teacher in a TBLT class from different points of view with many studies conducted to try to prove the position of the teacher in TBLT. In

an attempt to introduce TBLT into the teaching curriculum, researchers have realized that a number of challenges and difficulties related to teachers, occurred (Adamson & Davison, 2003; Zhang, 2007; Samuda, 2001; Van den Branden, 2006, 2009a). In this vein, Littlewood (2007) conducted a study in the context of Asia, including Vietnam. He realized that the teachers demonstrated a lack of confidence in implementing TBLT due to limited capacity and practical skills. Barnard and Nguyen (2010) conducted a study examining how Vietnamese teachers trained in TBLT actually reacted in practical teaching. They found that ‘these teachers are faced with the problems of realizing an ambitious curriculum for which they had not been adequately trained’ (p.82). These studies show how teachers’ knowledge of a specific teaching method or approach may affect the teaching and learning process.

Starting with Clarke and Silberstein’s (2006) point of view of teacher action in which they claim the teacher is necessary only when the class is attempting to resolve a language problem, for it is only in this situation that the teacher is automatically assumed to possess more knowledge than the students. This role can be minimized if the students attack strategies and reading skills have been effectively developed. If the task is realistic and the students have learned to adjust their reading strategies according to the task, there should be little need for teacher intervention (p. 52).

In turn, Swan (2005) considered TBLT as a method promoting learners’ centeredness at the expense of teacher-directed instruction. He limits the role of the teacher in a TBLT course as a manager and facilitator of communicative activity rather than an important source of new language. Ellis (2009a) assumes that there is a place for teacher-centered activities in language teaching whereby the teacher is the major source of input in many teaching contexts, with some versions of TBLT being completely teacher-centered. Ellis (2009a) draws upon Prabhu’s view (1987) of the absolute role of the teacher in pre-task phase prior to the main task phase which is performed by students, individually. He argued that it is only the teacher who can provide the good models of English needed to promote interlanguage development (Ellis, 2009a, p.236). Ellis’s point of view is that the teacher is much more than a manager and facilitator of tasks. They play a crucial role to control learners’ attention and understanding of form during task performance; engaging in various types of pre-emptive and reactive focus on form (p. 236).

Ellis (2009a) opposes Swan's (2005) view of teachers as facilitators working as skilled communicators, overcoming the teacher centeredness in the classroom. Ellis criticises the notion for ignoring the TBLT's pre-task and post-task phases, and points to the necessity of input-based tasks, such as listening tasks with no direct correlation with learners' production.

Ellis (2009a) believes that the role of the teacher in a TBLT course is not limited to the former ones but it involves more teacherly roles. Thus, the role of the teacher in TBLT is no less important than any other teaching approach and TBLT is as learner-centered as it is teacher-centered (p. 237).

In Ellis's (2009a) view, Van den Branden (2006) claimed that the role of the teacher in TBLT has been represented in a set of publications (Prabhu, 1987; Samuda, 2001; Willis, 1996) where the teacher is presented as a guide, a counsellor and a coach to motivate students' task performances and provide them with clear instructions and support.

According to Van den Branden (2009a) the teacher in a TBLT course is more than providing the course content and focusing on the structure and rule in isolation of meaning; the teacher acts positively in the class, giving importance both to meaning and form when appropriate and offering a rich, relevant and communicative input.

The language teacher aiming at implementing task-based language teaching in the foreign language classroom should perform three main roles: (1) selector and sequencer of tasks; (2) preparing learners for tasks; and (3) consciousness-raising. Relevant to the first of these teacher roles, it is stressed that the language teacher has an active role in choosing, adapting and designing tasks and then building these tasks in keeping with learner needs, expectations, interests and language skill levels. Related to the second teacher role, it can be stated that some training for pre-task is prominent for language learners. These training activities may include topic introduction, specifying task instructions, assisting students in learning or recalling beneficial words and phrases to make the task accomplishment easy, and offering partial display of task process. As for the third teacher role, it can be emphasised that the teacher deploys an amalgamation of form-focusing techniques, covering attention-focusing pre-task activities, examining the given text, guided exposure to similar tasks, and employment of highlighted material (Richards and Rogers, 2001).

2.14. Teachers' training and teachers' performance

Teachers' performance may change and evolve when teachers are still learners, because once beliefs are acquired, it is very complex and demanding reshaping them. Much work has demonstrated that efficacy beliefs are high in pre-service teachers, with a drop in these teachers' beliefs of efficacy recorded within the first teaching year (Brousseau, Book, & Byers, 1988; Soodak & Podell, 1996). This explains the crucial role of pre-service teacher training in constructing and forming teacher efficacy (Demerli et al., 2015). Beliefs cannot be changed and progressed in an instant, they need much time, serenity and most importantly, availability. Thus, the period when teachers are still learners (student teacher) is considered as the appropriate time to shape their beliefs, perceptions and motivations (Demerli et al., 2015).

These education training programmes should be varied, broadening the experience beyond teaching academic content; forthcoming teachers need competence in more than one teaching facet, like combining theory to practice (Maskit, 2014) to increase the professional competence (p. 1311). Additionally, research studies mention some effective student teacher interactions (mutual, direct, face-to-face contact with the students (Demerli et al., 2015, p.22) that contribute to the success of the pre-service teacher teaching. In addition to these interactions, student teacher school experience as either trainee teacher or assistant teacher has a great impact on their professional efficacy growth (Yost, 2002) and coaches them as they shift from student teacher to a real teacher.

In this manner, teaching placement, micro teaching sessions, mentor/assistant teachers are real teaching experiences for the trainees that, in turn, give student teachers opportunities in real teaching contexts – thus reinforcing and increasing the pre-service teachers' beliefs (Hancock & Gallard, 2004). Such ongoing interaction also helps to provide and enrich theoretical and practical knowledge the student teachers will need thereafter (Chong, Wong, & Lang, 2005). For this reason, we can say that teacher training sessions are, first and foremost, very important in modelling pre-service teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and prepares them for entering the teaching world. The more student teachers attend field experiences during training, the better they will behave and interact in the classroom as in-service teachers, coping more successfully with real teaching issues. Such conclusion explains the ongoing call for rigorous and authentic preparation of the pre-service teachers' education programmes and training, outfitting them with adequate

knowledge, practices and most importantly, with high self-efficacy beliefs. Confirmed by Woolfolk-Hoy and Burke-Sperro (2005), teacher efficacy increases along the teacher training but decreases while they start real teaching experience. Thus, trainers and education policymakers should be very attentive in designing the pre-service teacher training.

2.15. Teachers' performance and practical knowledge

From the numerous definitions provided about Teachers' self-efficacy beliefs (TSE), I can simply conclude to defining them as the teachers' personal conviction and perception of their teaching abilities and competences in different cognitive, social, physical, and psychological manners. In this regard, Bandura (1986) testifies that 'among the types of thoughts that affect action, none is more central or pervasive than people's judgments of their capabilities to deal effectively with different realities' (p. 21). From this, we recognise that there is a relationship between teacher efficacy and practical knowledge. Practical knowledge is therefore 'directly related to action... readily accessible and applicable to coping with real-life situations' (Calderhead, 1996, p. 54). Several aspects of practical knowledge include the self, milieu, subject matter, curriculum and instruction (Elbaz, 1981). In this respect, over the last thirty years, numerous aspects have shaped a trinity relation between TSE beliefs, teacher behaviour and success by associating the elevated TSE beliefs with teacher behaviour that leads to success by giving attention to the greater teachers' endeavour and determination, and with positive learning results (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). Conversely, low TSE beliefs are viewed as the saboteurs that damage teachers' behaviour when they are in front of a set of teaching tasks. Nevertheless, the way questioning the TSE beliefs is viewed as vital for learning (Wheatley, 2002), and for Henson (2001), reflective thoughts are enhanced by teacher education activities that in turn have a positive influence on TSE. By means of reflection, Bandura (1986) sustains that teacher can exploit various sources for efficacy-building information, as for example 'mastery' experiences for accomplishing similar tasks. Such experiences encourage the progress of knowledge and the generation of more positive TSE beliefs (Fives & Alexander, 2004).

2.16. Teachers' performance in task-based lessons context

According to the numerous viewpoints of task definition, from a psycho-linguistic perspective, tasks are regarded as the vital instrument in supplying learners with the knowledge they require for learning. Therefore, the TBL method is considered as the appropriate method for language learning to happen and sees acquisition process in the bilateral input and output practice (Ellis, 2000). Over the last two decades or more, TBLT has remained the subject of interest in teaching and learning studies, despite not having been adequately explored or demonstrated in EFL classrooms (Carless, 2004; Jeon & Hahn, 2006). Investigation into teachers' beliefs of their performance when using TBLT in the EFL classes also remains limited (Rostamian, 2013).

Factors regarded as having potential influence on teacher beliefs and efficacy and, in turn, on their actions in the classroom include the nature of teacher attitudes and conviction of an EFL/ESL teaching methodology (Choi & Lee, 2016). For the last decade, EFL/ESL teaching methodologies have moved from passive grammar-focused approaches to more communicative and learner-centered approaches (Choi & Lee, 2016). In the teaching and learning process, the focus is on both form and content, with as Savignon (1991) claimed that the new coming teaching communicative task-based form or content offering various classroom correlations and language use opportunities.

In recent studies, the focus was on ESL/EFL teachers' self-beliefs in connection to other teacher features that form their efficacy as for example target language proficiency, emotional intelligence (Choi & Lee, 2016) and the amount of knowledge to use a new approach. This explains the number of problems encountered by teachers when communicative or task-based approaches are introduced in some Asian Pacific countries such as South Korea, Hong Kong, Japan, Turkey, Vietnam and Indonesia (Carless, 1999). Because of the few studies that have examined the relationship between performance and teachers' educational practices, less data is available. Much research and studies are needed to evaluate the impact of teaching methodologies on teachers' efficacy and practices.

In his study with Japanese EFL teachers, Nishino (2012) came to the conclusion that there is a connection between teachers' performance beliefs and teaching practice. In keeping with this assertion, in both Venezuela and Iran, Chacón (2005) and Eslami and Fatahi (2008) explored teachers' grammar and communicative practices with regard to their achievement. Thus, some indication of a relationship between teaching method and

teacher efficacy has been recorded, although information regarding the nature and parameters of the methods included is still lacking. In the few studies conducted in relation to TBLT, concern has centred around the interrelation between TBLT as a new communicative teaching approach and its impact on the teachers' psychology in general, rather than focusing on its impact on the learners' psychology. Some studies (Xiongyoung & Samuel, 2011; Jeon & Hahn, 2006; Ansari & Shahrokhi, 2011; Thi & Tran, 2017, Kusumoto, 2008) found a change in teachers' confidence after conducting a set of questions, interviews and tests in order to collect data about their understanding of TBLT, their beliefs of their teaching competence, the impact of TBLT training and others. Results about self-efficacy and TBLT were collected by Rostamian (2013) when he conducted research with 115 Iranian EFL teachers and found that most of participants have little knowledge about TBLT concepts and implications. That said, everyone showed a positive attitude and high self-efficacy level for implementing TBLT in EFL classes.

2.17. Conclusion

This chapter began by providing an overview of language education in Spain, recent trends in language teaching education, the connection between theory and practice in teacher education, and the effect of teacher education on the teachers' cognition and action. In this sense, it went over the key theoretical elements of TBLT, pre-service and in-service teachers' cognition of TBLT, and teacher action in connection to TBLT. Finally, it discussed the relationship between teachers' cognition and their performances and its implication in a TBLT context.

The next chapter describes the research design and methods used for data collection and analysis for this study.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3. Introduction

The research methodology is the backbone of any research study. Denzin and Lincoln (2005) state that a research methodology or policy is based and linked to the type of the research topic and questions in the course of investigation. This chapter holds a detailed explanation of the research. It presents all the information regarding the research method being used to conduct this research and justifies the use of this method. Additionally, the chapter lists the research sequenced phases, such as the research context, the research design, the procedures of the data collection and data analysis.

3.1. Research standard

Although researchers from distinct disciplines may have different research standards or ‘paradigms’, any research study is conducted in order to investigate a nature of reality, understand what can be discovered and what procedures and stages the researcher must follow to attain this reality. According to Patton (1990), a research paradigm ‘is a world view, a general perspective, a way of breaking down the complexity of the real world’ (p. 27). A paradigm is also introduced as an interpretative framework which is directed by ‘a set of beliefs and feelings about the world and how it should be understood and studied’ (Guba, 1990, p. 17), and it is associated with three categories of beliefs (ontology, epistemology and methodology) that researchers hold about their research (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). Ontology is, simply, what truth the researcher wants to have knowledge of (Patel, 2015). Epistemology is defined as ‘the branch of philosophy that studies the nature of knowledge and the process by which knowledge is acquired and validated’ (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2003, p. 13). Methodology is ‘an articulated, theoretically informed approach to the production of data’ (Ellen, 1984, p. 9) and ‘is concerned with the discussion of how a particular piece of research should be undertaken’ (Grix, 2004, p. 32). It conducts the research to the methods and procedures that make the research investigation possible. Additionally, the literature correlated the research paradigm to different educational approaches like positivism, constructivism, pragmatism and critical theory (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016). These three approaches are used in research individually, which means that the researcher cannot mix two or three paradigms in one research inquiry (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016). That is why the researcher depended on constructivism as a research epistemology in the present study.

Constructivism is fundamentally a theory that is interested in observation and how people construct their own comprehension and knowledge of the world (Waters & Mehay, 2010). However, there are two types of constructivism: social and educational constructivism. Constructivism in education is referred to the knowledge constructed by the learner when new information comes into contact with existing knowledge that had been developed by experiences. This means that in an educational constructive process, the learner is the information constructor under which a set of circumstances and new information are linked to the previous knowledge and each learner has his/her construction and interpretation of said knowledge. In Table 6, an overview of each paradigm was explained in addition to including my own research paradigm, sitting between one of the paradigms.

Table 6

Concise analysis of positivism, constructivism and pragmatism (*adapted from Crotty, 1998 and Patel, 2015*).

Paradigm	Ontology	Epistemology	Methodology	Methods
	<i>What is reality?</i>	<i>How do you know reality?</i>	<i>What procedures are required for a study?</i>	<i>What techniques or instruments for data collection and analysis?</i>
Positivism	Positivists believe that there is no absolute truth. (More realist)	The epistemological position of positivists is the same of objectivists.	Positivists rely massively on experimentations.	Quantitative data: Sampling Measurement and scaling Statistical analysis Questionnaire Focus group Interview

Constructivism*	There is no single reality or truth. Reality is created by individuals in groups (less realist).	Reality needs to be explained and made clear. It is used to discover the underlying meaning of events and activities.	Ethnography Grounded theory Phenomenological research Action research Discourse analysis Feminist Standpoint research, etc.	Qualitative data: Interview Observation Participant Non participant Case study Life history Narrative Theme identification, etc.
Pragmatism	Reality is regularly renegotiated, debated, interpreted in light of its usefulness in new unexpected situations	The best method is one that solves problems. Finding out is the means and change is the aim	Mixed methods Design-based researched Action research	Mix all the above tools and more, such as data mining expert review ... etc.

3.2. My research paradigm

When I started collecting information about the appropriate and formal paradigm for my own research, I found myself overwhelmed by the eclectic range of possible methods and paradigms, unsure which were the most appropriate. In addition to that, the answers to any research questions cannot be solved in an informal manner – the reader needs to know and trust research methodology, rendering it essential for me to provide a step-by-step breakdown of how the research proceeded and how I reached the answers to the research question. Besides, every research should have some characteristics; these research characteristics give the study meaning and value. In my selection process of research methods and techniques I learnt that the less the researcher pursues a well-defined path to conduct the research, the less they will be able to justify their findings to the readers. Additionally, other researchers might not be able to replicate the study nor learn from it. In this respect, I confirm that a paradigm provides the researcher a guide to follow throughout the research and makes for clearer documentation. Constructivism is

the educational paradigm followed in the present study, with some adjustments and modifications; Figure 6 demonstrates my constructive procedures at the ontological, epistemological and methodological levels.

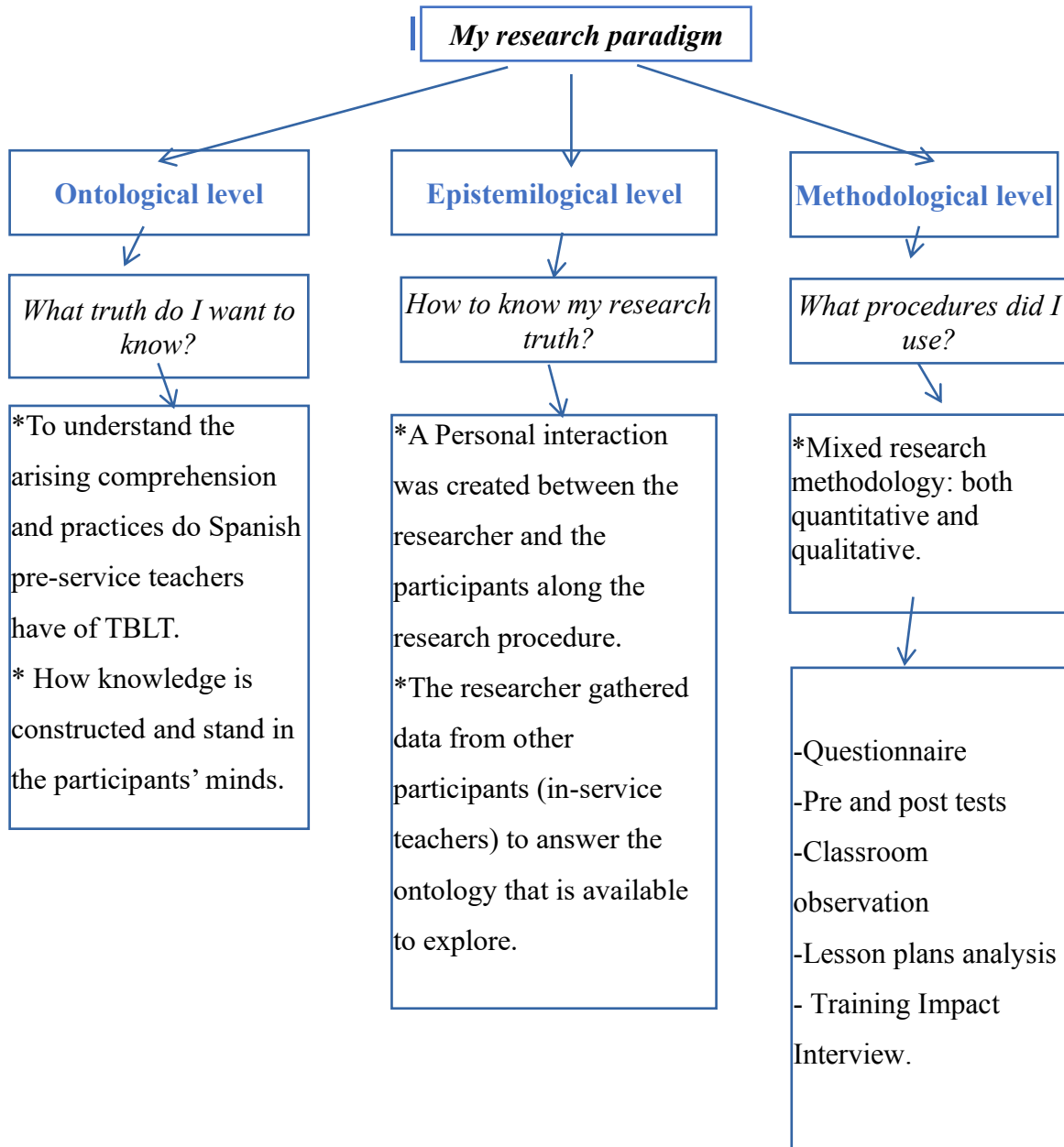


Figure 6. Constructivist research paradigm designed by the researcher

3.3. The research design constructed by the researcher

A mixed research approach was taken, where both quantitative and qualitative characteristics were linked and adopted for the purposes of this research. The successful

design aids thorough understanding of my research problem, confidence when drawing conclusions and when encountering research from all sides, providing solid results. A prerequisite for accuracy in this study was the accessing to fruitful and valuable information about both pre-service and in-service teachers' insights into the implementation of TBLT in elementary schools, and their attitudes towards providing experienced and novice teachers with a TBLT training in Spain.

The rationale behind the use of a mixed research method is to amplify breadth and depth of my understanding of the research, to enlarge and reinforce the research's conclusions (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007; O'Cathain, Murphy, & Nicholl, 2010) and, for this purpose, to contribute to the mainstream literature. With neither qualitative nor quantitative methods sufficient to stand by themselves and supply adequate and decent details of a proposed research (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011), this blended approach is argued to be one, if not, the most central premise of the pragmatic philosophical reasoning in research today (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003; Ihuah & Eaton, 2013). Thus, the use of the mixed method in this work strengthened the comprehension of the quantitative data that was refined and pursued by a qualitative data.

It is believed that the qualitative method is capable of gathering vast amounts of data allowing the researcher to make use of what is needed for the purposes of the research. Quantitative method data, however, is mainly quantified by numbers and can be ranked into various categories where statistics are used to interpret data (Antonius, 2003). Thus, in this sequential process, I wanted numerical general findings (quantitative) to be followed-up by the qualitative findings. To this end, the study starts by a quantitative method in order for the preliminary found data to be searched and tested accurately through a qualitative method (Creswell, 2003).

3.4. Context of the study

This part sets the scene for this research. The research location and period, the research participants and instruments are explained below.

3.4.1. Research location and period

The research took place in the south of Spain (Andalucía) and was conducted at Granada University, Faculty of Educational Sciences, and at various elementary (public/

private and bilingual/non-bilingual) schools in Granada. The research was held during the academic year 2017/2018.

The Faculty of Educational Sciences consists of several departments such as the one of Didactics of Language and Literature (Didáctica de la Lengua y la Literatura) home to specialities in early childhood, elementary teaching and bilingual elementary teaching grades, where my research study took place. This faculty prepares students for a career in teaching, providing training for different educational stages and within different specialities. Primary EFL pre-service teachers are required to complete four years of study at the university and in the fourth year they attend one semester of EFL courses, completing a teaching placement in a primary school during the second semester.

3.4.2. Research participants

The study was conducted with a sample of both in-service and pre-service teachers grouped according to the research phase (1st and 2nd semesters).

3.4.2.1. In-service teachers

The researcher selected a group of 76 Spanish primary EFL in-service teachers from elementary schools employed in Granada (aged 28-53). The group of teachers selected for this study encompassed both male (16) and female (60) senior professionals, as well as junior teachers. All the participants were teaching in Granada (64) either in public or private schools.

3.4.2.2. Pre-service teachers

The group of pre-service teachers selected for this research were student teachers at Granada University, majoring in English as a Foreign Language. The participants are student teachers, studying for 4 years at the university. The selected participants were in their last year (4th). The sample members were selected on the basis of convenience sampling, and the participants ranged from 20 to 23 years of age. They were carefully nominated to two groups: experimental (Group A) and control group (Group B). Therefore, the experimental group attended the TBLT training in the first semester, whereas the control group followed a non-TBLT training (i.e. a training course with no focus on TBLT). The groups were convenient to the research in order to reach the research objectives. The former had enrolled in the course voluntarily and all the participants, from both groups and both genders, showed a high acceptance to take part in this research. The participants' number and gender are described in Table 7.

Table 7

The participants' number and gender

	Male	Female	Total
Experimental group	13	16	29
Control group	12	14	26

In this year, the students had a set of courses to accomplish in the first semester. One of the courses attended was a 'Teacher Training for Primary Education' course. In the second semester, the student teachers had to complete a school placement at different elementary schools around Granada, provided by the university. In this school placement, some participants had the chance to teach as assistant teachers accompanied by the main teacher in the selected school, whereas other student teachers did not have this opportunity – instead only attending and observing the target primary education group.

Moreover, from the total sample of the groups, a number of six participants (2 males and 4 females) were drawn from the experimental group only to continue participating in the research during the second semester of 2018. The participants are described in Table 8.

Table 8

Socio-demographic information about the participants who took part in the last research phase

Participant	Age	Gender	Teaching experience
Student teacher 1	21	Female	Studying and teaching English in a private school in Granada
Student teacher 2	21	Female	One-year teaching experience in Granada
Student teacher 3	20	Male	Studying and teaching English twice a week in a language school in Granada
Student teacher 4	22	Male	Six months teaching experience in a private school in Malaga.
Student teacher 5	20	Female	Studying and teaching English twice a week in a language school in Granada

Student teacher 6	22	Female	Studying and teaching English in a language school in Granada
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3.4.3. Research instruments

As stated above, data was collected through an explanatory sequential mixed method (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011) using three main research instruments: questionnaires (pre/post-tests), classroom observation and interviews. Since the research contained both quantitative and qualitative methods, the instruments were used according to the targeted data. The schedule of the research instruments used and distribution are detailed in Table 9 below.

Table 9

The schedule of the use and distribution of the research instruments

Research instrument	Target population	Distribution period
Questionnaire	In-service teachers	Along the 1 st semester of 2017
Pre-test questionnaire Post-test questionnaire	Pre-service teachers (experimental and control groups)	From September 2017 until December 2017
Classroom observation	Pre-service teachers (experimental and control groups)	From September 2017 until December 20217
Semi-structured interview	Six participants from the experimental group	Beginning of the 2 nd semester of 2018
Training impact interview	Six participants from the experimental group	End of the 2 nd semester of 2018

In order to collect reliable data that led to informative and credible findings, fitting the literature review and providing future researchers with a solid methodological research, the current research instruments were convenient to the sample population and data collective via either qualitative or quantitative method.

Firstly, unstructured interviews were used throughout the research with both in-service and per-service teachers. However, the questionnaire was used with in-service teachers. The aim of the questionnaire (see appendix 1) was to collect as much information as possible from the in-service teachers in order to pave the way for the next phase of the research. All the used instruments were adapted and developed from Jeon

and Hahn's Teacher Questionnaire (2006) and Tschannen-Moran & Hoy (2007) and TALIS (2013). Secondly, a pre-test and post-test questionnaire was designed for the pre-service teachers (see appendix 2). Thirdly, the classroom observation was unstructured, the researcher attending the class to better understand the lessons introduced during the training. Its main aim was to observe the teaching atmosphere, the content of the lesson of the training and control the students' engagement during the first semester in both groups (experimental and control). Fourthly, an in-depth unstructured interview (see appendix 3) was incorporated into the research in order to initiate the second phase with a group of six selected students from the experimental group. The unstructured-group interview was used to maximize the depth and richness of the data to answer the research questions by bringing together the participants' experiences and feedback. The interview period lasted approximately between 20 and 30 minutes. Finally, a training impact interview was conducted (see appendix 4) after finishing the school placement in order to interpret their last understanding, attitudes, perceptions of the whole academic year and to monitor the latest beliefs and feelings as future teachers.

3.4.3.1. Unstructured interviewing

Unstructured interviewing is regarded as the most flexible and unrestricted interviewing strategy (Patton, 2002). It is a technique where the researcher participates in naturally unfolding events, and observes them as objectively as possible. For the purpose of this study, this type of conversation is used along the research process, favoured due to considerable benefits in comparison to semi-structured interviews. Primarily, the interview is organized in a conversational way that is friendly and able to exclude any worry that the participant might possess (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2011; Maxwell 2005). In virtue of unstructured interviewing, the respondent can express their feelings and answer the questions amply, compared to structured interviews (Patton 2002). Timing in unstructured interviews is not an obstacle because it can be conducted at any moment that is appropriate for both the researcher and the respondent. As this type of research instrument is not based on a list of prepared questions, the interviewer can ask many questions that are open-ended and gain in-depth comprehension of the respondent on a distinct topic (Patton, 1987). For these reasons. The researcher found that such type of research instrument would be adequate to the data collection process in such type of research. The researcher did not depend on recording the interviews, so that the

participants felt more comfortable when answering the questions. Instead, she took notes in the form of handwriting, written up into comprehensible sentences and paragraphs to use later in the data analysis. In the current study, unstructured interviews were utilized, sometimes face to face interviews and sometimes by phone or WhatsApp (oral/written conversations). The aim behind using unstructured interviewing throughout the research process is to construct a friendly relation with the participants and to best catch the pre-service teachers' authentic attitudes and perspectives towards TBLT in general, the training module in particular. For instance, a question like 'how did you find the lesson today?' was repetitively used after the end of the session so that the participants could explain their contemporary feelings and intentions that cannot be expressed in the same manner in questionnaires or structured interviews. In this respect, the unstructured interviews were very helpful in pre-service teachers' lesson preparation and presentation period because it answered the question of 'how' the pre-service teachers had prepared and presented their lesson plans. In this manner, unstructured interviewing reinforced the view of how the pre-service teachers' "cognitions" were reflected in their 'principles of selection' (Bernstein 1977) in the lesson plans and their 'actions' in the classrooms. For these conveniences, unstructured interviews permitted the researcher to be in contact with the participants at any time that was appropriate for both. In this respect, the researcher depended on unstructured interviews because they confirmed their functional aspect for collecting information about pre-service teachers' beliefs and cognition progress towards TBLT.

3.4.3.2. Classroom observation

In the current study, the classroom observation was used in parallel with the unstructured interviewing in phase two of the research. This combination was for the purpose of monitoring pre-service teachers' action in the TBLT training as a university module and for the sake of improving research instruments that would be used in phase three of the study. In addition, classroom observation was used in this phase in particular to evaluate the TBLT training programme and its content, rather than to analyse the pre-service teachers' engagement in the training. As such, it was esteemed by Patton (2002) that classroom observation is a tool that permits the researcher to view actions and detect points that may not be clear when using other research instruments like interviews, journals, etc. Furthermore, it supplies the researcher with more truthful information than

other self-reported instruments (Dörnyei, 2007). Hypothetically, classroom observations in the present study were used to evaluate the TBLT programme and to measure whether the programme was meeting the research goal. In this sense, Duff (2008) has theorized that, for better results, observation should be run with interviews during the research process. In the present study, classroom observation was carried out on a weekly basis (twice a week). The unstructured interviews were conducted during the TBLT training with classroom observations, either at the beginning or at the end of the course in order to collect as much detail as possible (Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh, 1996). In this sense, data of what the teacher taught during the training provided a concrete description of what the teacher and the pre-service teachers thought and did in the classroom.

3.4.3.3. Questionnaire

To obtain reliable data, the researcher used an adapted version of a validated questionnaire designed by Jeon and Hahn (2006) to explore Spanish EFL teachers' perceptions and beliefs of TBLT in the Spanish educational context. The questionnaire looks for demographic information about the respondents' degree, gender, age, and years of teaching experience, respectively. As such, perception is comprehended as a form consisting of two primary elements: (1) the participants' conception of TBLT approach which focuses on investigating the participants' awareness of the theoretical and practical of TBLT, and (2) the participants' view of implementing TBLT in the classroom setting, which is aimed to bring to light their personal feelings, attitudes and evaluative assessments of utilizing TBLT approach in an EFL context. In this manner, the first section of the questionnaire (items 1–7) is aimed to explore teachers' understanding of the concept of task and principles of TBLT, while the second (items 8–15) targets teachers' view of the implementation of TBLT. The respondents are expected to answer using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*. The questionnaire was modified to be used with the pre-service teachers as a pre- and post-test instrument. In addition to the teachers' questionnaire, the researcher added a section to explore pre-service teachers' beliefs towards the TBLT training.

3.4.3.4. Lesson plans framework

The researcher evaluated the effect of the TBLT training programme on the pre-service teachers' ability to construct a task-based lesson plan. As stated in chapter 3, one of the tasks put to the pre-service teachers during the TBLT module and the school placement was to plan a task-based lesson, in pairs, and present it in front of the class during the TBLT training practice. As a practice, each pair planned the lesson and submitted it to the teacher trainer before the actual presentation for feedback. Every Wednesday, a pair of pre-service teachers was given 10 minutes to present the lesson plan in front of the whole class. To investigate the process of the pedagogical planning, I conducted unstructured interviews with 3 pairs of student teachers separately after the classroom presentation of the lesson plan. To investigate the lesson, I analysed the lesson plans using Ellis's (2003) framework as a reference. This framework defines tasks by outlining a coding scheme. The analysis was informed by the teacher trainer feedback and the pre-service teachers' comments. The feedback and comments were based on three main criteria of evaluation: pedagogical value, originality of the lesson plan, degree of taskness and the use of English, rather than looking at the authentic delivery of the lesson.

3.5. Data collection process

As the research was conducted across an entire academic year, the research has run through sequential phases.

3.5.1. Phase one: conception

As it is mentioned earlier, a questionnaire was adapted to obtain credible data and insights from the target population. So that, the questionnaire (see appendix 1) was first distributed to 76 in-service teachers during the first semester of 2017 to collect quantitative data about the teachers' understanding, perceptions and attitudes. These understandings and attitudes were in relation to English teaching in general, the use of TBLT as a new communicative approach and how these beliefs affected their actions, as both experienced and novice teachers.

During this phase, the researcher assorted and identified her impressions as to decide which activities to include in phase II. Hypothesising, taking decisions, and outlining ideas were some of the processes activated at this time. The researcher named this tier 'conception phase' and considered it as the first phase where she designed the

structure and planned for the next two phases. At this stage, the researcher first formulated the final research questions and determined the purpose of the study. Second, she searched and reviewed the literature related to the regarding research problem and developed a framework. Third, she developed the theoretical frame of the future research. Finally, she formulated hypotheses which should be confirmed or refuted in the present study and in future research as well.

3.5.2. Phase two: experiment

At this phase, discussions between the researcher and the two lecturers (tutor) responsible for the pre-service teachers' groups (A/B) took place prior to the course. Permission was obtained to attend one session with them in order to collect data about the prospective participants before they started the training. After the attendance sessions, there was some general discussion with the participants to better understand these Spanish pre-service teachers and their behaviour and presence in an EFL class. These discussions clarified to what extent the students were social and open minded.

During the first semester, the researcher regularly attended the 'Teacher Training for Primary Education' course with the participants to make classroom observations, and analyze and collect an overview of the teaching atmosphere.

3.5.2.1. Pre-test

The pre-assessment test was given to both the experimental and control groups to determine what knowledge they had of TBLT and their beliefs about TBLT and language teaching. The pre-test questionnaire (see appendix 2) was distributed to all the participants at the beginning of the course and it consisted of 20 items with 3 sections.

The researcher attended regularly the theoretical (Mondays) and practical sessions (Wednesdays) with both groups. Observations of these lessons were made, with particular scrutiny focused upon the lesson content and the student engagement and knowledge of this training. By the end of the course, the researcher distributed a post-test for both groups to collect data about the participants' attitudes and conceptions of the training they had had during the first semester.

3.5.2.2. The experiment

It was conducted over 3 months and, during this time, the control group had a training without an in-depth learning about TBLT. This means that student teachers

learned about all the teaching methods including TBLT but not the way the experimental group learned about TBLT. The TBLT training was administered to the experimental Group (A) during the first semester (\cong 3 months) of the academic year 2017/2018. The training was developed by a tutor, a TBLT advocate who believes in the idea of ‘training future EFL teachers to use TBLT in their future teaching practice’. The sessions were divided into theoretical and practical lessons.

Whilst the researcher did attend the theoretical sessions, the focus was on the practical sessions where the performance of the students was observed and analysed in detail. The practical sessions were based on student presentations in which they, in pairs, prepared and presented lesson plans. On the first day of the course (10/09/2017), participants were provided with a sample lesson plan for them to follow by the tutor. They were then given 15 minutes to think about their own lesson topic and a lesson plan drawing on the knowledge they would acquire during the TBLT theoretical session. Participants agreed their presentation dates with the tutor, as illustrated in Table 10.

Table 10

The dates of the practical lesson during the TBLT training course.

October (2017)	November (2017)	December (2017)
18 th	8 th	13 th
25 th	15 th	
	22 nd	
	29 th	

On the other hand, the control Group (B) studied the same course ‘Teacher Training for Primary Education’, however the course taught to the control group differed (at the content level) from the TBLT training taught to the focus group. This teacher training course was not based on TBLT and was, for the most part, theoretical. The duration of the courses was approximately the same yet the number of lessons were fewer than in the focus group.

3.5.2.3. *Post-test*

After the experiment, a post-test questionnaire (see appendix 2) was administered to all groups to measure the participants’ comprehension of TBLT and to compare the results between pre- and post-tests that would be processed into data. The researcher used

the same test with new questions in the post-test in order to establish the effect of this training on non-TBLT training participants.

3.5.3. Phase three: school placement

In this phase of research, qualitative data was extracted after the quantitative data collection phase took place during the first semester of 2017. The qualitative phase involved the administering of all interviews (see appendix 4) to the pre-service teachers.

In this semester, both groups (focus/control) were required to attend teaching placements at different elementary schools selected by the Faculty of Educational Studies. In this phase, the participants moved from the theoretical teaching knowledge to practicing this knowledge in a real teaching context. From all the participants of the focus group, the researcher selected six student teachers (five females and one male) as participants for the latter stage of the research. Before the beginning of the placement, a semi-structured interview (see appendix 3) was conducted (by February, 2018) in order to gather detailed information about what they had learnt from the TBLT training during the first semester. These interviews explored participant preparedness, awareness of the upcoming teaching placement and the extent of psychological readiness to perform as a novice teacher. The researcher was in contact with the participants throughout the teaching period. The conducted interviews aimed to generate the participants' ideas, thoughts and conceptions about a perfect training for the pre-service teachers, according to their TBLT training and teaching experience along the academic year. The three data collection phases are summarised in figure 7 below.

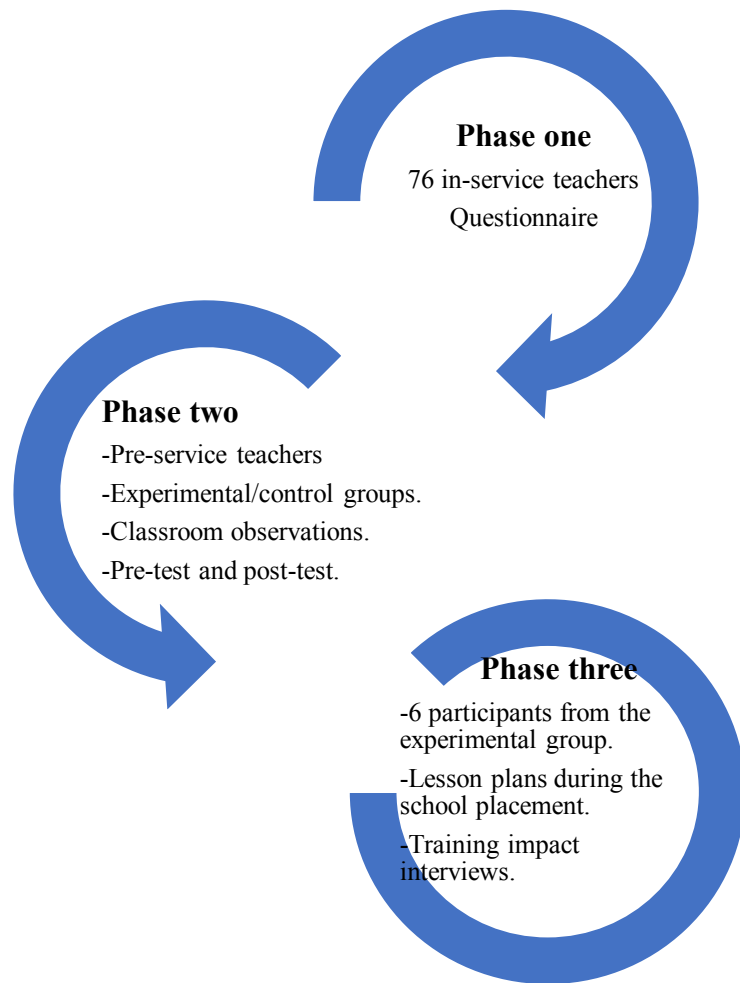


Figure 7. The summary of the three phases for the data collection process

3.5.3.1. Training impact interview data analysis method

Because of the researcher's inability to observe the pre-service teachers during their school placement, she relied on a training impact interview (see appendix 4) as an alternative. The training impact interview was conducted with each student teacher after finishing the school placement. The purpose was to study their awareness including what reasoning lay behind their teaching cognition and actions in the classroom (Ryan, 2012). Most of the general training impact interview questions were adapted from Torres, Preskill & Piontek (2005) questionnaire and conducted during the week after the teaching practicum, as to avoid an issue of memory decay (Mackey, Gass & McDonough, 2000). The participants' answers were written and tools for data analysis were selected regarding the qualitative data to elicit meaning from the collected data and formulate realistic and

practical conclusions (Polit & Beck, 2006). In this part, data was presented in words and themes, which made it possible to come out some interpretation of the results. The researcher followed a ‘manifest analysis’ where she described what the student-teachers actually said by staying very close to the text, and used the participants’ words. Additionally, as it is apparent in figure 8, four main stages have been followed: *the decontextualisation, the recontextualisation, the categorisation, and the compilation* (Bengtsson, 2016).

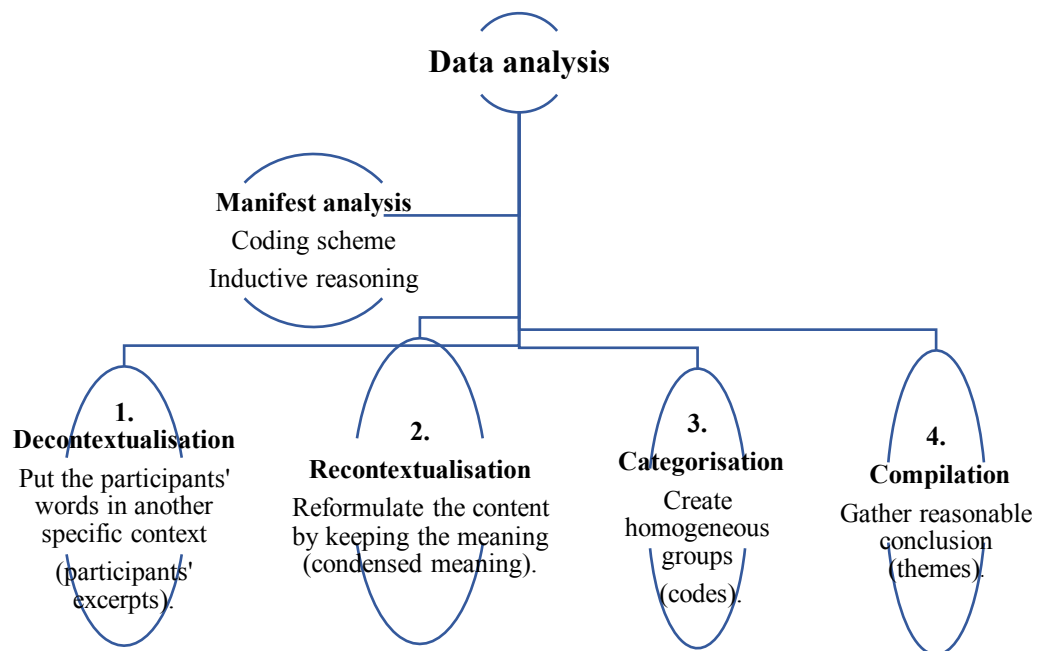


Figure 8. Training impact interview data analysis method.

The researcher followed this method to analyse all the qualitative research instruments and even the open-ended questions like the question in the teachers’ questionnaire, or the student-teachers comments about the lesson they planned during the TBLT training and the school placement. Table 11 depicts an example of the process the researcher followed to analyse the interview questions and all the qualitative data instruments. The researcher depended on this process to facilitate the analysis of the qualitative data and to better come out with the themes and order them.

Table 11

A sample of the qualitative data analysis procedures

Participants' excerpts	Condensed meaning	Code	Themes
<p>-TBLT training helped me to construct a task-based lesson plan (student teacher 1).</p> <p>- The TBLT training reinforced my attention to some teaching techniques that I did not know before (student teacher 3).</p>	<p>-Be able to plan a TBLT lesson.</p> <p>-Learn new teaching techniques.</p>	Positive feelings	Lesson planning and TBLT.
<p>-The training helped me value every learning skill without focussing on one skill than another (student teacher 2).</p> <p>- I have learned that the 4 skills should be taught similarly and at the same average (student teacher 4).</p> <p>-</p> <p>-</p> <p>-</p> <p>-</p>	<p>-Focus on the 4 skills.</p> <p>-Include all the 4 skills in the lesson.</p>	Beliefs	Perception of the importance of teaching the 4 skills.

- A) Validity of the instrument: It is important to know if the study tools measured what was intended. This can be tested in different ways, one of them is by looking at content validity which is ‘a measure of accuracy that involves formal review by individuals who are experts in the subject matter’ (Litwin, 1995, p. 82). This investigation was undertaken as a part of doctoral dissertation requirement. So, this study was conducted under the supervision of a committee that gave support through the entire research process and thus obtained the construct validity that Litwin (1995) recommended.
- B) Reliability of the instrument: it refers to the ‘degree of stability exhibited when a measurement is repeated under identical conditions’ (Litwin, 1995, p. 84). The Cronbach Alpha coefficient was used to find the reliability of the questionnaire. The reliability value of study was (0.827) which is high, and suitable for scientific purposes.

3.6. Data analysis process

The data analysis process commenced with a basic data check, checking for errors or empty fields that were missed by the respondent. After preparing the data, it was coded and categorised according to the research ethics. At this point, the data was ready for the researcher to report. Time taken for collecting data, inclusive of the aforementioned procedures and use of research tools, took more than six months, exceeding initial expectations. The collected data was analysed quantitatively and qualitatively. As the present research encountered different types of sampling, relied on more than one method to collect data from various sources and with various research tools, the technique of triangulation was maintained in order to analyse the collected data from different perspectives and ease the confirmation of the findings.

The questionnaire data analysis was a combination of both descriptive and inferential analysis. After collecting the qualitative data, the researcher read all the respondents’ answers, rereading several times before coding the answers and analysing the documented information in a content analysis method.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

4. Introduction

This chapter explores both the analyses of the collected data related to in-service and pre-service EFL teachers' attitudes and beliefs towards TBLT training, and the review of the research findings. The present research combined three types of research instruments in order to conduct the study (namely, questionnaires, pre/post tests and interviews). This study is strongly characterised by its admission to the numerous sources of information for the implementation and use of TBLT among a specific category in Spain. The triangulation of data allowed the researcher to measure the same study through multiple sources. My research journey consists of three phases: phase one, the teacher questionnaire (conducted to establish a general idea about the Spanish EFL teachers' attitudes towards their teaching, especially with regards to TBLT). Phase two, the pre-and post-test (carried out during a semester to examine the potential impact TBLT training has on participants' beliefs, attitudes and preparedness to teach English in the near future). Stage three, the training impact interview with six pre-service teachers after the TBLT training (carried out to obtain qualitative data for an in-depth understanding of teacher beliefs and the learning and behavioural impact of the TBLT training on the pre-service teachers of English). The data obtained through the three research methods were complementary to each other.

4.1. Results of the first tool (phase 1)

During phase one of the research, 76 in-service teachers filled out the questionnaire (see appendix 1). The aim was to ascertain in-service teachers' understandings, perceptions and beliefs about TBLT, and the training of teachers, using such approach in their classes. These findings were adopted to pave the way for the research procedure with the pre-service teachers (stage 2). The questionnaire was divided into 5 sections. The first gathered teachers' demographic information; the second focused on teachers' knowledge of TBLT; the third dealt with teachers' views on implementing TBLT in their classes; the fourth explored teachers' reasons to use or avoid TBLT in their classes; and the last section addressed the teachers' teaching training experience.

4.1.1. Teachers' demographic statistics (section 1)

Table 12 presents the demographic information of the participants. Out of 76 participants, 16 were males and 60 females. As for their age, six were under thirty, thirty-three teachers aged between thirty-one and forty, and thirty-seven teachers were over the age of forty. Almost half of the teachers (42.1%) had teaching experience of between 10

to 20 years, thirteen teachers had less than five years, and only eight teachers had a teaching experience over 20 years.

Table12
Teachers' demographic statistics

		N	%
Gender	Males	16	21.05
	Females	60	78.94
Age			
	Under 30	18	23.68
	31-40	28	36.84
	Over 40	30	39.47
Work experience			
	Less than 5 years	23	30.26
	10 to 20years	32	42.10
	more than 20 years	21	27.63

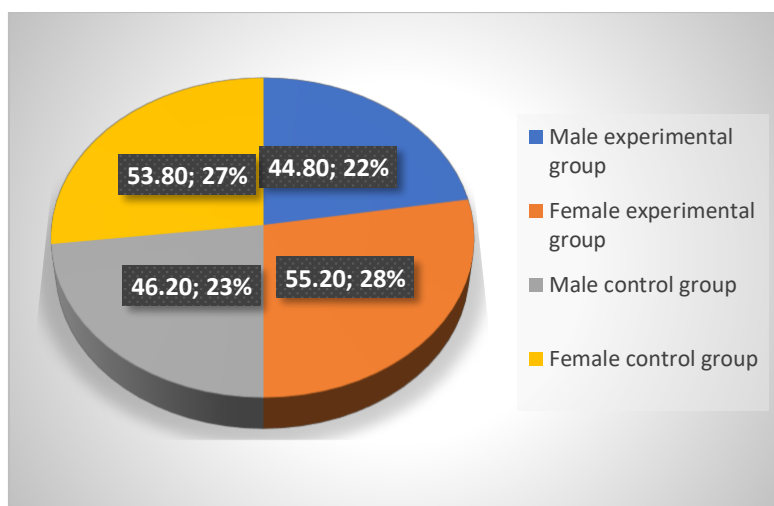


Figure 9. Teacher' demographic statistics

4.1.2. Teachers' knowledge of TBLT (section 2)

Table 13 presents a comparison of the percentage of teachers' answers to the first seven questions and explores their understanding of TBLT concepts according to their teaching experiences. In order to have a reliable comparison of the seven items, the five-point Likert scale responses were condensed into a three-point scale, containing originally 'strongly disagree', 'disagree', 'neutral', 'agree' and 'strongly agree'.

Throughout the data analysis process, the researcher realised that in this section the participants' answers slightly differed according to the number of years the teachers had

taught. In response to the seven items, teachers' answers varied between agree, strongly agree and neutral with no disagreement or strong disagreement. As it is mentioned in Table 12, despite the knowledge that all teachers had of TBLT, some teachers neither agree nor disagree, instead they chose *neutral*. However, the teachers who had a teaching experience of less than 5 years, and from 10 to 20 years, had more knowledge and understanding of TBLT concepts in comparison to the teachers who had a teaching experience of above 20 years. In response to all seven questions, some teachers with more than 20 years teaching experience were not sure of their answers and some of them neither agree or strongly agree, nor disagree or strongly disagree.

Regarding the findings related to item 1, investigating the teachers' understanding of task as a concept, 27.6% of teachers with over 20 years of teaching experience were not certain whether a task was communicatively goal directed.

In response to items 2 through 4, which explored key concepts of task, 19% did not view that a task involves a primary focus on meaning, a clearly defined outcome and did not consider a task as a kind of activity through which the target language is used by the learner. This implies that more experienced teachers do not generally agree or strongly agree with the definition of task.

In response to item 5, 42.8% of the teachers with more than 20 years of teaching experience did not know that TBLT is a learner-centred approach rather than teacher-centred.

The results of items 6 and 7, which were about the instructional pedagogy and stages of task-based learning, showed that 23.8% of experienced teachers did not view TBLT as a subbranch of communicative language teaching and were not sure of the three stages of TBLT. These results suggest that the teachers who were neutral in their answers were probably not familiar with TBLT and were not using such an approach in their own language classroom practices.

Table 13

Teachers' knowledge of TBLT according to their teaching experience.

Statement	Work experience	Strongly disagree/Disagree		Neutral		Strongly agree/Agree	
		N	%	N	%	N	%

1	A task is a communicative goal directed	Less than 5 years	0	0	0	0	23	100
		10 to 20 years	0	0	1	3.12	31	96.87
		More than 20 years		0	5	23.80	16	76.19
2	A task involves a primary focus on meaning	Less than 5 years	0	0	0		23	100
		10 to 20 years	0	0	1	3.12	31	96.87
		More than 20 years	0	0	4	19.04	17	80.95
3	A task has a clearly defined outcome	Less than 5 years	0	0	0	0	23	100
		10 to 20 years		0	0	0	32	100
		More than 20 years	0	0	4	19.04	17	80.95
4	A task is an activity in which the target language is used by the learner	Less than 5 years	0	0	0	0	23	100
		10 to 20 years	0	0	1	3.12	31	96.87
		More than 20 years	0	0	4	19.04	17	80.95
5	TBLT supports learner-centeredness rather than teacher-centeredness	Less than 5 years	0	0	1	4.34	22	95.65
		10 to 20 years	0	0	1	3.12	31	96.87
		More than 20 years	0	0	9	42.85	13	61.90
6	TBLT is a sub-branch of communicative language teaching	Less than 5 years	0	0	1	4.34	22	96.65
		10 to 20 years	0	0	1	3.12	31	96.87
		More than 20 years	0	0	5	23.80	16	76.19
7	TBLT includes three stages: pre-task, task-implementation, and post-task	Less than 5 years	0	0	0	0	23	100
		10 to 20 years	0	0	1	3.12	31	97.87
		More than 20 years	0	0	5	23.80	16	76.19

4.1.3. Teachers' views on implementing TBLT (section 3)

In this part of the research, Table 14 indicates the aspects of teachers' positions towards implementing TBLT in comparison to their age group. As it is mentioned above, there are three age groups and the respondents' answers varied according to the age group they belonged to. In response to item 8, most of the teachers who understand TBLT are those with less than 5 years of teaching experience. 88.8% of teachers under 30 and teachers between 31 and 40 (85.7%) had positive attitudes towards TBLT implementation in contrast to the group of teachers above the age 40, who indicated their lack of interest in carrying a task-based lesson in their classes. 83.3% of this older group disagreed or strongly disagreed in implementing TBLT. This implies that less experienced and novice teachers might bring about the adoption of tasks in their teaching.

Table 14
Teachers' views on implementing TBLT

	Statement	Work experience	Strongly disagree/Disagree		Neutral		Strongly agree/Agree	
			N	%	N	%	N	%
1	A task is a communicative goal directed	Less than 5 years	0	0	0	0	23	100
		10 to 20 years	0	0	1	3.12	31	96.87
		More than 20 years		0	5	23.80	16	76.19
2	A task involves a primary focus on meaning	Less than 5 years	0	0	0		23	100
		10 to 20 years	0	0	1	3.12	31	96.87
		More than 20 years	0	0	4	19.04	17	80.95
3	A task has a clearly defined outcome	Less than 5 years	0	0	0	0	23	100
		10 to 20 years		0	0	0	32	100
		More than 20 years	0	0	4	19.04	17	80.95
4	A task is an activity in which the target language is used by the learner	Less than 5 years	0	0	0	0	23	100
		10 to 20 years	0	0	1	3.12	31	96.87
		More than 20 years	0	0	4	19.04	17	80.95
5	TBLT supports	Less than 5 years	0	0	1	4.34	22	95.65

	learner-centeredness rather than teacher-centeredness	years						
		10 to 20 years	0	0	1	3.12	31	96.87
6	TBLT is a sub-branch of communicative language teaching	More than 20 years	0	0	9	42.85	13	61.90
		Less than 5 years	0	0	1	4.34	22	96.65
		10 to 20 years	0	0	1	3.12	31	96.87
7	TBLT includes three stages: pre-task, task-implementation, and post-task	More than 20 years	0	0	5	23.80	16	76.19
		Less than 5 years	0	0	0	0	23	100
		10 to 20 years	0	0	1	3.12	31	97.87
		More than 20 years	0	0	5	23.80	16	76.19

Items 9 to 11 tried to elicit information about teachers' awareness of TBLT as a teaching approach. Most of the young teachers (<30) and teachers between 31-40 believed that TBLT provides a relaxed atmosphere to promote the target language use (94.4%, 82.1%) and activates learners needs and interests (100%). Agreement and strong agreement were shown regarding the fact that TBLT pursues the development of integrated skills (88.8%, 78.5%). Items 12 and 13 explored the role of the teacher in managing the TBLT pressure and in preparing a task-based lesson. Whilst the majority of teachers in the three age groups (<30=100%, 31-40=89.2%, > 40=93.3%) respectively strongly agreed and agreed that TBLT is a highly demanding approach and teachers would spend more preparation time compared to other teaching approaches. Only teachers under 30 (83.3%) strongly disagreed or disagreed that TBLT gives teachers psychological burden and pressure. However, teachers between 31-40 (75%) and teachers above 40 (73.3%) strongly agreed and believed that TBLT may encumber teachers at the psychological level. For item 14, even though the group of teachers under 30 (72.2%) agreed, the majority of the participants in groups of teachers between 31 and 40 (50%) and above 40 (60%) showed their uncertainty of TBLT as a proper approach for classroom management. In the end, item 15 gives more balanced results because the three groups of teachers agreed and strongly agreed (<30= 66.6%, 31-40=64.2%, > 40=76.6%) that TBLT materials should be significant and purposefully based on real world situations. This means that the accurate accomplishment of TBLT seems to comply with the age of the teacher.

4.1.4. Teachers' reasons towards using or avoiding TBLT (section 4)

a) Teachers' reasons to accept TBLT implementation

Regarding Table 15, most of the teachers' reasons to implement TBLT in their classroom are because of its advantage to encourage teachers to be creative in their classroom (94.7%); promote students' learning communicative skills (97.3%); its appropriateness to small group learning (92.1%); and its nature to encourage learners' intrinsic motivation (81.5%). In contrast, few respondents believed that TBLT creates a collaborative learning environment (28.9%). Overall, results imply that teachers generally agree that TBLT is relevant for teachers as well as students, although there are exceptions.

Table 15

Teachers' reasons to use TBLT

	Reasons	Results		Mean
		N	%	
A	TBLT encourages teachers to be creative in their lessons.	72	94.7%	4.15
B	TBLT promotes students' learning communicative skills.	74	97.3%	4.54
C	TBLT encourages learners' intrinsic motivation.	62	81.5%	4.08
D	TBLT creates a collaborative learning environment.	22	28.9%	2.12
E	TBLT is appropriate for small group work.	70	92.1%	4.10

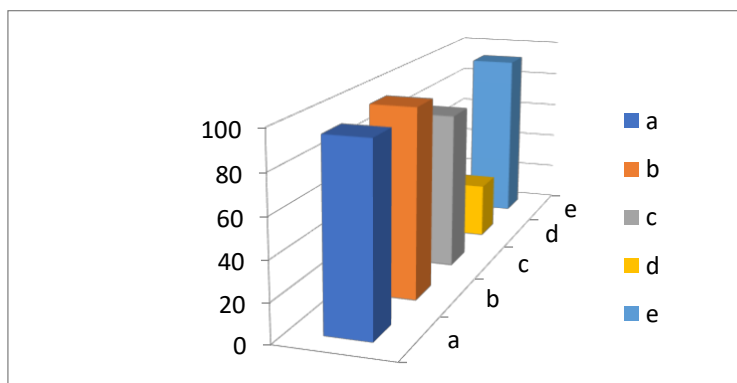


Figure10. Teachers' reasons to use TBLT

b) Teachers' reasons to avoid TBLT implementation

Table 16 lists teachers' responses about their own reasons for avoiding the use of TBLT in their classes. In response to reason f, only 7.8% among a total of 76 respondents discarded the use of TBLT because it is a new branch of teaching for teachers. However, data analysis demonstrates that popular reasoning relates to teaching performance, with many respondents selecting reasons h, i. For instance, most respondents claimed that they refrain from applying TBLT because they are not used to teaching English using this approach (97.3%); they have very little knowledge of task-

based instruction (98.6%); and due to their inability to assess learners' task-based performance. Reasons j and k received less attention with few respondents (15.7%) showing their reluctance from using TBLT due to the inappropriate materials in textbooks. Only 11.8% avoid TBLT owing to the large class size where it is impossible to implement an approach like TBLT.

Table 16
Teachers' reasons to avoid TBLT implementation

	Reasons	Results		
		N	%	Mean
f	It is a new brand of teaching.	6	7.89%	2.06
g	I am not used to teach English using TBLT.	74	97.36%	4.54
h	I have very little knowledge of task-based instruction.	75	98.68%	4.57
i	I have difficulty in assessing learners' task-based performance.	72	94.73%	4.51
j	Materials in textbooks are not proper for using TBLT.	12	15.78%	3.12
k	Large class size is an obstacle to use task-based methods.	9	11.84%	2.95

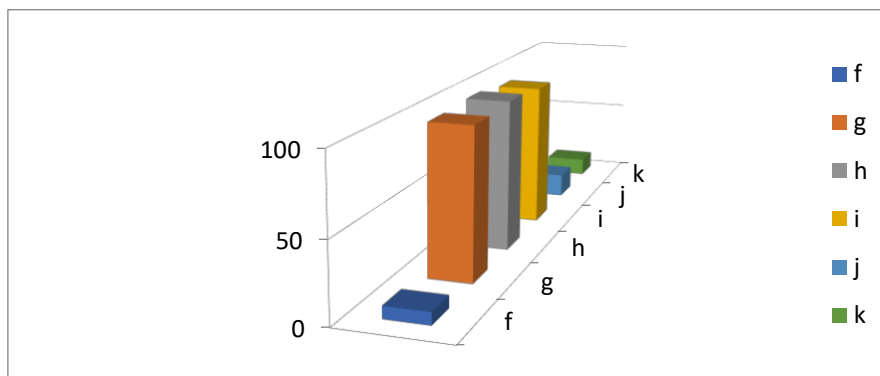


Figure 11. Teachers' reasons to avoid TBLT

4.1.5. Teachers' teaching training experience (section 5)

This section of the questionnaire included a 'yes/no question' related to this research question. If the respondents answered 'yes', they were then required to complete a table detailing the teaching training they had. If they answered 'no', they moved to the last open-ended question. This question includes three items that revolve around teachers' training experience. Data showed that most participants (86.8%) had almost the same teacher training experience with only 13.5% of them not having any

training experience or not wanting to discuss it. The participants who answered "yes", detailed the period, date and objectives of their training. Their answers point to high levels of consistency in their training experiences, particularly in terms of objectives and content. As portrayed in Table 17, 84.8% of participants trained within schools (mainly as assistant

teachers), 10.6% participants trained at the university before they started teaching, and the remaining 4.5% engaged in online training.

Item b provides a more balanced result with 46.9% of the participants training for three months or less than three months, whereas none of the participants attended teacher training for more than three months. Most of the training period was ranged between four to six weeks.

For item c, the participants declared that they were disappointed in the objectives and content of their training relating to how to teach English and how to use games in the classroom (87.8%); 18.1% attended training about classroom practices; and only 12.1% had EFL/ESL training.

Table 17
Teachers' teaching training experience

		Total	N	%
16	Teachers' teaching training experience		66	86.84%
A	Where			
		University	7	10.60
		School (assistant teacher)	56	84.84%
		Online	3	4.5%
B	How long			
		Three months	31	46.96%
		More than three months	0	0%
		Less than three months	31	46.96%
C	Training content and topics			
		Teaching English activities and games	58	87.87%
		Classroom practices	12	18.18%
		EFL/ESL training	8	12.12%

4.1.6. Teachers' special recommendations for TBLT implication in Spain (open question)

To obtain additional information about successful implication of TBLT in the Spanish context, an open question (Q17) was posed. This question paved the way for

teachers to share their opinions about the idea of providing TBLT training for Spanish language teachers and what special considerations they think are important to ease the TBLT implementation in Spain. As the question is open, not all teachers provided answers. Of the 76 teachers who completed the entire questionnaire, 63 teachers responded to the final question. The answers were coded for thematic analysis (Gilham, 2005) and counted in an Excel document. Four main themes emerged: a) problems related to TBLT training quality; b) the need of adequate teaching curriculum and textbooks to TBLT; c) the need to integrate and involve teachers in TBLT decisions; and d) issues related to the unsupportive educational and institutional environment in Spain. These themes are illustrated in Table 18.

Teachers claim that providing training for teachers can be the master key to creating a place for TBLT in the practice of Spanish teachers. Many teachers suggest that before providing a new learning style for students, teachers should be first exposed to this teaching style, well informed and trained. Thus, teachers' comments were mainly about the quality of TBLT training and objectives. One teacher suggested that TBLT trainings can only succeed if they are organised in authentic contexts, such as schools. Another respondent recommended the importance of narrowing the TBLT training objectives, explaining that, instead of global training, each university or school should be able to tailor training to suit their context, particularly in terms of content and trainees' needs. In the same vein, three respondents added that teachers need clear instructions and training imported from abroad with freedom to adjust it to the teachers' educational and cultural background. Another teacher focused on the three phases of the TBLT lesson by suggesting that these three phases be highly explained to teachers; learning how to manage lesson time to these stages. In contrast, another respondent claimed that teachers, due to varying time limits, are not obliged to completely rely on and follow the TBLT lesson phases. Finally, two respondents recommended that TBLT training programmes should familiarise teachers with the advantages and disadvantages of TBLT and should be given the opportunity to be trained in task-based lesson planning, presentation and evaluation.

The second theme relates to the Spanish EFL teaching curriculum and textbook appropriateness to TBLT. Most of the teachers believe in the possibility of TBLT application in the Spanish context and their comments are mainly about changes at the level of teaching curriculum and textbook objectives that must be in favour of TBLT principles. Most respondents' comments centred upon the urgent need to adjust the

Spanish EFL textbooks to TBLT standards. Two respondents suggested that schools should provide their teachers with prepared TBLT lessons based on the school textbooks in order to ease the TBLT implementation. Adding to that, another respondent declared that the content of school textbooks is not aligned with the teaching goals designed by teachers. One of the respondents, a novice teacher, discussed how he faced this issue and how exhausted he was during his first year of teaching. He suggested that the size of content must be reviewed in the Spanish EFL textbooks. One suggestion was that teaching curriculum and textbook content must first reach the teachers' requirements and be highly accepted by teachers, more than students.

The third theme concerns the Spanish EFL teachers' integration and involvement in the TBLT decisions. Many comments discussed the importance of making the schools, material developers and TBLT decision makers aware of the need of incorporating teachers in any teaching decision. Some voiced that a collaborative atmosphere should be created between teachers, teacher trainers and material designers to establish a balanced teaching system with highly informed teachers. Some respondents focused on the necessity to help teachers construct their personal teaching theory in line with the external teaching influences in order to facilitate the TBLT use. Two respondents discussed that due to the learner-centred nature of TBLT, much attention should be given to the teacher to help them realise and differentiate their roles in a TBLT lesson. For example, by providing specialised training examining the different roles of the teacher in a learner-centred approach like TBLT, or by helping teachers to develop materials, and adapting or developing TBLT teaching materials that are suitable for them and for their students. One teacher suggested that due to the low confidence of teachers when using TBLT, much consideration should be given to overwhelm these restrictions when teaching.

The fourth theme relates to the role of the educational and institutional support in Spain for implementing TBLT. In contrast to the first three themes, which contain suggestions that any teacher can practically achieve, the present theme involves an issue beyond the language teachers' remit. Consensus amongst respondents suggested that the language learning and teaching process in Spain should be thoroughly reviewed before the introduction of TBLT in the Spanish EFL classes. One respondent pointed to the need of the decision makers of the educational system to turn their attention to boosting TBLT adoption in the Spanish context. Two teachers talked about the financial and education support of the government to implement TBLT or any new teaching reform in Spain. Additionally, many teachers talked about the creation of a national online platform to exchange ideas on teaching, using TBLT in the Spanish context. As two teachers stated,

Spanish EFL teachers are sinking in an unsupportive teaching environment; therefore, the concerned parties should intervene and give space to teachers to express their concerns regarding teaching methodologies.

Table 18

Analysis of themes from open question (Question number 17)

Theme	Excerpts
TBLT training quality	<p>3 TBLT training should be hold in real contexts (authentic schools).</p> <p>4 Provide trainings based on teachers' needs.</p> <p>5 Create very specific trainings in terms of content (objectives).</p> <p>6 Spanish EFL teachers need more instruction on the trainings coming from abroad.</p> <p>7 The three stages of TBLT should be deeply explained during the training.</p> <p>8 Give more importance to teachers' practices and feedback in a TBLT training.</p> <p>9 Help teachers create enjoyable, well-planned task-based lessons and TBLT assessment.</p> <p>10 Present the advantages and disadvantages of TBLT and train teachers how to overcome the tasks' obstacles.</p>
Teaching curriculum and textbook in favour of TBLT principles	<p>11 Spanish EFL textbooks should be reviewed.</p> <p>12 Provide prepared TBLT lessons based on the school textbook to teachers.</p> <p>13 Adjust textbooks to the TBLT principles.</p> <p>14 Present textbooks are difficult for novice teachers to use and apply TBLT at the same time.</p>
Teachers' involvement in TBLT decisions	<p>3 Make teachers aware of the TBLT principles.</p> <p>4 Create a cooperative atmosphere between teachers and educational decision makers.</p> <p>5 Take the teachers' opinions and views in all matters.</p> <p>6 Give teachers a large space inside the school in teaching and learning decisions.</p> <p>7 Integrate teachers in the creation and production of teaching materials.</p> <p>8 Consult and involve teachers in the creation of teaching trainings.</p>
A greater educational and institutional support	<p>9 Facilitate the integration of TBLT.</p> <p>10 Help raise awareness among teachers and at schools.</p> <p>11 Financial and educational support to install a new approach like TBLT.</p> <p>12 Creation of a national online platform for teachers.</p>

	13 Create a supportive environment for teachers by the issue of new resolutions that are in the favour of the teachers' and learners' favour.
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4.2. Results from the experimental tool (phase 2)

In this section, the researcher gathered information from the control and experimental groups by using pre- and post-tests. The most important thing to be discussed here is the student teachers' understanding. This was analyzed quantitatively to see which group was influenced more. Also, part of this section will concentrate on the experimental group's teaching beliefs and attitudes after the introduction of a TBLT training programme and teaching placement.

4.2.1 Pre-service teachers' demographic information

As Table 19 shows, the experimental group comprised of 13 males (44.8%) and 16 females (55.2%). In the control group, 12 (46.2 %) of the participants were male; 14 (53.8%) were female. The participants in both groups ranged in age from 20 to 25 (93.1% and 92.3%) respectively. In the experimental group only one participant (3.4%) was aged between twenty-six and thirty and another aged above thirty. In the control group, two participants were aged between thirty and thirty-six with no participants over the age of thirty.

Table 19

Pre-service teachers' demographic information

Groups	Gender	N	%
Experimental Group	Male	13	44,8
	Female	16	55,2
	Total	29	100,0
Control Group	Male	12	46,2
	Female	14	53,8
	Total	26	100,0
	Age	N	%
Experimental Group	20-25	27	93,1
	26-30	1	3,4
	>30	1	3,4
	Total	29	100,0
Control Group	20-25	24	92,3
	26-30	2	7,7
	Total	26	100,0

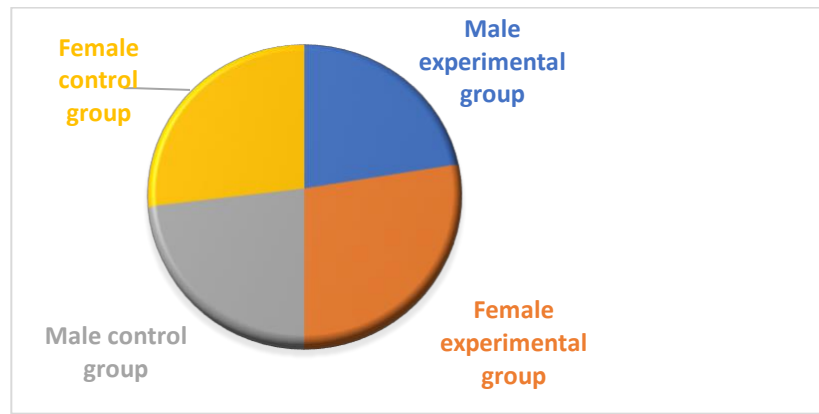


Figure 12. Gender experimental and control groups

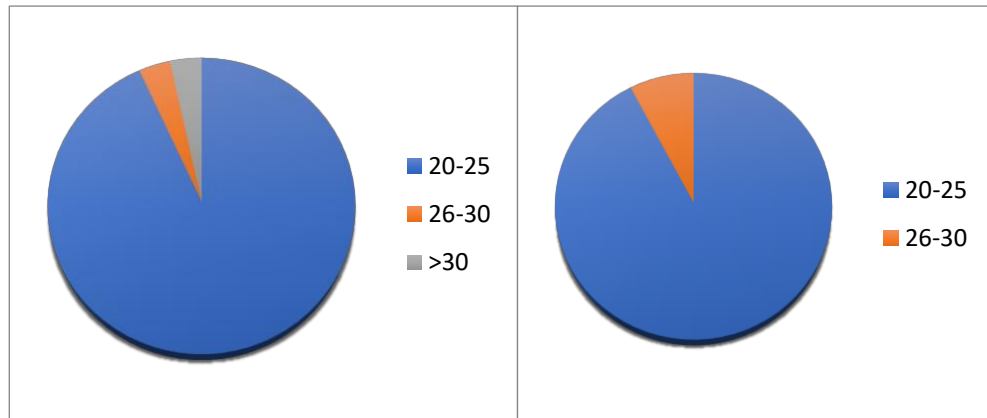


Figure 13. Control group age

Figure 14. Experimental group age

4.2.2. Pre-test analysis of experimental and control groups

According to Table 20, the significance level is higher than 0.05 so the assumption of homogeneity of two variances will be accepted. This indicated that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of pre-tests in both experimental and control groups. Therefore, it can be concluded that both groups had similar performances and their proficiency level was almost the same. Figure 15 shows the results of Table 20 graphically. Similar Latin letters indicate no significant difference.

Table 20

The mean of pre-test scores for experimental and control groups

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances							t-test for Equality of Means	
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean	Std. Error Difference
	Equal variances	6.15	.016	.514	53	.609	.27	.528

Pre-test	Assumed							
	Equal variances			.524	49.96	.602	.27	.518
	not assumed							



Figure 15. The mean of pre-test scores for experimental and control groups

4.2.3. Post-test analysis of experimental and control groups

The result of independent t-test on post-test is presented in Table 21. In this test, the null hypothesis expresses the equality of the mean of post-test scores in both experimental and control groups, and the opposite assumption shows the difference. Comparing the performances of the two groups on post-test, the result of t-test suggests a p value of .000 which is smaller than the significance level set for the study (0.05), hence a significance difference is suggested. As the post-test mean (12.04) of experimental group was higher than post-test mean of control group, it could be said that task-based language teaching training in the experimental group positively affected the experimental group's participants. Figure 16 shows the results of Table 21 graphically. Different Latin letters indicate a significant difference.

Table 21

The mean for post-test scores for experimental and control groups

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances							t-test for Equality of Means	
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean	Std. Error difference

Post-t	Equal variances	0.21	.885	20.94	53	.000	12.04	.575
	Assumed							
	Equal variances not assumed			21.51	46.05	.000	12.04	.559

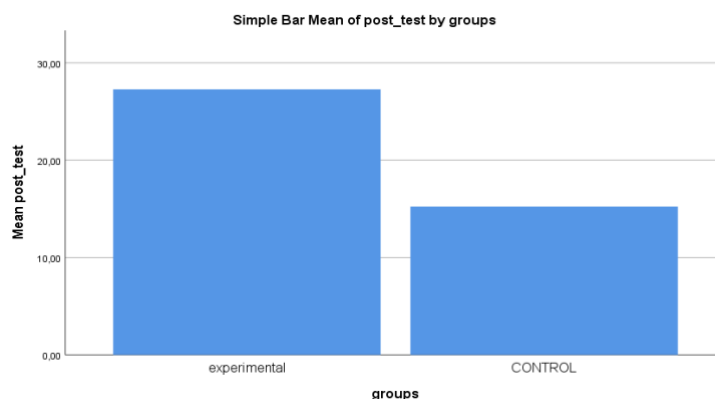


Figure 16. The mean of post-test scores for experimental and control groups.

4.2.4. Comparing experimental group's knowledge and understanding of TBLT prior and after the training

To further check the intra group changes, paired t-test was used. The mean analysis of pre-test and post-test scores for the experimental group suggested a normal distribution necessitating the use of Paired-Sample t-test. The results of the test are presented by sections, as introduced in the questionnaire.

Table 22 shows the comparable results. The t-test value in the post-test 3.13 is higher than the t-test value 1.42 in the pre-test. Nevertheless, the mean (28.83) of post-test of the experimental group in the section of pre-service teachers' knowledge and understanding of TBLT was higher than in the pre-test 13.41. So, the null hypothesis of no effect was rejected. This means that the training had a significant effect on participants' comprehension of tasks and TBLT as a teaching approach. This explains that instruction was effective in the experimental group at the TBLT knowledge and perceptions level. Figure 17 shows the results of Table 22 graphically.

Table 22

Paired sample t-test results comparing experimental group's understanding and knowledge of TBLT.

Experimental Group				
Tests	Frequency	Mean	S.D	T-value
Pre-test	17	13.41	2.92	1.422

Post-test	40	28.83	5.68	3.134
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*Significant at $\alpha=0.05$

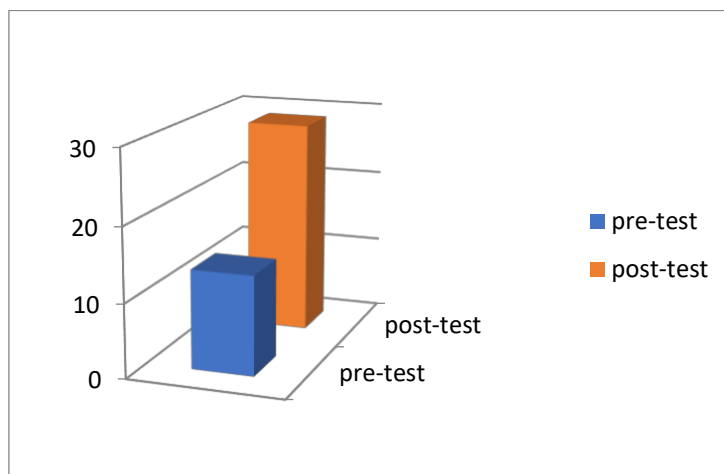


Figure 17. Experimental group's understanding and knowledge of TBLT

After comparing the experimental group's pre/post-test, the control group's performance on pre-test and post-test is also compared (Table 21).

4.2.5. Comparing control group's knowledge and understanding of TBLT prior and after the training

Table 23 shows that the t-test value is 2.13 ($t=2.13$), and significance level is 0.43 ($p=0.43 > 0.05$) which is higher than 0.05. These findings indicate that there was not a significant difference between the mean of pre-test and post-test scores of control group in the section of pre-service teachers' knowledge and understanding of TBLT. The mean of post-test is 12.73 points nearly matching the mean of pre-test at 12.71. So, the null hypothesis of no effect was accepted. This indicates that there was no significant difference between the pre-post-test group's knowledge and understanding of TBLT. Figure 18 shows the results of table 23 graphically.

Table 23

Paired sample t-test results comparing control group's understanding and knowledge of TBLT

		Control group		
Tests	Frequency	Mean	S.D	T-value

Pre-test	29	12.71	2.82	2.131
Post-test	47	12.73	2.98	2.165

Significant at $\alpha=0.43$

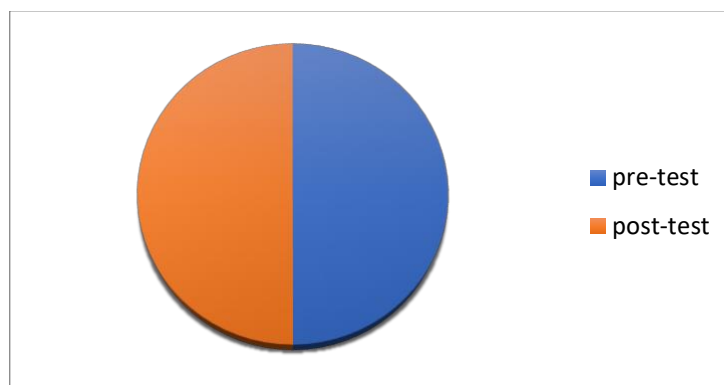


Figure 18. Control group's understanding and knowledge of TBLT

4.2.6. comparing experimental group's views on TBLT implementation before and after the training

The findings from Table 24 below show that t-test had $p=0.00 < 0.05$ for all the items. This explains that the null hypothesis of no effect was rejected for all the six variables. For item 8, after the TBLT training, the participants viewed TBLT as able to provide a relaxed atmosphere to promote the target language use, a method that takes into consideration the learners' learning needs and concerns (item 9) and they believed that TBLT allows the integration and combination of different skills in an EFL class using TBLT. For items 11, 12 and 13, the participants' answers for the post-test differed from the ones of the pre-test. Before the training the participants thought that TBLT does not put pressure on the teacher and is easy to handle in the classroom, as most of their answers were 'disagree' or 'strongly disagree', but after the training, they realised that it is an approach that can create a psychological disorder and pressure to the teacher. Consequently, their answers changed from 'disagree' to 'strongly disagree' to 'agree' and 'strongly agree'. For item 12, the participants were not aware of the time needed for planning a TBLT lesson and their answers were either 'neutral' or 'disagree'. After the training, most of the participants strongly agree that TBLT is an approach that requires much preparation time in comparison to other approaches. In response to item 13, most of the participants either disagree or strongly disagree that TBLT is the proper approach for controlling classroom arrangements.

Table 24

Paired sample t-test results comparing experimental group views on TBLT implementation

Experimental Group					
		N	Mean	S.D	Sig. (2-tailed)
Item8	Pre8	29	2.52	1.47	.01
	Post8	29	1.33	.91	
Item9	Pre9	29	2.71	1.38	.02
	Post9	29	2.09	1.54	
Item10	Pre10	29	2.04	1.02	.05
	Post10	29	1.38	.86	
Item11	Pre11	29	2.03	1.04	.03
	Post11	29	1.45	1.44	
Item12	Pre12	29	2.71	1.38	.02
	Post12	29	2.09	1.54	
Item13	Pre13	29	2.52	1.47	.01
	Post13	29	1.33	.91	

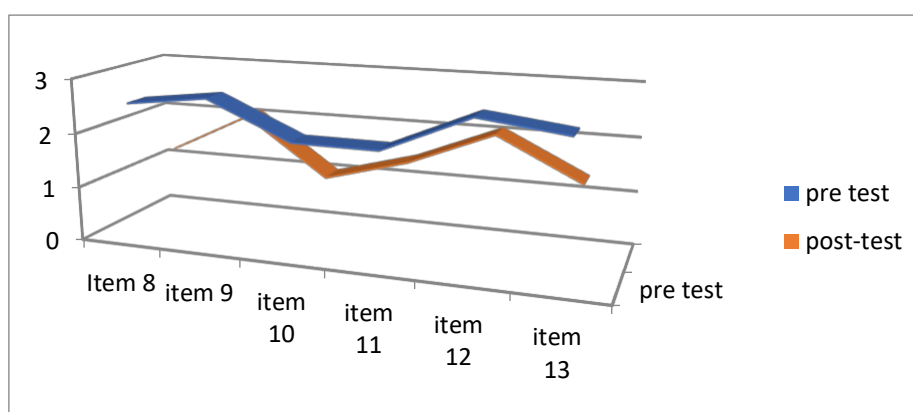


Figure 19. Experimental group views on TBLT implementation

4.2.7. Control group views on TBLT implementation before and after the training

Table 25 below shows that t-test had $p > 0.05$ for items 8, 9, 10, 11 and 13. This indicates that the null hypothesis of no effect was accepted for all the above five variables. This implies that the training did not have a significant effect on the mentioned items. For item 8, t-test had $p = 0.00 < 0.05$. This shows that training did have a significant effect on the participants' perceptions and awareness of the time required for a TBLT lesson preparation. Before the training, most of the participants answers were 'neutral' but after the TBLT training, the participants either agreed or strongly agreed that TBLT is an approach that requires much preparation time in comparison to other approaches.

Table 25

Paired sample t-test results comparing control group views on TBLT implementation

Control Group					
		N	Mean	S.D	Sig.(2-tailed)
Item8	Pre8	26	3.95	.86	1.0
	Post8	26	3.95	1.20	
Item9	Pre9	26	1.28	.71	.78
	Post9	26	1.33	.73	
Item10	Pre10	26	4.19	1.60	.39
	Post10	26	4.42	.97	
Item11	Pre11	26	3.38	1.11	.45
	Post11	26	3.61	1.16	
Item12	Pre12	26	2.60	1.94	.01
	Post12	26	1.45	1.54	
Item13	Pre13	26	3.76	1.47	.82
	Post13	26	3.66	1.35	

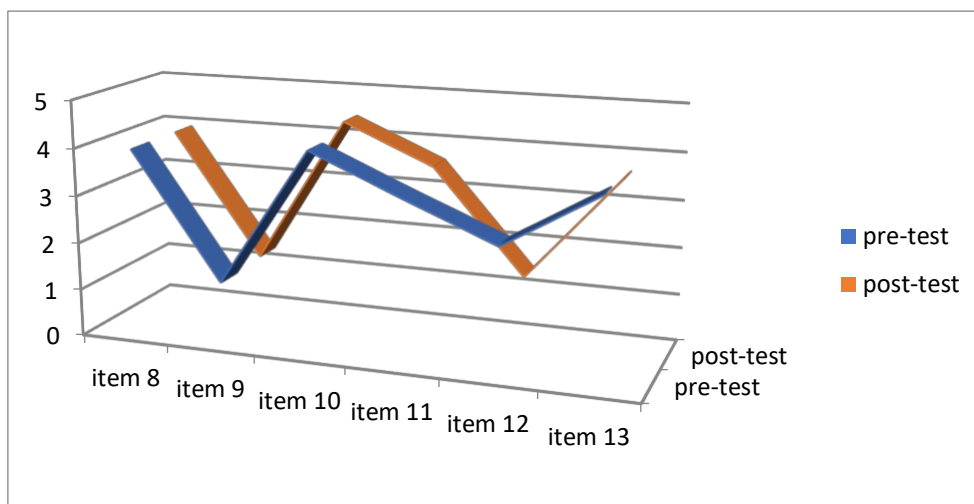


Figure 20. Control group views on TBLT implementation

4.2.8. Experimental and control group opinions of an appropriate TBLT training

Table 26 presents the questions regarding pre-service teachers' attitudes of teaching training (item 16). This section of the questionnaire was designed to investigate the participants' opinions on the most appropriate time to provide training for teachers. The table shows that both trainings had no significant effect on neither group (experimental and control) with the total score of 0.74 ($p > 0.05$) in the experimental group. On the other hand, for the control group, the total score was recorded as $\text{sig} = 0.45$ ($p > 0.05$). Thus, we conclude that the TBLT training had no significant effect on the participants' attitudes as most of the participants highly prefer the training of teachers before they start teaching

and in the beginning of their teaching career, rather than later in their teaching experience and after a long teaching period.

Table 26

Experimental and Control groups concern of appropriate TBLT training period and reasons pre-service teachers refuse or accept training

			N	Mean.	S.D	Sig. (2 tailed)
Item 16	Experimental Group	Pre-test	29	4.09	1.09	.74
		Post-test	29	4.19	1.03	
	Control Group	Pre-test	26	3.38	1.11	.45
		Post-test	26	3.61	1.16	

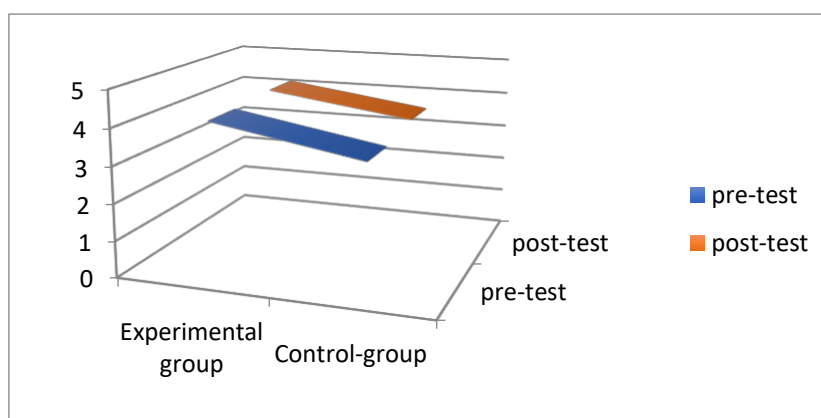


Figure 21. Experimental and Control groups concern of appropriate TBLT training period

4.2.8.1. Pre-service teachers' aspirations and suggestions

In this section of the questionnaire, two open questions (Q30 and Q31) provided the opportunity for the participants to express which skills they mainly wanted to improve before having the training and to reflect on which teaching skills they have improved as a result of attending the training course. The questionnaire also invited them to share their views, suggestions and perceptions on how to best design good TBLT trainings and help in the implementation of this approach in the Spanish EFL teaching context. As these questions are open, not all pre-service teachers gave an answer. Of the 55 pre-service teachers who completed the entire questionnaire in both groups, only 40 teachers responded to the final questions. The answers were coded for thematic analysis (Gilham, 2005) and counted in an Excel document respectively. Seven main themes were introduced for question 30: a) language aptitude; b) improvement in language skills; c) enhancement of the teachers' assessment skill; d) the need of effective teaching methods; e) the need to learn through new teaching materials and sources; f) enhancement the teachers' performance and; g) provide teachers with adequate classroom management

techniques. These themes are illustrated in greater detail in tables 27 and 28.

All the pre-service teachers in both groups, at the beginning of the training, had similar requests and aspirations regarding the skills they wanted to improve during the training course. However, according to our data, the training had a slight effect in improving the participants' language aptitude and in providing the participants with adequate classroom management practices. In contrast, our data show that the TBLT training had a noteworthy effect on the participants' language skills, in learning effective teaching methods and materials, with no effect on their assessment techniques. In turn, the training given to the control group influenced some skills but not all of them. As portrayed in Table 28, the training of control group had a medium effect on the participants' language skills and learning success of new teaching materials and sources. A low effect was recorded regarding the participants' teaching methods and classroom management, with no significant effect in enhancing the participants' language aptitude and in assessing the students' learning. This indicates both similarities and differences in the impact the training had on the participants' responses and interpretations.

Table 27

Experimental group pre and post-test: aspirations improvement

	Pre-test aspirations improvement	Post-test
Experimental Group	1 Language aptitude	*
	2 Language Skills	***
	1 Students' assessment	
	2 Effective teaching methods	***
	3 Effective teaching materials	***
	4 Teachers' performance	***
	5 Classroom management	*

*=Low improvement, **= Medium improvement, ***=High improvement

Table 28

Control group pre and post-test aspirations improvement

	Pre-test aspirations improvement	Post-test
Control Group	2 Language aptitude	
	3 Language Skills	**
	2 Students' assessment	

	3	Effective teaching methods	*
	4	Effective teaching materials	**
	5	Teachers' performance	*
	6	Classroom management	*

*=Low improvement, **= Medium improvement, ***=High improvement

In response to item 31, the participants in both groups expressed their opinions with similarities and differences evident in their suggestions. As it is obvious from Table 29 below, out of the thirteen topics suggested by the participants, eight topics were proposed by more than half of the participants with a strong focus on teaching methods (90%); improving teachers' self-esteem, self-confidence and performance (82.5%); recommending specific training on how to organize and manage a TBLT class (60%); providing specific training on planning and presenting a TBLT lesson (72.5%); specific training on assessing students' learning in a TBLT lesson (95%); and training on using and creating TBLT materials (65%). The participants' suggestions centred mainly on providing specific content training (attention paid to only one topic rather than mixing topics in one training).

Table 29

Experimental and Control groups suggested topics

	Content or topic	Frequency	%
1	Teaching methods	36	90
2	Improving teachers' self-esteem and self-confidence	33	82.5
3	Specific TBLT training on planning a TBLT lesson	29	72.5
4	Specific training on presenting a TBLT lesson	29	72.5
5	Specific training on assessing students in a TBLT lesson	38	95
6	Developing a one-year TBLT unit/curriculum	10	25
7	Training on how to use appropriately the teaching materials	26	65
8	A specific training on how to use games in a TBLT lesson	6	15
9	Training that focuses only on enhancing teachers' performance in a TBLT Lesson	33	82.5
10	Specific training about classroom management and control in a TBLT lesson	24	60
11	Small size training groups	8	20
12	How to plan a lesson according to the lesson timeline.	4	10
13	Create training according to the teachers' teaching experience and age	2	5

4.3. The analysis of the TBLT training and school placement lesson plans (phase 3)

This section presents a description and analysis of the three lessons designed by the three groups for a 45-minute lesson, and of the interview data in which they portrayed the proceeding of planning these lessons. For each lesson plan, I describe the process that the student teachers followed to evolve the lesson plans. This was explored via unstructured interviews, reflective questionnaires and training impact interviews. References to the self-evaluation of student teachers' lesson plan given in the interviews were also mentioned. I then evaluated these lessons using Ellis's (2009a) coding framework and present the analysis in the table for each lesson. The lesson plans were marked based on the pair number nominated during the course (e.g., student teacher 1 = lesson plan 1). Eventually, I moved into discussions of broader themes that emerged from this analysis in Chapter 5.

4.3.1. Lesson plan 1: sports

Pair 1 (names coded as student teacher 1 and student teacher 2) made clear during the interview that they started the lesson planning by searching through textbooks and online sources for a suitable topic that would be aligned with TBLT methodology and students' level. They agreed on the task of writing an email with three main objectives: 1) to understand descriptions about classes; 2) to produce descriptions about classes; and 3) to exchange information about classes. Next, they collected a set of lesson materials that they thought would be engaging in the next steps. Then, they listed what both the teacher and the learners would do in each phase. In the pre-task phase, as apparent in Table 30, they planned to use an A-to-Z game as a warm-up activity. In the task-cycle, the student teachers prepared four different activities to teach the four skills with the learners working individually at one point in time, and in pairs or groups at another. The first activity in this phase was dedicated to *listening* where the pupils listened to three students talking about their classes. After that, they tried to select the correct picture of each student based on the description they had been provided with.

They practiced and answered some questions. The second activity was devoted to *speaking* and students were grouped in pairs. Each had a chart on which they had to prepare four questions. Once ready, they switched partners and posed their questions to

other people. The third and fourth activities focused on *reading* and *writing* based on an email from a Spanish boy. In the email, he tells them his name, age and what his class looks like. They were asked to reply, orally sharing the same information about themselves. After reading it, they corrected some sentences which were wrong in the email. Grammar was introduced in the post-task phase through a game. The learners were required to guess the object described. They had to portray the object with correct grammar structures, good vocabulary and following the game rules. Finally, the teacher would provide feedback and assessment strategies like observation of participation and correct completion of activities in class. Prior to writing, the reading activity must be corrected to insure they do not replicate the grammatical mistakes when producing their own emails. The pair mentioned that homework was assigned in this lesson plan. They concluded that finding a suitable topic and sequencing tasks were the most difficult stages in the lesson planning. They were not certain nor self-assured of the appropriateness of the produced task for their expected learners. Table 30 provides an analysis of lesson plan 1.

4.3.1.1. Analysis of lesson plan 1

After the analysis of the first lesson prepared and presented by pair 1, it is viewed that the lesson plan was pedagogically designed as a task-based lesson because there is an outcome by the end of the task-cycle which is ‘writing an email’. It is original because the student teachers worked on the lesson plan, preparing the activities regarding the learners’ level and language proficiency. The lesson contains the main task as the core of the lesson accomplished by a pre- and post-task phase. My assessment against the 4 criteria of Ellis (2003) showed that lesson 1, from a theoretical viewpoint, is a task-based lesson. In this lesson, the student teachers used a lot of tasks and tried to overcome the four skills in one lesson. From my point of view and from the student teachers’ perspective, it was not logical and was not possible to teach appropriately the four skills in the same lesson. The timing of the four activities in the main-task phase was not considered logical either because, as we see in Table 30, the timing used for the four activities in the main-task phase was not sufficient for either the teacher, or for the learners, to guarantee good comprehension of the tasks.

Table 30

TBLT-based lesson plan of student teachers 1 and 2

		Task features	Lesson features
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		Meaning	gap	Own resources	Outcome	Pedagogical value	Lesson timing	Originality
						***	*	***
Pre-task	T hangs a list of alphabets and ask the Ss to write down the possible number of vocabularies of class.						5mins	
Main-task	Activity1: Students listen to an audio about a group of students describing their classes and then they answer the questions individually.	✓	✓	✗	✓		10 mins	
	Activity 2: Students are going to be grouped in pairs. Each one is going to have a chart in which they have to prepare four questions, the same for both, about class objects. Once they are ready, they switch partners and ask to other people the questions.	✓	✗	✗	✓		5 mins	
	Activity 3: an email is presented to the class. Students read the email individually and then discuss with the ST and then with the whole class.	✗	✗	✗	✓		10 mins	
	Activity 4: Students now have to write their own emails following the structure given before. They just have to describe their class to another student.	✓	✗	✓	✓		10 mins	
Post-task	Grammar rules: T presents a task about the correct use of ‘there is’ and ‘there are’ with pronouns. They describe the object with correct grammar structures, good vocabulary following the game’s rules.						5mins	

4.3.2. Lesson plan 2: country, flats and language

The student teachers' names were coded as student teacher 3 and student teacher 4. They explained that they started planning the lesson by trying to limit the number of materials and documents that they had found about this topic. They claimed that it was not difficult for them to collect information about this topic due to the sheer volume of content available. Then, the student teachers agreed 'to write a brief interview about the chosen city' as the main learning outcome in this lesson. Therefore, their lesson targeted the learners' ability to communicate using English and aimed to increase their self-confidence when speaking in English. In the pre-task phase, learners were prepared for the task cycle by the introduction of the main vocabulary needed in the next phase. Flashcards of countries and cities were shown. In the task cycle, the four skills were involved but in contrast to lesson plan one, this lesson depended on three sequenced activities. Firstly, the learners listened, read and answered some questions before completing the task doing their reading. Next, students listened to an interview about a Spanish boy talking about his city (Granada), and then completed a table. Third, in pairs or groups of 3, students wrote a short interview about their chosen city, including questions related to its location, its language and its flag. Writing and speaking were practiced in this activity. By the end of this phase, the student teachers opted for role-play where each pair or small group presented their interviews. In the post-task, the teacher would teach word stress by focusing on pronunciation of the plural 's' or the third person singular of the present simple. Table 31 presents the analysis of lesson plan 2.

4.3.2.1. Analysis of lesson plan 2

From the student teachers' self-evaluation and my evaluation, lesson plan 2 is regarded as a task-based lesson due to its structure (see Table 31). Firstly, it comprises the 3 main phases: a pre-task, a main-task and a post-task. Secondly, the timing of the whole lesson was to some extent logical, especially for the pre- and post-tasks. In this lesson, creation was not highly obvious which means that it was not original but it was pedagogically sound. As declared in the student teachers' statements and from my analysis, it is understood that the tasks were taken from the internet and slightly modified and renewed by the student teachers. As assessment was taken into consideration, the student teachers evaluation aimed to assess the four basic skills (Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing) but to get it, student teachers declared that this lesson plan did not only focus on one skill or one objective. In their case, the four skills were assessed during the task-cycle phase. In addition, they claimed that the assessment of this lesson might continue the day after by giving the learners a different activity to evaluate and give them

feedback in the next lesson. This explains why the time set for this lesson was not exact and the student teachers were not sure if they would be able to finish the whole lesson on time or not. Furthermore, they also relied on observation and participation as evaluation measures. All these measures would be sufficient to determine whether the student achieved the objectives of the lesson or not. According to the student teachers, the post-task phase is the ideal place for a focus on word stress. They claimed that in this phase they prefer diversification in the type of tasks rather than focusing on grammar in every lesson.

Table 31

TBLT-based lesson plan of student teachers 3 and 4

	Description of activities and tasks	Task features				Lesson features		
		Meaning	Gap	Own resources	Outcome	Pedagogical Value	Lesson timing	Originality
						***	***	***
Pre-task	T hangs a list of flashcards of different cities and countries. In small groups of three (if it is necessary, there will be a group of four). Each group will have one of these cities to work on, and then learners answer by speaking the different questions and imagine different situations.						8-10 mins	
Main-task	Students Listen, read and answer the questions: Students read the text ‘Where is my city?’ where there are four children (Sophia, John, Alain and Lili) explaining in which country is their city and what language is spoken in it. Children would have to fill in a table about the reading.	x	x	x	✓			
	<i>Listening:</i> Students are going to listen to an interview about Miguel, a Spanish boy talking about his city, Granada. Student has to complete a table	x	x	x	✓		25 mins	
	<i>Writing and Speaking:</i> In pair or group of 3, students have to write a short interview about their chosen city, including questions related to its location, its language and its flag, using the example of Miguel’s interview. <i>Role-play.</i> Now, each pair or small group have to represent their interviews.	✓	x	✓	✓			
Post-task	Focus on pronunciation: The plural ‘s’ or the third person singular of the present simple. Students have to listen and put the verbs in the correct columns.						8-10 mins	

4.3.3. Lesson plan 3: team sports

The participants' names were coded as student teacher 5 and student teacher 6 in the present study. The lesson was a task-based lesson. They explained that the lesson will be delivered under mainly the TBLT and CLT approaches. They claimed that choosing such a topic for their lesson is considered of vital importance because it is part of students' personal information, including likes or preferences and, consequently, is based on real-life communication. The final session was fully dedicated to producing a summative product, its content having been gathered from previous lesson. The student teachers stated that *“regarding the structure of this piece, the nature of the background in which we are located is going to be develop in the first place, followed by the methodological considerations that suit our circumstances”*. In short, the lesson included strategies and methods to be used in class. As it is apparent in Table 32, the lesson contained the three phases, the total timing of the lesson is 45 minutes, and the main-task was sequenced in steps where the learners' assignment was to create a blog entry. The student teachers claimed that throughout this lesson, their main focus is on reaching the lesson objectives: to exchange and share information about sports and their practice, and to complete a personal sheet talking about his/her favourite sport.

4.3.3.1. Analysis of lesson plan 3

The assessment of this lesson plan revealed that this lesson is a near to be a task-based lesson. The task-cycle designed in this lesson aims at improving learners' linguistic and communicative competence. In addition to all the activities proposed in this lesson, practice on the four skills is incorporated. The task was well-structured and the student teachers showed a satisfaction of their lesson plan and told me that they intended to apply this lesson plan to their future classes. As Table 32 (below) demonstrates, the lesson is pedagogically sound, it is original and most of the activities feature mainly the four task methodological features presented in Table 32. In contrast, this lesson was mainly linguistic-based rather than form-based because form was not introduced and it was rather communicative.

Table 32

Student teachers 5 and 6 TBLT training lesson plan.

	Description of activities and tasks	Task features				Lesson features		
		Meaning	Gap	Own resources	Outcome	Pedagogical Value	Lesson timing	originality
						**	*	***
Pre-task	Warming up flashcards: introduction of new team sports.						5 mins	
Main-task	Listening: listen to the conversation between Clara and Charles and complete their columns in the table.	✓	✓	×	×		45 mins	
	Speaking: student A receives a card with information missing for student B and the other way around. They need to complete the table by exchanging oral information.	✓	✓	×	×			

4.4. Analysis of the school placement lesson plans and reflective questionnaires

In this section, the researcher gathered the six lessons prepared and presented by the six student teachers during their school placement and analysed them separately using the same sample of analysis that she used when analysing the student teachers' TBLT training lessons.

4.4.1. Lesson plan 1: What's your favourite sport?

According to student teacher 1, the school placement took place at a public elementary school in Granada. Student teacher 1 was assisting the lessons with the main teacher (not teaching regularly). Student teachers were asked to provide the researcher (myself) with at least one task-based lesson or task-like lesson that they taught during their school placement. The school placement was 5 hours a day across 5 days per week. She prepared a task-based lesson for 2nd grade students aged between 5 and 6 years old. The English textbook used in this school, *Quick Minds 2*, was written by a highly respected author team supplemented with online interactive activities, pupils' workbook, teacher's book, flashcards, and word cards. Most importantly, this textbook has been specifically designed for Spanish-speaking primary learners.

The lesson entitled 'What's your Favourite Sport?' was a 45-minute lesson plan, taken and adapted from the textbook. In terms of composition, the lesson was a task-based lesson where the three stages were valued in the lesson. The objectives cited by student teacher 1 were less comprehensive than the objectives cited in textbook as she tried to limit the lesson objectives to *allow students to talk about their favourite and least favourite sports, to practice integrated skills, and to learn sports' vocabulary*. For student teacher 1, the objectives of the lesson in the textbook were more than the time allocated to the lesson and neither she nor the class teacher would be able to reach all the lesson objectives and assess learners' understanding within the same lesson. Firstly, in the pre-task phase, she relied on a task from the textbook plus a task that she prepared herself. As it is apparent in Table 32, the pre-task started with the student teacher task, followed by the textbook-task. For the main-task phase, the student teacher depended on the textbook activities but she did not follow the order prescribed in the book. She used the fourth activity in the textbook as the first one in the main-task phase. She explained that the lesson in the textbook focused on teaching the 'ing' form and to teach the students the expression 'my favourite sport'. In her lesson plan, she concentrated on teaching the

expression ‘my favourite sport’ and how students will be able, by the end of the lesson, to communicate using this phrase rather than focusing on the use of the ‘ing’ form. She then used activity 2 from the textbook but she did not focus on the ‘ing’ form. She used the activity to incorporate ‘I like’ and ‘I do not like’ forms into the pupils’ speech. Through these two activities in the main-task, the student teacher focal point was on the meaning instead of the form hence the elimination of the ‘ing’ form in this lesson. To close, the post-task activity was an assessment activity prepared by the student teacher herself aiming to assess pupils’ vocabulary retain. This activity examined how many words the pupils were able to catch by the end of the lesson and to what extent they were able to differentiate between the negative and positive forms of ‘like’ and ‘dislike’ and when they can use them.

For student teacher 1, the lesson plan procedure was, to some extent, time consuming although the textbook she was using was described as clear and of good support. The student teacher’s criticism of the textbook referred to the large amount of knowledge and activities to teach for pupils with a very beginning level in English. Student teacher 1 claimed that the lesson she prepared was an adapted lesson which was based on a textbook with a set of modifications in activities and was not too difficult in comparison to the lesson she prepared in the TBLT training course. In comparison to the lesson, she prepared during the TBLT training course, she explained that she felt more determined in the activities’ selection of this lesson, knowing what she wanted to teach and how to order these activities in her lesson plan. She said that this is because she already knew and had an idea about her target learners.

4.4.4.1. Lesson presentation 1: descriptive narratives

Indicative in Table 33, student teacher 1 followed a task-based lesson plan for her 2nd grade pupils. As it is apparent in table 33, the student teacher designed tasks taking into consideration the four characteristics of a task according to Ellis’s task measures. During her lesson presentation she faced some obstacles and highlighted several points in teaching that she was oblivious to. She claimed that her lesson teaching procedure was differed somewhat to what she was expecting. She prepared a 45-minute lesson with the expectation of the timeline indicated in her lesson plan being highly respected during class. She expected to complete the lesson on time. Actually, she declared that the activities took more time than she had predicted. For instance, the pre-task phase alone took around 20 minutes to complete. Additionally, the learners’ low level of English impacted timeframes because she was obliged to enhance her explanations with repetition, and to participate in the task with the learners in order for them succeed. The learners

were not able to perform the task without being taught or told how to use the language they would need. In her reflective questionnaire, she mentioned that it was not necessary to use the pre-task and it would be better if she linked the pre-task with the main-task instead of doing each phase separately. She considered her own role in the class, claiming that she did not feel her role as a *facilitator*, but she felt more as a teacher. Elaborating further, she said that it was not possible for her, with young learners, to only facilitate the task for the learners. She said:

In the TBLT training I thought that the teacher will be relaxed in the task-based lesson and they will play the role of facilitator more than a teacher but the reality is totally the opposite ... I see the role of the teacher in a task-based lesson especially with YOUNG LEARNERS more than as an organizer or change agent and knowledge holder but not as a facilitator.

On the other hand, she praised the importance of group and pair work in the success of TBLT implementation in classes and how teamwork can play a vital role in the success or failure of the task and in developing learners' communicative skills. Student teacher 1 declared:

I was highly motivated and confident when I did the pre-task and it was successfully done by the learners, despite it taking more time than scheduled in the lesson plan. I became more prepared for the activities with pair and group work... TBLT can be successfully applied using teamwork.

Table 33

Student teacher 1: school placement lesson plan.

		Task features				Lesson features		
		Meaning	Gap	Own resources	Outcome	Pedagogical Value	Lesson timing	Originality
						***	*	**
Pre-task	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> T greets the children and opens the lesson by throwing or kicking a ball to a student and asks them what sport it is. T discusses with the children their sport knowledge and information by sticking some flashcards on the board. After that she asks the pupils to open their class book and explains to them that they work in pairs. The pupils look at the pictures in their books and find the words in the word search (worksheet). Then they label the pictures. worksheet practices sport words: <i>badminton, baseball, basketball, football, hockey, table tennis, tennis and volleyball.</i> 						10	
Main-task	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Activity 1: T starts by a reading and writing task taken from the textbook. *Pupils read the speech bubbles and match the sports equipment to the children. There are some pictures that are not mentioned by any of the children. *Pupils write about four sports and activities they like and draw a picture of a piece of equipment to represent each one. Tell them to draw the pictures in a random order. *Pupils share their work in pairs. *Pupil A reads a phrase, e.g. I like riding horses. Pupil B points to the corresponding picture on Pupil A's worksheet. 	✓	✓	✓	✓		15	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Activity 2: T practices like and I do not like with Me too and I don't. In this activity pupils work in pairs. They cut out the cards, shuffle them and place them face down so both pupils have a pile of cards in front of them. Then they cut out the faces. *Pupil A picks up a card, e.g., swimming and makes a sentence, e.g. I like swimming. Pupil B picks up a face and tells 'Me too' or 'I don't' to match the sentence. Pupils swap roles. 	✓	✓	✓	✓		15	
Post-task	Pupils individually write a list of words (sports) noting as many as possible in a given time. Those who had most word won.						5	

4.4.2. Lesson plan 2: Andalucía landscape

Student teacher 2 started her school placement in a public school in Granada, attending the lessons regularly with the school teacher in different grades. Most of the time she was observing and helping students with difficulties during certain activities. Sometimes, she was correcting the students' exams. Student teacher 2 declared that she participated and organised some lessons in her school placement, detailing the textbook used:

the lesson I used in my research was a lesson adapted from Kid's Box 6 textbook that was used by the school. Kid's Box has been written taking into account the proposals including the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR).

The textbook was, to some extent, following the TBLT principles. She taught the lesson in the 3rd week of the school placement. This lesson was her first lesson to plan and teach in this practicum and was selected from unit 3 'The great outdoor'. The school teacher was already teaching Unit 3 and student teacher 2 had been observing. She reported the school teacher's preference to skip the lesson that she taught, considering it uninteresting with time consuming content. The lesson that she taught was in the textbook as 'Art lesson'. She adapted the lesson content to a task-based lesson and claimed to have spent much time preparing this lesson plan. She said:

I worked hard to reach the lesson aims and the way to present the information for each lesson. I looked for tasks that my students would enjoy in this art lesson, and I made sure that I had all of the materials and other things that I needed before class started.

The lesson entitled 'Andalucía Landscape' was a 45-minute lesson. It was addressed to 6th grade learners with elementary English level and was taken and adapted from the textbook (*Kid's Box 6*). The lesson aimed to build the pupils' knowledge of landscape art and artists, to identify the meaning of vocabulary in the context of the countryside and to have learnt the use of 'There is/are' and its negative form. She changed the title of the lesson from 'Landscape painting' to 'Andalucía Landscape' because she wanted to seize the opportunity and attract the pupils' attention in the lesson by talking about Andalucía (the region where most learners were born) rather than talking about landscape in general. The lesson consisted of the three task stages. First, the pre-task was prepared by the student teacher. She searched on the internet and selected a picture of a painting about Andalucía by an Andalusian painter (Liron Yanconsky) and aimed to introduce the topic

by opening discussion with the pupils by writing first the name of Pablo Picasso on board and asks the pupils whether they know him or not and other general questions. Then, she used the picture and asked the pupils about Andalusian painters and landscape. Second, in the main-task, she selected a reading and writing activity from the textbook. The activity was not task-based because, as it is apparent in Table 33, the activity did not meet the four criteria of the task. The main focus of the activity was grammatical. However, in the post-task, she used a task where it met the four criteria of the task. The pupils were asked to draw a painting depicting the region where they lived and give a title to their paintings, then the pupils worked in pairs and practiced the expression ‘Is there a ... in your painting?’ and the other pupil answers ‘Yes, there is’ or ‘No, there is not’. Finally, in the post-task, student teacher 2 explained the use of ‘Yes/No’ questions and the negative form of this sentence by doing extra practices with the pupil. In this stage, student teacher 2 depended on an activity which would have been better if she used it in the main-task phase instead of the post-task. Her lesson plan was not a real task-based lesson despite the three stages. The main-task was a PPP activity.

In her reflective questionnaire, she mentioned that her regular observations in the class helped her to know better the target learners, their needs, their learning styles and even draw an idea about the classroom atmosphere and the learners’ interaction in the class. She claimed that all these points paved the way for her lesson plan. She admitted to now being aware that there are always things that could go wrong: Technology might fail; students might complete activities quicker than planned; students might require much more time and explanation than expected.

As such, student teacher 2 realised that she needed to be prepared as much as possible, but, more importantly, she needed to prepare a flexible lesson plan, rather than a rigid one. She claimed:

When I started planning my lesson, I gave attention to knowing what’s going to come up or what will catch my learners’ attention and I integrated tasks into my lesson plan without neglecting the textbook.

This declaration confirms the awareness of student teacher 2 in trying to plan a lesson to better control the class and create a supportive learning atmosphere, rather than focusing on planning a 100% task-based lesson. She confirmed her reliance on the textbook and said that the mixture of tasks with the textbook was much easier than preparing the whole task-based lesson plan without referring to the school book. She considered her choice for the post-task activity as a mistake. She claimed:

When I planned such a task for the post-task phase I thought it would be a good idea to stimulate the learners because, most of the time, I see them as passive

learners for the last 15 minutes of each lesson... I preferred to get ahead with the grammar in the main-task and the place the task in the post task phase... It was a good idea, but time constraints prevented me to finish the task and I was not able to complete it.

4.4.2.1. Lesson presentation 2: descriptive narratives

Table 34 shows student teacher 2, to some extent, worked on planning a task-based lesson but based exclusively on textbook. The lesson student teacher 2 prepared was an attempt to look like a task-based lesson and it has an outcome that is considered as the main characteristic of a task-based lesson. The outcome of this lesson is writing and presentation skills. She narrated her first school placement lesson and mentioned that she came to the school earlier before the class started and discussed, in general terms, her lesson plan with the teacher before the pupils entered the class. She said that the pupils, as usual, were active. She greeted them and tried to calm them down to return to the normal atmosphere of the class. The classroom teacher explained to the pupils that today's lesson will be with student teacher 2 instead of her. She assisted in quietening the class and then she went to sit at the back of the class, giving complete freedom to the student teacher to teach. After wasting approximately 5 to 8 minutes in greeting and calming the class down, she started introducing the lesson as it is explained in Table 34 below. Rather than a task-based activity, the beginning of the lesson was more aligned with a PPP activity, which was then followed by a practical activity in the main-task phase. As Table 34 indicates, student teacher 2 planned pair work in this activity but in the class, she changed her mind and skipped the second part of the activity and preferred to discuss the activity with the whole class and recorded, on the board, the new vocabulary and new phrases to be given more attention later.

With this in mind, student teacher 2 plan and execution of the lesson is considered a PPP lesson as she started with the presentation of her lesson and proceeded to practice the objectives using the textbook activity. She carried on again with textbook activity, overriding the pair work in this activity. She explained:

When I started my lesson, I realised that I will not have enough time to do the third activity properly and because I really wanted to do that activity more than any other activity I preferred to do PPP activities in order to succeed in doing at least one task.

In the third activity, she declared that she succeeded in doing the task with the students and the time she gained from the first two activities served her to accomplish this activity. This activity was more communicative than task-based, simplified in comparison to the one in the textbook. Student teacher 2 claimed that the only obstacle in doing the

task was the learners' behaviour and her failure in controlling the class. She asked for help from the class teacher whose involvement helped to quieten the class. It was through this discipline that the learners were able to better understand the instructions.

She used Spanish to aid student comprehension and remarked that when she spoke using L1, the learners paid much more attention during instruction, in comparison to when instructions are given in English only. This experience generates the idea that L1 can help the teacher in regard to classroom management. Finally, the post-task activity was executed as planned, i.e., student teacher 2 explained the language form and tried to compensate for practices that she did not do in activities 2 and 3 in the post-task. It is apparent that the lesson was prepared as a task-based lesson, but its delivery was more closely aligned with a PPP lesson.

Table 34

Student teacher 2: school placement lesson plan.

		Task features				Lesson features		
		Meaning	Gap	Own resource	Outcome	Pedagogical Value	Lesson timing	Originality
						***	*	**
Pre-task	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> First, ST greets the children and writes on the board the name 'Pablo Picasso' and asks them the following questions: what they know about him? what kind of pictures did he paint? Is he still alive or not? How much a painting by a famous artist costs? and other general questions. Second, ST shows the students a painting about Andalucia, explains and asks them what landscape do they know and if they can describe the painting or the place. 						10	
Main-task	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Activity 1: ST asks the students to open their books in page 34 and to read the text silently (1-2 minutes). The text is about a painter and his painting. The ST points some students to read the text aloud for the class and she checks pupils' understanding of key vocabulary. After finishing, ST attracts pupils' attention to the right use of language forms like 'there is a hill.' Or 'the sky is blue.', tree, hill, sky, mountain etc. The rule of using the verb 'to be' in the present and its different use through correcting some errors done by the students in activity 1. ST speaks aloud and the students repeat after her. 	x	x	x	✓		20	
Post-task	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The ST divides the students into pairs (A and B partners) and makes sure that every student has got a blank piece of paper, pencil, water colors and explains to the students that every partner will draw one of the Andalucia landscape without showing it to their partner. After finishing, partner A asks partner B some questions about the picture like 'Is there a flower in your painting?' and partner B answers either by saying 'Yes, there is.' Or 'No, there is not.' Depending on the phrases the teacher had written on the board in activity 1. <p>The ST points some pupils to discuss with them their drawings.</p>	✓	x	x	✓		15	

4.4.3. Lesson plan 3: My musical taste!

Student teacher 3 did her school placement in a public school in Granada, and she also attended classes regularly. The difference though relates to the teaching time carried out. Despite high attendance, she observed most classes, watching rather than teaching. She declared that the class teacher, to some extent, was not a host teacher and had his own teaching style with his students and he did not like another teacher interfering in his classes.

Student teacher 3 provided me with a lesson she had prepared for 5th grade students, outlining limits in her lesson plan. She claimed to have had a lack of the freedom needed to plan a task-based lesson. She shared this lesson and context as she thought this may serve my research. In her lesson plan procedures, student teacher 3 did not spend much time searching materials and resources for the lesson. Instead, she was required to follow the school textbook, modifying some activities where appropriate. She claimed that she used the teacher resources textbook and prepared the lesson a week before her lesson presentation took place. She attended approximately 10 lessons before teaching her first lesson in this school. In her lesson planning, she checked the new words in the unit in order to comprehend them before the class. She tried to understand the sequencing of the activities and how these activities would be explained to the learners. She detailed:

I spent more of my lesson planning time in trying to simplify the content and searching to find exercises that align with the content of the textbook activities and equate to the learners' level because, throughout my classroom observations, I have constructed an idea about the learners' English and understanding level.

Student teacher 3 planned a 45-minute lesson plan based on unit 7 from *Academy Stars* book. The class teacher was already teaching the unit and student teacher 3 prepared her lesson fit into the same unit. The lesson 'My Musical Taste' consisted of three stages. In the pre-task, student teacher 3 revised the previous lesson using a 'teacher-led brainstorming activity' (Willis, 1996, p. 43) by asking simple questions to further assess the pupils' vocabulary comprehension and asking students to predict what today's lesson might be about. For the main-task, student teacher 3 prepared two modified activities from the textbooks, both adjusted according to the learners' comprehension competence. In the first activity the pupils listened to a song and answered questions related to this song and then they moved to a speaking activity where the learners worked in pairs.

Finally, in the post-task, the teacher used the workbook and revised the new words learned in the previous and the present lessons.

Student teacher 3 asserted that her lesson planning was, to some extent, time consuming. Since there was a textbook to follow and the class teacher required her to respect the textbook content, she was not bound to spend much time preparing the lesson. Materials that she used were sourced from the textbook and internet.

Student teacher 3 claimed that she enjoyed preparing her lesson plan as the topic was of interest to her. Her own love of music enabled her to connect with the content more authentically than during other lessons. She reported:

I found the topic interesting and different from the topics that we find always repeated in the textbooks... I myself had had enough from teaching always the same topics like sports, countries, animals and others.

She added:

I have prepared my lesson after finishing school and even though the lesson was not too difficult to prepare, my workload and university tasks meant that it was time and energy consuming.

4.4.3.1. Lesson presentation 3: descriptive narratives

As it is apparent in Table 35, this lesson plan started as a task-based lesson but was not developed with no final outcome to be reached by the end of the lesson. The activities used in the lesson plan were more communicative-based. Student teacher 3 explained that the lesson she prepared was, to some extent, respected in the class and was able to follow the plan regardless of some obstacles. She considered these obstacles as normal constraints faced by any junior or even senior teacher. Student teacher 3 recalled a sense of anxiety before delivering her first lesson of this school placement, feeling nervous about behaviour management. She claimed:

The only thing that I was afraid of and I was not confident in succeeding in it; was the classroom management and attracting the learners' attention to the lesson and the tasks.

She talked about the first ten minutes and said:

(...) For me if a teacher is able to control the lesson in the first 10 minutes, he/she will be able to end the lesson successfully and attains most of the lesson objectives.

In her reflective questionnaire, student teacher 3 claimed that the lesson timetable was taken into consideration and was followed, with the lesson objectives attained even though she could not assess the learners' learning input. She talked about the noise of the learners and how difficult it was for her to keep an eye on achieving the task and maintaining the class quiet simultaneously. She reported:

once I enter the class, I place the first and last focus on how to keep the class calm more than on how to teach.

She did not complain about the pre-task or the post-task, instead she mentioned that she satisfyingly accomplished them with no difficulties to report. In contrast though, she mentioned that in activity 1, the song did not appeal to the pupils and they started complaining and expressing their boredom by making strange sounds to stop the music. Student teacher 3 said.

when the learners' started complaining I got really confused and at first, I tried to ignore their reaction and pretend that nothing was happening but they did not want to stop so I changed my behaviour and became strict with them, and I obliged them to complete the activity to the end... I do not know if this behaviour was right or wrong and what I had to do in such a situation?

This was one of the difficulties that she faced without the knowledge of how to react in this situation. This lack of experience and knowledge created tension and destabilized her. She declared:

My confidence in the activity success decreased and kind of anxiety ...I do not say fear...started dominating me.

After the pupils' reaction, negative thoughts gathered in her mind, doubting the success of the second activity. She stated:

when the pupils reacted this way, I started thinking negatively about the second activity and I said that certainly will not please them and I will lose control over the lesson.

The second activity as detailed in Table 35 was not a TBLT-based activity but a textbook-based activity with minor modifications made to ensure access for the learners. Student teacher 3 did not face difficulties in this activity and the pupils were highly

excited to write about their favourite song and share it with the class and even she was doing the activity, helping the pupils in writing their texts as she moved around the class. The activity shifted from individual work to class work and all the pupils were moving in the class and asking about each other song. She said that she did not limit the pupils' movements in the class because, even though the class was noisy, the pupils were integrated in the lesson, and were engaging in the activity properly.

Table 35

Student teacher 3: school placement lesson plan

		Task features				Lesson features		
		Meaning	gap	Own resources	Outcome	Pedagogical value	Lesson timing	originality
Pre-task	T greets the pupils and starts the lesson by simply asking them about the previous lesson at and she asks them if they remember the vocabulary learned from the last lesson. T revises musical instruments vocabulary using flashcards.						10	*
Main-task	Activity 1: The pupils listen to a song from the textbook for the first time and they sing for the second time following the song rhythm. T explains the activity to the pupils. She asks them to work first individually for 3 to 5 minutes and then they share their answers with their partners and then they share with the whole class. T writes on the board new and difficult words that need explanation like the words 'rhythm, verse, ages ...etc'.	x	✓	x	x		10	
	Activity 2: T provides the pupils with blank sheets and explains to them that they have to write about a song that they love or makes them remember something special. T writes the sample of the paragraph that the pupils have to follow in their writing. After they finish writing, every pupil comes to the board and talks about his/ her song in front of the class.	✓	x	✓	x		15	
Post-task	T asks pupils to open their workbook and explains to them that they have to match the word with the appropriate definition. Homework from the workbook for the next lesson.						5	

4.4.4. Lesson plan 4: Traditions from weird to wonderful!

Student teacher 4 carried out her school placement in a public school in Granada and she prepared a lesson for 6th grade students. Student teacher 4 said that she was lucky because the class teacher was so nice and helpful and gave her the total freedom to teach the way she liked. For this reason, I asked from student teacher 4 if she would be able to ask the class teacher to let her teach a task-based lesson without the use of the textbook. Fortunately, the class teacher accepted her request agreeing that this task-based lesson could come after the textbook unit, acting as a break lesson before starting the next textbook unit. Student teacher 4's TBLT lesson followed the class teacher's teaching of the 4th unit from the textbook, 8 of those lessons having been observed by student teacher 4.

Student teacher 4 prepared her lesson by searching on the internet for sources and materials to use in her lesson plan. According to her, the task-based lesson preparation was not too difficult because she had already gathered information about the learners and their previous learning during the unit. She felt that she had a good idea of the learners' learning styles, needs and language level and allowed information to serve her planning of the TBLT lesson. Student teacher 4's lesson objectives were to evaluate students' knowledge of traditions and customs. Students would be able to demonstrate and describe an appreciation or depreciation for a festival that is celebrated in Spain or in another country. So, according to student teacher 4, the lesson she prepared was a task-based lesson because it consisted of the three stages. In the pre-task, student teacher 4 prepared a brainstorming task by showing the learners a picture about 'Halloween' with pairs of students doing a brainstorming activity (Willis, 1996). The first activity in the task-cycle phase was a sequencing activity (Willis, 1996) and the second task was a pair work activity where learners will carry on with the input started in the first task. Student teacher 4 ended the lesson plan with a post-task whereby the learners would report their findings and share their understanding to the whole. In this stage, student teacher 4 claimed that she was hesitant about the task she selected because she was not certain whether time allowed for its completion. In her plan, student teacher 4 prepared a comparing task where the learners will be asked to find some similarities and differences between the pictures and reviews, using thus the new vocabulary. Opportunities were also given, through the asking of questions, for students to practice sharing their opinions. At the end of the lesson, student teacher 4 gave the learners an assignment as homework.

4.4.4.1. Lesson Presentation 4: Descriptive narratives

Table 36 demonstrates that student teacher 4 lesson planned was a task-like lesson but after teaching the lesson she shared some conflicting remarks. She said that she entered the class with high motivation and confidence because she loved the class and the learners, and she was enjoying attending this class. Student teacher 4 came to school earlier and entered the class before the learners and the class teacher arrived. She revised her lesson plan during this time. Once the lesson started, student teacher 4 greeted the learners and asked them how they were doing and started the lesson by hanging the picture of 'Halloween' on the board and asking the learners whether they know what the picture is about and if they like this celebration or not. This led into the brainstorming task. Student teacher 4 said that the pre-task phase was good and took 10 to 12 minutes of the lesson. The learners were calm, integrated in the lesson and engaged with the task positively. After that she directly moved into giving instructions about the first activity. During the whole process, student teacher 4 did not complain about any strange behaviour or reaction from the learners. She only talked about two pupils (one boy and one girl) who started talking in Spanish about their last year 'Halloween' celebration together because they were neighbours and they were laughing and interrupting the class a little. When the pupils started doing the task and ordering the sentences, the class was noisy and student teacher 4 focused on two main strategies in order to decrease the noise and to help those learners who did not understand the task properly. She declared:

I was, to some extent, frustrated when I saw that there some learners who were not integrated in the task and did not understand the task ... I felt like there is an imbalance between the learners' understanding and it was my duty to help those pupils understand better the task and involve them in doing the task with the other pupils'.

In this respect, student teacher added:

I spoke loudly and I asked the pupils to stop doing the task and listen to me ... I did not say that there are pupils who did not understand the instructions, but I told them that I will explain to them what they are required to do but this time I was explaining and showing them how to do with the help of the pupils who comprehended the instructions as I saw that they were doing the task right.

After this, the task was completed successfully, despite the extra time needed. It took around 20 minutes, which exceeded the time outlined in the lesson plan. Student teacher moved directly into the second task, mindful of the time and began to wonder

whether she would be able to finish the activities on time. She decided to do the second activity even if she would not be able to do the post-task. Student teacher 4 said:

I wanted to carry on with the second activity because the pupils were already motivated and ready to do another task. that's why I preferred to finish the task-cycle rather than the post-task.

Indeed, she could not do the post-task and just wrote the homework on the board and explained to them what they were required to do.

Table 36

Student teacher 4: school placement lesson plan

		Task features				Lesson features		
		Meaning	gap	Own resources	Outcome	Pedagogical value	Lesson timing	originality

Pre-task	T shows the students a picture about 'Halloween'. T asks them if they know this event or not and asks them if they know other festivals and celebrations. Ss brainstorm vocabulary to use in task.						5-8 mins	
Main-task	Activity 1: T explains to the Ss the task instructions and gives each student a worksheet about Halloween. T asks the students to look at the picture and read the texts silently for 3 minutes. T discusses with the Ss the text and answers the questions related to the text with the whole class. T puts students in groups of 3-4. T takes the worksheets and gives them sentences to order to get the text. T sticks the posters on the walls of the class and turns around the class and discusses with the groups the pictures. T explains that the first group to finish ordering the text, sticks the text under the picture and the group who finishes the first will be the winner.	✓	✓	✗	✗		15 mins	
	Activity 2: T sticks on the board the 4 pictures of world festivals (Halloween, Christmas, La Tomatina and Holy week). She tests the Ss knowledge of these festivals. T puts students in pairs and gives each student in the pair A and B a text explaining one of the pictures in the board. Students will work individually; one student reads the text and the other guesses what it is and vice versa.	✓	✓	✗	✗		10-12 mins	
Post-task	The teacher reviews with the students the new vocabulary and does some practices about their opinions concerning these celebrations. Homework: Ask one of your family members about the Spanish celebration 'La Tomatina'.						5 mins	

4.4.5. Lesson plan 5: How do I get there?

Student teacher 5 planned a lesson for third grade pupils aged between 4 and 5 years old. His placement was in a public school in Granada where he was attending the lesson with an experienced English class teacher. He was not teaching regularly because most of the time he was observing the class teacher and participating in the class activities by helping the students in difficulty during the lesson. Student teacher 5 planned a lesson that he selected from the textbook and modified it according to his teaching beliefs and strategies. The class teacher had already started the unit and student teacher 5 had to prepare a grammar lesson as it was the next lesson to be taught. According to student teacher 5, the lesson was mainly a textbook-based lesson which he tried, to some extent, to adapt to a more task-based lesson. Student teacher 5 relied upon the textbook and on internet resources. He claimed that he did not find difficulties in planning the lesson because he already had an idea about the learners, and he knew that their English level was not particularly high and he would not be able to use only English in the class. He had to simplify the language as much as possible to make the content accessible, especially vocabulary. For student teacher 5, the lesson plan was not time consuming at the level of selecting activities for the class but rather he spent the time in trying to adjust his teaching strategies to the learners' learning styles. He explained:

I was concerned more about my role in the class rather than the content of the lesson because the learners' were young and their English level was low and I had a mixed class.

His lesson plan contained the three stages of a task-based lesson but student teacher 5 explained that he planned his lesson this way because he felt more organised and he thought that it would be easier for him in the class to use such a plan. For student teacher 5, the pre-task phase was an introduction to his lesson and he would not use tasks or activities at this stage. Student teacher 5 prepared flash cards about different transports and stations in order to revise with the pupils the vocabulary learned in the previous lessons. Then, for the task-cycle, student teacher 5 prepared the textbook activities. In the post-task, he focused on phonetics by revising the phoneme 'y'.

4.4.5.1. Lesson presentation 5: descriptive narratives

Student teacher's 5 lesson plan was not a real task-based lesson at the planning and presentation level. As made obvious in Table 37, most of the activities were communicative textbook-based with some adaptations made by the teacher in the

classroom. According to student teacher 5, the age of the learners did not allow him to be reckless and prepare a lesson that could be very difficult for the learners to understand and for him to teach. Student teacher 5 said:

I am not a risk taker in teaching, especially when the learners' English level is low and the learners are very young... I prefer to stick to the textbook in order not to get lost and I regret my teaching later.

On the day of his lesson, student teacher 5 portrayed:

I was not anxious about my teaching because I used to teach young learners even before my school placement but during this practicum, I wanted to give my best.

Thus, he did not encounter strong problems while teaching. He said that he entered the class simultaneously when the pupils arrived at the class, he greeted them at the door and was talking to the class teacher and discussing with him in a hurry his lesson plan when the pupils were taking their seats. Then, student teacher 5 greeted the pupils loudly by saying 'Good Morning Everybody! How are you doing today?' The pupils responded to the teacher with the same tone of the teacher. After greeting, he started the lesson by following the lesson plan. Student teacher 5 talked about the difficulties he faced during his lesson presentation and said that the main obstacle was the time constraint and he said:

the more you limit the content in your lesson plan the more teaching becomes easier and enjoyable to both the teacher and the learner, especially young learners.

On the other hand, student teacher 5 talked about shy, more introverted pupils who do not participate so willingly in the lesson. He added:

(...) The shyness of the students saw me spend more energy and time in my lesson to push them to talk in English and participate, but I was very confident in what I was doing.

In his checklist, student teacher 5 talked about how he overcame these obstacles in the class by trying to give more attention and chances to shy pupils and tried to involve them as much as possible in the tasks. Student teacher 5 declared:

in order I involve the shy pupils in the tasks, I talked first to myself and said that I have to be PATIENT with them.

Table 37

Student teacher 5: school placement lesson plan

		Task features				Lesson features		
		Meaning	Gap	Own resources	Outcome	Pedagogical Value	Lesson timing	Originality
								*
Pre-task	T greets Ss and shows them flashcards about transports and stations. T does brainstorm activity with the Ss.						5	
Main-task	Activity 1: Look, find and speak! ST asks the students to take out their books on page 78 and look at the picture in the book. ST asks questions like: <i>where was the family?</i> The students answer and ST opens discussion and starts the activity by giving attention to the use of the past simple.	x	x	x	x		8-10	
	Activity 2: Look, ask and answer! ST practices speaking and pushes students to speak. ST asks and students answer and sometimes the ST points some students to answer. ST puts students in pairs A and B. Student A gets 4 flashcards of (Bus, whistle, train and juice) and student B gets flashcards with words and students practice following the sentences written on the board like this: A: Did you have a train? B: Yes, I did. No, I did not.	x	x	x	x		10-12	
	Activity 3: Listening Students listen to conversation from the textbook where they have to learn 'MUST' and students do role plays. They listen to a song from the textbook and then they sing it with the guidance of the teacher.	x	x	x	x		10-12	
Post-task	T explains to the learners the rules of 'did' in the negative and positive forms and how they ask the questions with 'did'.						6	

4.4.6. Lesson plan 6: Animals around the world!

Student teacher 6 did his school placement in a public school in Granada. He was attending the classes regularly but he was observing the lessons more than teaching. The lesson student teacher 6 prepared was for 3rd grade students. With these students the class book was not followed by word and the teacher had a certain freedom to sometimes use it and sometimes not. Student teacher 6 seized the opportunity to prepare his own lesson and design a task-based lesson. The lesson student teacher 6 prepared was entitled 'Animal around the world!'. According to him, the plan was time consuming because he was trying to find very appropriate activities for the learners' level and learning needs and how to put the target language into context for learners with a very beginning English level. Student teacher 6 surfed the net about to find appropriate activities and he claimed that he came across a lot of materials and sources to teach animals. He said:

I really get lost in the number of worksheets, games and tasks available on the internet ... the problem is not to find an activity but how to select, adapt and make it appropriate to the learners.

Student teacher 6 was afraid from what he would face him in the class and whether his lesson plan would be successfully implemented in the class or not and during his lesson preparation. Student teacher 6 talked about an important point in preparing a task-based lesson, he got confused in separating the activities for the pre-task from the activities for the post-task especially he had difficulties in finding suitable activities for the post-task phase. He said:

(...) throughout my lesson planning I knew that I still do not understand the three steps of the task-based lesson and I still do not know to put the appropriate activity in the right stage'.

4.4.6.1 Lesson Presentation 6: Descriptive narratives

As it is apparent in Table 38, the lesson student teacher 6 prepared was not a task-based lesson. It was more communicative and the activities used were not tasks. Student teacher did not follow a textbook, choosing instead to follow the lesson plan he had prepared himself. He talked about his experience describing it as both enjoyable and a little frustrating. He found the class teacher's available disruptive. Student teacher said:

I am of the kind of teachers who do not like to be observed during their teaching or in doing anything- that's why I did not feel comfortable especially at the beginning of the lesson'.

Student teacher 6 did not write the lesson objectives but he said that he knew what he wanted to teach, so for him it was not important to write them down. He did the activities properly and said that he had some problems in classroom management. He faced difficulty involving a Moroccan girl in the class who was new in the school and did not know Spanish. She was quiet and shy. Thus, the teacher found himself facing several different tasks at the same time and explained that:

doing a task-based lesson with young learners and to have a foreigner in the class who does not speak even the L1 is very demanding and energy consuming.

Student teacher 6 talked also about the post-task, recalling that he could not finish it and give the learners homework to write about their favourite animal and draw a picture about it. To overcome the difficulties discussed above, he tried to be patient and convinced himself that this noise is very normal regarding the learners' age. He also reflected that using L1 with the learners when giving instructions was helpful with regards to classroom management. He found this to be more effective than using English phrases such as 'Be quite!', 'Stop talking!' ...

Table 38

Student teacher 6: school placement lesson plan

		Task features				Lesson features		
		Meaning	Gap	Own resources	Outcome	Pedagogical Value	Lesson timing	originality
								**
Pre-task	<p>ST tells the Ss that he recently visited a zoo and asks them to guess what animals they think he saw at the zoo and writes them on the board.</p> <p>ST asks the Ss if they have ever been to the zoo and what animals they saw.</p> <p>ST introduces the animal names and key expressions for the lesson using flashcards.</p> <p>T asks Ss to repeat after him as he says the animal names aloud.</p>						10	
Main-task	<p>Activity 1: Listening</p> <p>ST explains to the students that they will listen to a piece called 'The Carnival of the Animals' by Camille Saint-Saens and they will watch a piece of movements that represent different animals. ST gives Ss printed worksheets and asks them to fill in the table by ticking the animals they like or dislike while watching the video.</p>	x	x	x	x		10	
	<p>Activity 2:</p> <p>ST divides students into pairs and gives students 2 minutes with their classmates to know about each other.</p> <p>ST sticks animal flashcards on the board (the same animals in the video) and writes down.</p> <p style="padding-left: 40px;">e.g. A: Do you like (animal name)?</p> <p style="padding-left: 40px;">B: Yes, I do.</p> <p style="padding-left: 40px;">No, I do not.</p> <p>ST explains the use of the above form of asking and answering. ST asks each pair to come to the middle of the class and practice in front of their classmates the dialogue using the hanging flashcards.</p> <p>After, ST practices with the whole class the different use of the pronouns with the verb 'to like'.</p> <p style="padding-left: 40px;">e.g. Does Carmen like lions?</p> <p style="padding-left: 40px;">Yes, she does.</p> <p style="padding-left: 40px;">No, she does not.</p>	x	x	x	x		15	
Post-task	<p>T plays with the Ss the 'who am I?' game.</p> <p>T hides flashcards and starts giving definitions like 'I am Australian, hopping quickly. I always have baby in my belly. about an animal and asks Ss who am I. The answer is Kangaroo!</p>					<input type="checkbox"/>	10	

4.7. Training impact interview results

The researcher fixed a meeting with the 6 pre-service teachers from the experimental group (A) after finishing their teaching placement. The impact interview was composed of 5 questions. The aim behind using this research tool is to test the hypothesis which states that TBLT training, if conducted with pre-service teachers appropriately, might lead to a better utilization and application in EFL classes. Discussions also investigated participant impressions regarding the teaching placement they had after the TBLT training and their opinions concerning their teaching practices, their suggestions and instructions for a good adaptation and use of TBLT in EFL classes. The extent to which TBLT training can serve teachers in their teaching context was explored, along with what they can suggest for optimal TBLT training for pre-service teachers. Below there are some excerpts taken from the participants' interviews and, based on the nature of the interview and the nature of the participants' responses, the analysis of this research instrument will be a qualitative one.

[1] Was the overall TBLT training course beneficial to your teaching placement?

After the completion of the whole teaching placement, pre-service teachers provided answers to this question. Their views concerning the implementation of TBLT varied. Themes were extracted from the student teachers' declarations. They confessed that, to some degree, the TBLT training was beneficial and relevant to their teaching practice. All the participants showed positive feelings towards TBLT course and confirmed that the TBLT training helped them to catch the students' understanding during the lesson and how to collect information on their progress throughout the different quarters and the entire course. From the analysis, it was mentioned that the TBLT training helped the student teachers to be able to construct a task-based lesson plan and know how to divide the lesson into sections. As student teacher 3 declared that she paid attention to some points that she had not realised before having the TBLT training. They claimed that the TBLT training taught them to value every learning skill, use the language as a vehicle of communication and to be aware of the importance of planning a pedagogical lesson. Additionally, the student teachers' beliefs changed and were affected by the training. Student teachers declared that this training helped them to present the lesson with more confidence because they were able to adapt the textbook lesson to their lesson planning,

beliefs and competences. Student teacher 4 explained that the TBLT training helped her at the practical side of language use in the class. She claimed that:

(...) this training helped me to evaluate my level of lesson planning and understanding'. Student teachers 1 and 5 considered TBLT as a method that pushes the teacher to be creative and innovative considering the traditional teaching methods used in schools.

However, they encountered some problems in which the knowledge they had learnt from the training was not sufficient. According to student teacher 4 and 6, the training helped the teacher to get rid of some difficult situations that face them in the class but not all. Student teacher 3 said:

the training was a challenge for me, but when in the class, it is more a pleasure than a challenge.

Student teacher 2 stated:

the training helped me to get a little off the textbook and be more autonomous teacher.

On the other hand, the participants talked about the difficulties they faced during their lesson planning and preparation and the failure of TBLT training knowledge in helping them to overcome these obstacles. All four females (student teachers 1, 2, 3, and 4) talked about the knowledge they acquired during the training and the amount of new internet resources to use in their teaching in the future. They said that they found themselves sinking in an ocean of information, where they were not able to synthesize the knowledge, they had learned from the training with the available knowledge to prepare an adequate lesson plan. All the participants considered TBLT as an approach that requires more time, energy and concentration from the teacher. The participants agreed that the training was an enjoyable approach but just as this training has pros, it has cons and needs significant modifications.

[2] Is there anything which has changed your perception, attitude or behaviour as a result of the training course?

Two main themes were drawn from the student teachers' answers to this question. Lesson preparation and lesson presentation obstacles and facilities encountered the student teachers during their teaching placement. Firstly, participants' personal comments and reflections concerning their lesson preparation and presentation experience were both

positive and negative. They claimed that the three steps of a task-based lesson were helpful to sequence and plan a lesson easily. Two student teachers claimed that even though they taught non-task-based lessons but they followed the three steps in their lesson preparations because they found them very practical and logical. Furthermore, they claimed that the TBLT training instructor provided them with very interesting teaching materials, applications and websites to prepare their lessons. Two student teachers said that they felt prepared when planning and presenting the lesson but not so prepared when it came to the obstacles faced during teaching time in the classroom. From their view, student teachers 1, 2, and 3 were not completely autonomous in the class, they had to follow the routine of the class, this is what drove them to feel incompetent and unable to react authentically to situations in the class. In this respect, the participants experienced some obstacles and difficulties when preparing and presenting their lessons. The main obstacle was time constraints and the inability of some student teachers in either applying a TBLT lesson or finishing the TBLT lesson in one session. Second, the participants talked about the learners' English level that prevented some student teachers to teach real TBLT lessons. Third, teaching speaking was pointed out by three student teachers and explained the difficulty they faced to teach speaking for learners with low English. Fourth, the school restrictions and the use of the textbook was one of the main barriers that limited the use of TBLT in the class. Finally, deciding and allotting the time suitably for every lesson was a real challenge for all the student teachers and declared that was very difficult for them to plan a 45-minute task-based lesson.

[3] What are the advantages and disadvantages of planning and teaching a task-based lesson?

Every participant had his/her own particular view regarding the planning and presenting of a task-based lesson. Student teacher 1 and 2 talked about working more on social and civic competences, explaining that the students work in groups, interacting and sharing information with classmates. For linguistic competences, the student teachers talked of students communicating with others, through different texts or forms of speech, about after school clubs. In reference to the awareness of cultural expressions, the leisure time of the students was explored to share culture and learn of one another's culture and/or country.

The student teachers showed their knowledge of the three steps that the teacher had to follow in a task-based lesson in order for students to develop. They explained their understanding of the three TBLT steps as follows:

1. Warm-up or pre-task: where students make contact with the topic.
2. Task cycle: where they engage in practising skills in listening, speaking, reading, writing. In this respective order because listening is the most important first step.
3. Post-task: where they consolidate knowledge learned before.

In all the skills they develop, the linguistic competence stands out because they had activities addressing vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation. The aim warranting greater focus is about getting positive feedback to motivate students to learn the language and help the learners develop skills such as listening, speaking, reading, writing, pronunciation, grammar. They admitted having learnt practical tasks and activities from the TBLT training regarding the different skills, all agreeing that the linguistic competence stands out most of all due to the student interaction with others, through different modalities and formats. Student teacher 4 said:

(...) culture is another important factor because, for example, a topic of after-school clubs or traditions are very famous in different countries and the Spanish student have to know about it.

They are going to work with information about clubs and use their imagination to create an advertising triptych. This final outcome is going to be achieved through TBLT since the students do significant tasks using the target language, in addition to developing language fluency and student confidence.

Student teacher 3 and 4 talked about the age of the students and its impact on the lesson presentation and was based on Real Decreto 126 and Orden del 17 de marzo de 2015 in which the topic for the lesson was established. The TBLT training helped the student teachers create a motivating teaching atmosphere in a task-based lesson, as explained by student teacher 4:

(...) throughout our lesson I wanted students to be motivated and interested on the lesson... they could travel in their mind without leaving the class, because the main outcome of this lesson is that each student could be able to present a describe the place where would like to travel in their next vacations, for this reason it will be on the last quarter. This topic will improve their communicative skills.

Student teacher 3 added that during the TBLT training they learned more about the teaching of the four skills, hence their own focus on these skills in the lesson they prepared in the TBLT training. Student teacher's main aim was to improve students' four basic language skills as well as the key competences, and to ensure students were working following CLT and TBLT approaches through a series of meaningful and purposeful tasks.

Student teacher 5 and 6 had a positive attitude towards the training and claimed that the aim of lessons they had prepared during the TBLT training and school placement was to develop a task-based lesson. They mentioned the Real Decreto 126 de 28 de febrero de 2014 and said that this law helped them to be aware of the government legislations and take them into consideration when preparing their lessons. They claimed that they learned how to give importance to content which students need to be able to exchange information (both to understand and produce). Consequently, lessons they prepared in the TBLT training and the school placement were considered of vital importance because they were part of the students' personal information, including likes or preferences and based on real-life communication. Student teacher 4 declared:

(...) for me since the lesson matches the students' personal lives and students would be able to produce in that lesson, is a task-based lesson.

Since the methodology chosen to use was task-based, every class would rely on a final outcome which was to be the result of the lesson learning process. For instance, student teacher 6 explained:

(...) in the lesson prepared in the TBLT training, the final session was fully dedicated to producing a summative product that gathered contents from every previous information.

Furthermore, student teacher 5 said that the knowledge he had learned during the TBLT training about 'adaptations' was really helpful during the school placement experience and was necessary for students who did not belong to the average intervals by employing different methodologies or giving them a different role in class. Finally, the participants had a positive attitude towards the implementation of TBLT in their future teaching context but did hint at some need for modification of the training moving forward. In response to whether changes to the TBLT training were needed, one participant responded:

yes, certainly, but it just needs the acceptance, readiness and ability of the teacher from one side and an adequate well planned and precise TBLT training from another side.

[4] *Do you have any recommendation or other comments on the training course?*

As question 5 was administered to include more information that can serve this study in the future, the participants did not skimp on their thoughts. They willingly shared their recommendations to enhance the TBLT training in the Spanish context. Student teacher 5 suggested that:

what teachers' believe affects how learners learn so teacher's beliefs towards the use of this approach are the key elements in improving the use of TBLT ... if teachers construct positive beliefs about TBLT, they will reflect these feelings on their teaching'.

Student teacher 4 said:

Teacher's knowledge, understanding and preparedness for the use of such an approach can be improved through adequate trainings that focus on TBLT only and show the teacher how to mainly adapt this approach to the textbook'.

Student teacher 4 relates the success of TBLT to the provision of:

(...) informative training and appropriate class equipment that fit the TBLT.

She declared that TBLT training could be more beneficial to pre-service teachers if delivered in authentic settings:

I see training as the focal point for the success of TBLT use. I prefer if all training hold in real contexts like in authentic schools.

In this vein, student teacher 2 suggested a type of TBLT training that she considered as a very supportive solution:

(...) according to me, instead of making a global training, each university is able to make very specific trainings in terms of content and trainees' needs. This will reduce the teachers' fear and increase their performance.

Student teacher 5 added:

I prefer if the TBLT training be more specific and precise without mixing the other teaching methods within the same training and focus on the teachers' role in this training'.

Concerning the task-based lesson stages, student teacher 1 talked about whether more opportunities for practice could be given, especially at the practical level:

I see if the 3 phases of TBLT lesson can be more explained in the training through theory and practiced equally and integrate the teacher in the selection of the training content because teachers' have a vital role in the success or failure of this approach.

Even Student teacher 2 mentioned this point and said:

(...) give more importance to teachers' practices and the training focus more on helping teachers how to plan a lesson and how to overcome all the obstacles faced during this phase and I suggest training based on practice and more personalized for each teacher which means we do the training the same way we will be asked to do with our students using TBLT. Teachers need to model the TBLT lesson as with the students.

4.8. Concluding remarks

As it appears in Table 39, the activities prepared by all the three pairs during the TBLT training, to some extent, were tasks based on their structure and we could conclude that the participants succeeded in preparing tasks whose focus was on meaning. This means that they grasped and internalized this key idea. The second characteristic that was present in the three lessons was the use of 'own resources' to complete the task. Only some activities like 2, 3, 4 in the second lesson plan did not have this feature. Third, most of the tasks did not have a specific gap that differentiated them from an exercise. However, the 4th task in lesson plan 1 and the third task in lesson plan 3 did not have a gap and leaned to an exercise more than a task. Fourth, learners in the tasks in lesson plans 1 and 2 produced their language rather than practicing (or rote learning). Thus, we can clearly appreciate the language outcome. In contrast, activity 1 in lesson plan three did not have an outcome and the participants claimed that it was difficult for them to make the difference between an outcome and own resources in a task. On the other hand, only the lesson prepared and taught by student teacher 1 was characterized as task-based. This means that the tasks the student teacher prepared contained the four features of a task. However, the other five lessons prepared during the school placement were either task-like or non-task lessons. The pedagogic structure of the lessons was task-based because they followed the three stages that a task-based lesson has (pre-task, main-task and post-

task). Throughout my analysis, I found that the 5 participants who did not succeed in preparing a complete task-based lesson had a set of problems at the level of TBLT knowledge, especially with the four characteristics of the task. For instance, student teacher 5 lesson plan showed his inability in preparing real tasks for his lesson although his lesson followed the three stages but the main-task phase was not task-based and the activities he prepared were more exercises-like rather than tasks.

In the first impression, the lessons prepared during the school placement looked like task-based and the participants themselves thought their lesson plans were task-based. However, when they were asked to describe how their lessons reflected the features of tasks and after my analysis of the lessons against Ellis's (2009a) task features, it brought to light that the participants' understanding was variable and the student teachers had low comprehension of task features and had difficulties differentiating a task from an exercise. Three characteristics that the student teachers had problems with were the outcome, the gap principles, and the learners' own resources. It was apparent that the participants did not have the full knowledge of task features and were not well trained to prepare tasks based on these four features. Since the TBLT training did not give much space for the task features, the researcher did not provide questions in the reflective questionnaire about how the participants selected the tasks and how they made the difference between an exercise and a task. The researcher preferred to analyse herself the tasks and see if the participants had a certain command of these features. As a result, it is elucidated that in every lesson, except the one of student teacher 1 that was a task-based, the participants missed filling at least three features and found themselves inclining to exercises rather than tasks. The use of textbooks may explain this tendency towards exercises and can be considered as an obstacle in the face of the student teachers to prepare a task-based lesson properly.

Table 39.

TBLT training and school placement lesson plans analysis against Ellis (2003) 4 task features.

TBLT training lesson plans					School placement lesson plans									
Student teachers 1 and 2					Student teacher 1					Student teacher 2				
Activities	Meaning	Own resources	Gap	Outcome	Activities	Meaning	Own resources	Gap	Outcome	Activities	Meaning	Own resources	Gap	Outcome
1	✓	✓	✗	✓	1	✓	✓	✓	✓	1	✗	✗	✗	✗
2	✓	✗	✗	✓	2	✓	✓	✓	✓	2	✓	✗	✗	✓
3	✗	✗	✗	✓	Student teacher 5					Student teacher 6				
4	✓	✗	✓	✓										
Student teachers 3 and 4					1	✗	✗	✗	✗	1	✗	✗	✗	✗
1	✗	✗	✗	✓	2	✗	✗	✗	✗	2	✗	✗	✗	✗
2	✗	✗	✗	✓	3	✗	✗	✗	✗	3	✗	✗	✗	✗
3	✓	✗	✓	✓	Student teacher 3					Student teacher 4				
Student teachers 5 and 6					1	✗	✓	✗	✗	1	✓	✓	✗	✗
1	✓	✓	✗	✗	2	✓	✗	✓	✗	2	✓	✓	✗	✗
2	✓	✓	✗	✓										
3	✓	✓	✓	✓										

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5. Introduction

The main question addressed in this study was ‘what are the effects on learning and behaviour of using a task-based language teaching training with pre-service teachers across a semester?’ The first part of this chapter was an empirical investigation of the actual implementation of TBLT in Spain, thereby contributing to the literature in this area. This is considered as the key element in my data collection, gathering knowledge about the TBLT implementation in Spain and the potential problems and limitations to the approach used by Spanish EFL teachers using a questionnaire (RQ1). The second part discussed the effects of TBLT training on pre-service teachers’ learning, knowledge and behaviour across a semester using observations of classroom practices, pre and post-test (RQ2). In the third part, a reflective questionnaires and impact training interviews with pre-service teachers during the second semester were used to better understand the effect of the TBLT training on the pre-service teachers’ behavioural and learning level. Both tools are also applied in order to identify the main difficulties and obstacles pre-service teachers faced in their teaching placement when using TBLT in their classes (RQ3). This chapter discussed the results of the data collection and the implications of the findings. Alongside this, the researcher’s investigation correlated the features of both in-service and pre-service EFL teachers’ attitudes towards TBLT with the various misconceptions surrounding TBLT and the poor knowledge and practice of TBLT and TBLT training. Lastly, a summary of the results presented an overview of the data with regard to the potential effects of TBLT training so that the significance and implications of the study can be further explored in the final chapter.

5.1. Discussion of the first tool (phase one)

RQ1: What knowledge and beliefs do primary EFL teachers have of TBLT?

The starting point of data collection was with regards to the first research question. The purpose of this part of the research was to pave the way for my investigation and collect much information about the application and comprehension of this approach in the Spanish EFL context. The data indicated that, whatever understanding teachers have of TBLT, the participating teachers had positive perceptions about task-based language teaching. This conclusion aligns with the results of Nemati and Rostamian (2013) who, through their investigation of EFL teachers’ attitude of task-based approach in Indian and

Iranian contexts respectively, and determined that despite the low understanding of the principles of TBLT by the Indian and Iranian teachers, most of them hold positive perceptions toward this approach. The research of study analysed data regarding the participants' gender, age and years of teaching experience, with results revealing that gender had no significant influence on teachers' perceptions about TBLT. Besides, no link was found between the teachers' knowledge and perception of TBLT and the gender of the participant. This correlates with the results of Pham & Nguyen (2018) who investigated the EFL teachers' perceptions of TBLT and its implementation in EFL classes in Vietnam, finding that there was no significant difference between males and females. The first part of the questionnaire was analysed in relation to the teachers' years of teaching experience and the results indicated that, in response to the seven items, teachers' answers varied between agree, strongly agree and neutral with no disagreement or strong disagreement. As it is mentioned in Table 12, despite teacher knowledge of TBLT, there were some neutral answers. However, teachers whose teaching experience is less than 5 years, and from 10 to 20 years, have greater knowledge and understanding of TBLT concepts in comparison to the teachers who have a teaching experience above 20 years. In response to all seven questions, several teachers with more than 20 years of teaching experience were not sure of their answers, some of them not able to confirm agreement or disagreement to many of the items.

The results gathered from items 1 to 7 showed that teachers have a good handle of the linguistic characteristics of tasks, which favour task application in Spanish EFL/ESL classrooms. Interestingly though, when the researcher analysed and compared the participants knowledge with the participants' years of teaching experience, there were some differences. This advocates the findings of Jeon and Hahn (2006), Tabatabaei and Hadi's (2011) and Pohan's (2016) studies. These studies were conducted with Asian teachers and the results revealed that Korean, Iranian and Indonesian EFL teachers had a certain understanding towards the concepts and principles of TBLT and hold positive perceptions of this approach. Moreover, the results of the present study resemble those found in the study of Xiongyong and Samuel (2011) which investigated EFL teachers' knowledge of TBLT in China. They identified that Chinese teachers apparently comprehend the notion of TBLT. They had adequate knowledge to apply TBLT in the Chinese classes. This correlation can be explained by the evidence that the results of the

former study derived from the declarations of Ministry of Education of China. It affirmed that teachers had to be ready to be good facilitators and knowledge holders by virtue of the invasion of learner-centred and activity-based teaching approaches. This reform parallels the reform stated by the Spanish Ministry of Education claiming that teachers' awareness and knowledge of TBLT refer the value given to the implication of TBLT in Spanish language classrooms. However, the results of the present study are in contrast with the study of Lin and Wu (2012) who claimed that EFL teachers in Taiwan had narrow understanding of task-based language teaching, particularly regarding the tasks themselves. This contradiction is due to the fact that in the study of Lin and Wu (2012), most of the teachers used a grammar-translation method instead of communicative-based approach.

Item 8 through 15 examined teachers' views and attitudes on TBLT implementation, revealing that the Spanish EFL teachers have a tendency towards the implementation of TBLT in English language classrooms, like some EFL teachers, globally. This result echoes the findings of Bunmak (2015) who found that teachers hold positive attitudes towards the implementation of TBLT in their classes because they are aware of its benefits for both teachers and learners. However, years of teaching experience demonstrated that novice and less experienced teachers tend to apply this approach in class at higher rates than the more experienced teachers. Despite this, it is concluded that teachers in general, regardless of their experience, are still not confident in their ability to use this approach in their classes. A need for adaptation of TBLT to their teaching is evident due to the insufficient understanding and experience in TBLT. This finding corresponds with Bunmak's (2015) who affirmed in his study that senior teachers share the same attitudes with junior teachers towards TBLT implementation and claimed that due to the lack of knowledge and comprehension of TBLT, Thai teachers hesitate in implementing TBLT in Thai EFL classes. The teachers showed awareness of the negative side of TBLT and the obstacles they may face if they decide to use it. These findings affirm that, despite the Spanish teachers' knowledge and understanding of TBLT, they are still hesitant to practice TBLT principles in their classes. These results are consistent with Ansari and Shahrokhi's (2014), and Jeon and Hahn's (2006) studies, stating that most Iranian and Japanese EFL teachers understand what tasks are, but they are reluctant to use TBLT in their classes.

Before talking about the three principles of TBLT that encompass a task, teachers' roles and classroom management, it is customary for Spanish teachers to work in a way that allows for the maintenance of the internal system of the classroom. In this way, Spanish teachers are called to create a more encouraging, pleasant and convenient learning atmosphere in which learners actively engage with the learning process.

In response to the fourth part of the questionnaire, results unveil the reasons why teachers choose or avoid implementing TBLT. The majority of teachers favour TBLT implementation by virtue to its creative and collaborative nature, or due to its appropriateness for small group work or its motivational advantage. This finding replicates data from case studies (Carless, 2004, 2007; Jeon & Hahn, 2006; Littlewood, 2007; Lin & Wu, 2012). Some teachers choose to use this approach as long as it enhances learners' communicative skills and believe that it descends from learning theories rather than the linguistic features (Johnson, 2004). This finding is consistent with that of Bunmak (2015) and Hui (2004) studies who affirmed that TBLT is useful to enhance learners' communicative skill as it can motivate learners to communicate with classmates and teachers in a relaxing atmosphere for learners to develop their language practice. The findings support those of Thanghun (2012) and Pietri (2015), who explained in their studies that TBLT is useful for learners mostly in advancing their communicative skills and interaction aptitudes.

Research also highlights the challenges that teachers face, often preventing them from using the task-based approach. Reasons for this aversion often include notions of inexperience; teachers are not accustomed to this approach; teachers have limited knowledge of task-based instruction; or teachers have difficulty in assessing learners' task-based performance (Jeon & Hahn, 2006 p. 16). From their responses, it is observed that teachers have a theoretical comprehension of tasks, yet when it comes to practice, they feel lost. This result supports the findings of Hui (2004) who revealed that teachers' theoretical comprehension of TBLT might influence the teachers' implementation of teaching methods. It is therefore appreciated that teachers' misunderstanding of tasks, and their limited knowledge of methodological aspects of TBLT, can impact the way teachers apply tasks in their classes. The study of Xiongyong and Samuel (2011) confirms that if teachers do not have sufficient knowledge of TBLT, it will be the main constraint in using TBLT in EFL classes successfully. Teachers believe that they do not have the required

experience and mastery to apply TBLT and are used to the traditional teaching methods which depend on teacher-centred lessons.

Bunmak's (2015) study demonstrated that teachers' experience in implementing TBLT is considered a chief factor in determining the success or failure of that teacher's use of TBLT. He elaborated by suggesting that this, in turn, can lead teachers to reject the use of TBLT in their EFL classes. Similarly, Zheng and Borg (2013) stated that most Chinese secondary school EFL teachers have insufficient experience in using TBLT because they still tend to use traditional teaching methods, focusing on form rather than on meaning, in their lessons. This finding, to some extent, contradicts the results of the current study because Spanish primary EFL teachers do not rely completely on traditional teaching methods. As a result, this rejection of TBLT reflects their lack of confidence and knowledge of task performance. Therefore, teachers with low confidence and little knowledge of TBLT, cannot create a supporting learning atmosphere, inspire learners' confidence, and help them successfully complete task-based activities. Low confidence also features as a main cause of rejection in the studies of Jeon and Hahn, (2006); Thi and Tran, (2017); Ansari and Shahrokhi (2014). Thus, it can be argued that exposing teachers to more TBLT training and techniques, in order to help teachers, construct positive perceptions of TBLT, can boost the rate of successful application in the Spanish EFL classrooms. The greater the teachers' confidence, the greater the rates of learner active participation in task-based lessons. With this, teaching starts to shift toward more learner-centred teaching (Burdett, 2003; Harris, 2016).

Only a few teachers declared that they cannot use TBLT due to the unsuitability of the textbook materials and the large class sizes. It is realised that the current EFL textbooks in Spain's primary schools are characterized by their task-based syllabus (Boletín Oficial del Estado, 2015) and are in line with the findings from Tabatabaei and Hadi's (2011) study who found that Iranian teachers did not complain about textbooks in implementing task-based language teaching because they view that the activities in EFL textbooks are communicative-based and can be adapted to be task-based. Nonetheless, in this study, classroom size was not calculated as an obstacle to implement TBLT. This is in contrast to the findings of Zheng and Borg (2013), as well as Xiongyong and Samuel (2011), who linked the success or failure of TBLT to class size and viewed its implication in Asian classes as difficult due to the large number of students.

TBLT has gained popularity in Spain and much light must now be shed on the formation of the Spanish EFL teachers, raising their professional ability in using TBLT, rather than focusing on the teaching materials and context in EFL Spanish classes. Such an idea correlates with Zare's (2007) suggestion that teachers can be the master key to successfully inserting TBLT in any educational system.

Findings to the fifth part of the questionnaire revealed that Spanish teachers did not have the opportunity to attend TBLT training. Based on their responses, it is illustrated that most training took place at the university (before starting teaching), with a generic nature and for no more than three months. This demonstrates the failure of teachers' support at the training phase of their careers. This can explain how teachers come to believe that part of their role is to introduce TBLT practices in the Spanish EFL classes.

This research has made clear that teachers who use TBLT in the classroom should get TBLT training. Boletín Oficial del Estado (2015) requires Spanish teachers to teach English using tasks, with teacher capacity to strengthen, adapt and improve teaching material, to be highlighted. One common scenario sees teachers in Spain frequently requested to use a textbook administered by the school and, in another emerging scenario, they are required to teach using tasks. Thus, teachers need funds and support to appropriately adapt, evaluate and produce materials, in ways which guarantee consistency for the learners in their teaching context. This context leads teachers to provide suggestions about the nature and quality of the training objectives they need most. It is remarked that teachers believe in the possibility of TBLT application in the Spanish context whereby training developers, curriculum and material designers help teachers construct their personal policy when facing educational changes, provide training that raises teacher confidence when using TBLT, and plan training with specific and direct objectives. Lastly, it would be recommendable to create a collaborative atmosphere or a national online platform to share teacher ideas on task implementation, in the Spanish context.

5.2. Discussion of the experimental tool (phase 2)

RQ2: What understandings do primary pre-service EFL teachers have of TBLT training sessions?

- What are their perceptions and attitudes towards the TBLT training sessions?
- How comfortable do primary EFL pre-service teachers feel with a particular approach like TBLT?
- How can a methodological training like TBLT help elementary pre-service teachers in the lesson planning and presentation process?

5.2.1. TBLT training course and pre-service teachers' learning

As stated in chapter 4, the data collection procedure went through three main phases and this section addresses phase two, discussing the second research question and sub-questions, i.e., (a) What understanding do pre-service EFL teachers have of TBLT training sessions?, (b) What are the pre-service teachers' perceptions and views towards the TBLT implementation?, and (c) What are the pre-service teachers' attitudes towards the appropriate period and quality of training?

Firstly, in order for teachers to apply a teaching method appropriately, they should have sufficient knowledge of this approach. In this part of the research, the researcher first shed light and attention on the effect of formal education (Teacher Training for Primary Education Course) in promoting and enhancing the pre-service teachers' understanding and learning of TBLT. The founded results demonstrated a significant difference between the control and experimental groups after the training took place. The TBLT training impacted the participants from the experimental group by boosting the theoretical knowledge of TBLT. The pre-service teachers gained a comparatively clear understanding of the linguistic characteristics. More importantly, this leads us to say that pre-service teachers, regardless of their teaching experience, express a considerable amount of practical understanding about the theoretical concepts of TBLT. This suggests that TBLT training course was highly structured at the theoretical level, impacting the pre-service teachers' cognition.

Findings from item 8 through 17 point to only moderate change in teacher views and beliefs towards TBLT by the end of the course, despite the progress of pre-service teachers' knowledge of TBLT concepts. The present study meets and contradicts with the results of studies conducted by Ogilvie and Dunn (2010) and Jaruteerapan (2020). In these studies beliefs were assessed using the same research instrument, i.e., a questionnaire developed by Ogilvie and Dunn and used in research conducted with student teachers in

Canada, and again Jaruteerapan (2020) with student teachers in Vietnam. The questionnaire used in the present study to assess pre-service teachers' beliefs differed and was adapted from Jeon and Hahn's (2006) research. The results of the former studies revealed that there was a moderate change in the student teachers' beliefs after having the TBLT course. This study is different from those studies because both researchers depended on only one group of participants and focused on the student teachers' beliefs, neglecting the student teachers' knowledge and comprehension of TBLT after completing the course. In the present study, the researcher paid attention to the pre-service teachers' understanding of tasks and TBLT as a new teaching approach and then assessed the change in their beliefs. The researcher depended on two groups (experimental and control) to delve deeply into the problem and uncover perspectives that were not apparent in previous research. Thus, the researcher found that there were differences between the participants in both groups at the level of TBLT knowledge and beliefs.

This training course provided pre-service teachers with adequate empirical learning that helped them relate theory to practice and apply their own experience, as learners in their training as future teachers, and to build a satisfactory belief of them to shift from the status of learners to teachers (Hammond, 2006; Hammerness, et al., 2005). This 'belief' is built at the training stage, suggesting that participants express their satisfaction from the lesson they have prepared and presented during training. However, this belief cannot be proved until the participants plan and prepare a task-based lesson for an authentic classroom.

The findings regarding pre-service teachers' attitudes towards teaching training revealed that the average is .570 and the significance level is .574, indicating that there was no significant difference between the mean of pre-test and post-test scores in both groups. We concluded that the TBLT training had no significant effect on the participants' attitudes towards the appropriate period to provide training for teachers (pre-service and in-service). Most of the participants highly prefer the training of teachers to occur before they start teaching, and at the beginning of their teaching career, rather than during their teaching experienced or after a long teaching period, in order to guarantee successful implementation of TBLT in their future teaching. This coincides with the findings of Brandl (2009) who explained, throughout his study, that beginning teachers depend roughly on guidelines supplied by task designers or teachers. In this sense, novice teachers

want to be tooled up with particular instruction and definite task protocols on how to apply different task types. Brandl (2009) gave an example of how novice teachers are guided in implementing tasks in parallel to textbook instructions. One example given reads ‘have students work in groups of 3-5’. No further elaboration regarding how students are to interact, or how each student is to participate is often common. Thus, such guidance is fundamental until novice teachers have gained enough experience to modify and adapt (pedagogic) tasks on their own. This finding confirms that all the participants in the current study already believe that for better implementation of tasks’ in EFL context, training should commence in the early stages of teaching. As such, TBLT training did not change the participants’ beliefs regarding the appropriate period to provide a TBLT training, but we cannot neglect the fact that the various types of the proposed training, and the quality of the training may lead both in-service and pre-service teachers to either accept or refuse attendance of a teaching training course (Van den Branden, 2006). It must be remembered that quality of teaching, quality of teachers and quality of their professional development are dependent on each other (Walter, Wilkinson & Yarrow, 1996).

5.2.2. Discussion of pre-service teachers’ lesson plans

In order to enhance the training of future teachers, it is necessary to comprehend their personal theories and practices about teaching and learning in authentic contexts. The purpose of this stage was to investigate pre-service elementary teachers' theories about TBLT, through their reflections on planning and presenting a task- based or task-like lesson in real classes, and subsequently to reflect upon and reform their own practice. For this reason, phase three answered ‘RQ3’ and followed six student teachers who participated in phase two and three. As explained in Chapter 3, the student teachers, with their school placements in the second semester of the academic year, were not observed. Thus, data was collected through unstructured interviewing, the completion of a reflective questionnaire after planning and teaching at least one lesson, in addition to a training impact interview conducted at the end of the school placement. In phase 3, the researcher analysed the lessons prepared by the student teachers during the TBLT training and during the school placement. The lessons were analysed against a framework

designed by the researcher where she adapted her framework to the four characteristics of a task identified by Ellis (2003).

The findings showed that the student teachers' understanding of their teaching practices grew, to some extent, and changed positively during their teaching placement. The student teachers became more aware of some practices in the teaching and learning process that were not given much attention during their previous teaching experiences. Made apparent as the research progressed, the student teachers' understanding (limited prior to training), increased after having the training, and in comparison, to the student teachers in the control group. It was recognised that their comprehension and beliefs broadened and deepened after experiencing TBLT in authentic classes, during the school placement. Furthermore, their lesson planning and classroom practices also demonstrated a shift in the student teachers, moving away from little alignment and special beliefs with the principles of TBLT. Notably, the student teachers improved 'their own theory- and practice-informed conclusions and learned how TBLT might work in their own local contexts' (East, 2018, p. 26). Their TBLT cognition and action during the school placement were affected by classroom facts they had to confront, their acquired classroom teaching experiences, and impressions on their own practices.

During the process of teaching using tasks, the pre-service teachers recognised a set of allowances and constraints to their adoption or adaptation of TBLT. The allowances were generated from the process of being taught using TBLT as a university module and the opportunity to practice their teaching abilities just after having the TBLT training. These allowances were the ability to learn a new methodological lesson plan, give more value to the four language skills, use language in real-life contexts and modify textbook activities to tasks. However, the pre-service teachers also reported some constraints that affected their planning and practices of TBLT. Time-related constraints were due to the time planned by the pre-service teacher in the lesson plan, not matching class time. Mostly, there was a gap between the lesson planned and the class timeline. Another constraint involved the incompatibility of the lesson planned by the pre-service teacher and the workload. The third constraint related to the learners' age that blocked teachers so many times to reach their full potential and led to the appearance of another constraint that is related to the level of learners' language proficiency. Task-based assessment, the switch of some participants to the traditional teaching approach, and the misconception of a task

were regarded as fundamental constraints that emerged during the research study and the participants did not know how to overcome these constraints.

Time constraints: Most of the pre-service teachers encountered difficulties in managing their time in the lesson, many of them finding it difficult to know the exact time needed for each activity and the number of activities to include in one lesson plan. It is viewed that preparing a task-based lesson can be disturbing for some teachers if the lesson requires them to design their own resources (Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Zhang, 2007). The issue of limited class time to complete all stages in the TBLT cycle has also been found in many studies (e.g., Carless, 2004, 2007; Carless & Gordon, 1997; Lopes, 2004; McDonough & Chaikitmongkol, 2007; Yim, 2009; Jaruteerapan, 2020). However, the participants claimed that to overcome the time constraint and be able to finish the lesson, they were skipping either the pre-task or the post-task phase. They claimed that pre-task is not necessary in a task-based lesson and teachers might link it to the task-cycle in order to gain class time and so teachers do not waste time in one phase, more than another (Ellis, 2018).

The lesson planned is not viable in the workplan: this constraint was generated from the training impact interview results where 4 of the participants talked in general about teaching experiences, discovering that most of the time the lesson they prepared theoretically was not viable in the classroom. Thus, their reflections suggested that the lesson teachers prepared were not always working in the class and the tasks at the level of workplan are not always implemented into actual practices (Breen, 1989; Jaruteerapan, 2020). In this vein, Van den Branden (2016) remarked that student teachers' decisions and actions in real context practices may strongly differ from the prescriptions in the pedagogically oriented literature. He commented that what has become apparent over the past 20 years is that most teachers preferred to put into practice TBLT in ways that make them more comfortable in class rather than following the lesson plan by letter.

Learners' age: having a young class with limited knowledge in L2 is a challenging task for the teacher to implement TBLT in the class. Planning a task-based lesson to young learners is time and energy consuming. It is found throughout the present research that student teachers considered that young learners are more likely to learn through the experience of using the language rather than through studying rules and practising them (Richards, 2012). This explains that student teachers were not against the use of tasks

with young learners but they were aware of the difficulties they have faced in managing the class when using pair and group work tasks. Therefore, the expected participation during task performance did not go according to plan. Much research echoes this challenge as a constraint to the adoption of tasks in the classroom (e.g., Carless, 2002, 2007; Chacón, 2012; Jeon & Hahn, 2006; Xiongyong & Moses 2011; Zhang, 2007; Adams & Newton, 2009). The learners' age may affect the classroom management in a task-based lesson and pushes teachers to get lost between the task use and maintaining control in the classroom (Carless, 2002, 2004; Van den Branden, 2006b).

Language proficiency: another related issue involved learners' language proficiency. This constraint was considered as one of the most convincing reasons that let the student teachers to doubt the success of TBLT implementation in the Spanish EFL classes. Learners with lower levels of proficiency may have inferior capacity for doing tasks in comparison to more competent learners. More time and energy are needed to learners succeed in accomplishing the task. Additionally, this is consistent with other studies that accentuate the importance of learners' proficiency in TBLT (Carless, 2002, 2003; Tseng, 2006; Yim, 2009). This may explain that it does not matter how well a task is planned, if learners fail to do it, task implementation will not be successful.

Assessment of the task-based lesson: it seems that all the six participants did not have a deep understanding of what a 'task' exactly means and it was confirmed in the training impact interview when they were asked about how they planned their tasks. The participants did not evaluate their tasks on pedagogical bases. Rather, the way the student teachers evaluated their teaching is identical to a process to task evaluation presented by Ellis (2003, 2015, 2018) termed 'the motivational criterion' or 'learner-based evaluation'. According to the student teachers, this technique was the only one to assess their lessons and did not require any methodological aptitude. This evaluation technique was based on whether or not learners appreciate the task accomplishment and find it suitable to their needs. Such learner-based evaluation technique may serve teachers to avoid time constraint and can be very helpful for many teachers especially novice teachers as the student teachers in the present research (Ellis, 2018; Jaruteerapan, 2020).

TBLT is limited to its three stages: this belief was generated from the student teachers' answers and it is revealed that the six-student teachers' understanding to the definition of a correct task-based lesson is related to the three-stages framework of TBLT

in the literature (Ellis, 2003; Estaire & Zanon, 1994; Willis 1996; Skehan, 1996). Their understanding to TBLT had constructed and consolidated based on the three-stage TBLT framework. On the other hand, the student teachers' attitudes towards the focus on form and meaning along the three-stages were heterogeneous and some agreed with Ellis (2009) that attention to form can occur in all three phases. However, most teachers accentuated a random concentration on form in the post-phase. Others agreed with Long (2006) and preferred the focus on form in the main-task phase so that teachers were able to detect the language errors of the learners and correct them in the post-task phase. However, one participant advocated the idea of giving the teaching of grammar some place in the pre-task phase (Etaire & Zanon, 1994).

Teachers' misconception of task and task design: this study unveiled a truth that is repeated with pre-service teachers and even EFL teacher while using tasks in their classes. Teachers' misinterpretations of TBLT as a newly outlined teaching method that were generally resulted from teachers' restricted awareness of the term 'task' and their inability in differentiating a 'task' from 'exercise' in practice not in theory. This result is in line with that of Ellis (2009) after evaluating a number of criticisms of TBLT drawn by Widdowson (2003), Seedhouse (2005), Sheen (1994), and Swan (2005), confirmed that these criticisms come from a paramount misunderstanding of what a 'task' is. In this sense, Bui Thi Hang (2016) assumed that teachers' limited awareness of the concept of 'task' and poor training may cause 'fever' to the teacher. Based on this scale, as teachers have an inadequate knowledge of Task-based instruction, they are unsure or even may not succeed to adopt this method in their classes.

Switch of student teachers to PPP: this constraint was pointed out by two participants and it is important to talk about it. In their view, most teachers switch to traditional teaching methods because of time constraint and the school policy. Throughout this study, it is confirmed that even novice teachers may quickly shift to traditional teaching or following the school textbook. This result is similar to Carless's (2003) study which was conducted with Hong Kong language teachers who expressed the extra workload from task-based planning and teaching. Further, Jaruteerapan (2020) reported that teachers easily fall back to the traditional teaching and was explained by a student teacher from her study and claimed that she needed feedback from the experts in order to

stick to a task-based lesson until the end. However, the present study contradicts Foster's (1998) who asserted that the learners who are used to a more traditional approach may look at tasks as fun and enjoyable games.

5.3. Conclusion

This chapter presented findings gathered through three stages to investigate how TBLT is viewed and comprehended as a new teaching approach and to what extent is accepted by both Spanish in-service and pre-service teachers as a communicative approach. First, the analysed data cleared up that the Spanish EFL teachers showed a moderate knowledge of TBLT as their tendencies towards using or avoiding TBLT varied between teachers. Some had a positive attitude to use TBLT even though the low understanding of TBLT, and some showed a negative attitude to apply TBLT in their classes explaining their reasons for not using this approach. Others neither accepted nor refused TBLT application, they were neutral in their choices. Second, the TBLT training module showed that it had a strength on the pre-service teachers' tendency towards using TBLT, and the processes of designing and presenting a task-based lesson. The finding displayed that there was a positive and negative change at the pre-service teachers' knowledge, attitudes and beliefs of TBLT. Regarding the pre-service teachers' ability to plan, adapt and present a task-based lesson plan, it was apparent that the TBLT module influenced the pre-service teachers' way in designing and teaching a task-based lesson. The six participants, to some extent, were apt to plan lessons that involved the TBLT features in the course of the TBLT training module and their experiences and attempts during the school placement in adapting and planning a task-based lesson, although some gaps and limited comprehension of TBLT by the pre-service teachers. All in all, it is demonstrated that the TBLT module was a good choice to be included as a university subject for the pre-service teachers.

CHAPTER VI
CONCLUSION,
IMPLICATIONS,
RECOMMENDATIONS
AND LIMITATIONS

6. Introduction

In this chapter, the researcher presents a summary of the leading findings from the three phases. Then she discusses the implications of these findings in three sections: pedagogy, theory and practice, and gives some recommendations for pre-service and in-service teachers, curriculum and training designers. Finally, the limitations of the study are identified with avenues for future research.

6.1. Summary of key findings

The primary objective of this study was to explore the practicability and the impact of initiating TBLT in a pre-service EFL teacher education programme in a Spanish university. The key findings of the three phases are summarized below.

6.1.1. Phase one conclusions

The first research question was about Spanish primary EFL in-service teachers' knowledge, perceptions and beliefs toward using TBLT in Spanish EFL schools. The results revealed four main findings. Firstly, Spanish in-service EFL teachers have positive attitudes towards TBLT instruction as a learner-centred approach. Secondly, teachers' independent variables (gender, age, academic qualification) do not affect their opinion about using or avoiding TBLT, however, teachers' professional experience impacts their teaching beliefs. Thirdly, teachers' awareness of the disadvantages of TBLT and their hesitance to practice it in their classes. Thus, more than half of the teachers agreed that teaching training in using TBLT may serve TBLT implementation in the Spanish EFL classes. Finally, teachers call and support for providing appropriate TBLT training for EFL teachers in the future.

The second research question was about whether a TBLT training course at university affects pre-service teachers' level of knowledge and beliefs of TBLT aspects. The results of phase one and phase two of the research are summarised below.

6.1.2. Phase two conclusions

Throughout this phase, the researcher pursued to have knowledge of the impact of presenting the TBLT module in the Year 4 teacher education programme at Granada university, Spain on the student teachers' understanding and practices. Before the start of

the TBLT subject, the student teachers completed a pre-test questionnaire evaluating their personal outlooks towards TBLT. During the TBLT subject, the student teachers engaged with theoretical and practical elements of TBLT and other TBLT-related fields. In the second week, with the help of the teacher, the student teachers agreed on the lesson they had to plan and present during the practical sessions in pairs. After the completion of the TBLT course, they completed the same questionnaire as a pre-test evaluation.

The findings showed that the TBLT module had an impact on the student teachers' understanding and their implications of TBLT. The key concept in this research study is 'impact' and in this respect Borg (2011) turned to explain the meaning of impact as a broad comprehension that encompasses a range of developmental processes (Borg, 2011). During the 15-week TBLT subject, it is found that to some extent the student teachers matured their knowledge and implications of the standards of TBLT through the theoretical and practical items of the TBLT module.

An analysis of the post-instruction questionnaire responses showed that student teachers of the experimental group had improved an encouraging disposition towards TBLT in comparison to student teachers in the control group. Responses revealed that student teachers' understanding of TBLT was more at the theoretical level rather than the practical one. It is found that the TBLT training subject affected the student teachers' beliefs about the ability of TBLT to provide a relaxed atmosphere to the teacher. However, it creates pressure and psychological disorder to the teacher. The student teachers understood that the TBLT training raises their awareness towards task-based lesson plan and classroom arrangement but did not provide solutions and practices to overcome a task-based lesson plan and classroom practices. Although there was proof of restricted understanding of task principles and the difficulties outlining tasks, most of the student teachers were able to design a task-based lesson including the standards of TBLT. Nevertheless, they agree that the quality and timing of the training is important and plays a vital role in the success or failure of the TBLT training programme.

6.1.3. Phase three: applying TBLT in the teaching practicum conclusions

The findings of the reflective questionnaire showed that the student teachers' consciousness and beliefs about the difficulties of planning and presenting a task-based lesson and their teaching practices were growing during their teaching placement

experience. The findings reported main facts or constraints that arose during their planning and practices of TBLT along the teaching practicum period. First, time and workload from both planning and presenting a task-based lesson were communicated by the participants, more importantly the constraint involved mainly planning and implementation of post-task phase. Second, TBLT training had a positive impact on providing student teachers with useful teaching sources like internet sources, English books that were useful in their teaching placement. However, one participant talked about an interesting point which is using his own imagination in creating a suitable lesson. Third, the student teachers talked about constraints that had faced like lack of time, difficulty in adjusting the lesson to the learners' language proficiency, classroom management, lack of knowledge in assessing learners' performance in a TBLT lesson, textbook quality, and students' lack of interest in the lesson. These facts and constraints were reflected on the feelings and beliefs of their teaching abilities by raising their feeling of anxiousness in presenting a suitable task-based lesson and raising their fear of not succeeding in controlling students' behaviour and level in a TBLT setting. In this respect, the student teachers improved 'their own theory- and practice-informed conclusions and learned how TBLT might work in their own local contexts' (East, 2018). Their comprehension and pursuit of TBLT in the teaching placement was influenced by the classroom realities they faced, their accumulated classroom teaching experiences and reflections on their own practices.

Regarding the training impact interview, the findings revealed that the student teachers constructed a general idea about their teaching abilities at the theoretical and practical level and their consciousness was raised towards a number of facts. However, during their teaching process using tasks, the student teachers described several pros and cons they had faced when adopting TBLT. The pros were the TBLT training course provided adequate knowledge about TBLT, provided guidance to teach with tasks, and more importantly, the student teachers' training and teaching experience with TBLT positively impacted their feelings and awareness towards this approach. Regarding the learners in these student teachers' classes, they positively viewed, and actively engaged in, the task-based lessons. Regardless of the fact that these learners were still accustomed to learning in a traditional way, their positive orientation towards TBLT—or 'teaching with activities'—suggested their openness and receptivity to such an approach.

6.2. Conclusion

The results gathered from the first questionnaire conducted with the in-service teachers demonstrate that Spanish EFL teachers are aware and conscious of the position that TBLT currently occupies in the EFL educational field. However, teachers confirm that they still confront some limitations when using TBLT in their classes, and they believe that what really affects teachers' use of TBLT in their classroom is the lack of confidence, readiness and practice in using such an approach. In addition, they show that the main problem is the lack of teachers' practical training, rather than the teachers' age, gender, the level of the education system, type of school, or qualifications. In contrast, the year of teaching experience undertaken by Spanish teachers has a direct impact on their acceptance or rejection of using TBLT. This shows that even though Spanish teachers have a lack of information about TBLT, which explains the highest neutral percentages in response to some items, Spanish EFL teachers still show positive attitudes towards applying TBLT in the Spanish EFL context. Likewise, this research provides evidence demonstrating that TBLT is achievable and practicable in the pre-service EFL teacher-education programme in Spain, if certain reforms are pursued. The evidence presented in the study shows that the student teachers started the TBLT training programme with a range of understanding and beliefs about teaching and learning. These beliefs were then developed and changed when they started their teaching practice placement. At the first level, TBLT application was broadly successful in terms of its impact on the student teachers' understandings of TBLT and some teaching practice of student teachers, at least as investigated over the period of the student teachers' main placement experience. From the pre- and post-test results, the researcher found that using a TBLT training module at the university level leads to better comprehension, better performance and better achievement for novice teachers. Student teachers from the experimental group who completed the TBLT training module outperformed the student teachers from the control group who did not have the opportunity to attend a TBLT training course. In addition, when comparing student teachers' beliefs and attitudes according to their responses in the pre- and post-questionnaires, it is shown that the student teachers became more satisfied with their ability to plan a task-based lesson, and that they had strong beliefs about their teaching competence in using this approach with textbooks in their future teaching.

Furthermore, providing a TBLT course for student teachers increases their confidence in planning and presenting a task-based lesson, and also reduces their teaching fears and anxiety. During the third phase of the research (teaching placement), when the student teachers had opportunities to observe and to teach in real classrooms, their awareness of their prior-held beliefs was boosted. For instance, when all six of the student teachers taught in real classrooms, they discovered that the theoretical beliefs on teaching and learning that they had held at the beginning of the training programme were consistently not viable in authentic classrooms. They claimed that they had beliefs in the effectiveness of the lessons and tasks they had prepared regarding the learners' level and textbooks. The student teachers asserted that it was not easy for them to implement such activities in real classrooms. Throughout the four-month training programme, and three-month teaching placement, substantial progress was apparent in their beliefs. It is also important to recognise that at the end of the TBLT training and teaching placement, some of the beliefs about teaching and learning using TBLT that they had held at the beginning of the training programme remained the same; however, they developed an awareness of the applicability of the theoretical issues they already knew, and they developed and modified their beliefs according to the personal teaching experiences they had within the training programme. Such awareness gained by the pre-service teachers is believed to be the result of the observation and teaching practice components of the teacher-training programme.

In conclusion, it should be noted that if a TBLT training programme is designed and used in the right way, it will motivate both in-service and pre-service teachers to learn more about this approach and to improve their skills in using TBLT in their language classes. In this research study, the student teachers were engaged to learn about how to teach English using TBLT and practice what they learned in real contexts. This study found that the present teacher-training programme provides student teachers with the chance of bringing into practice the beliefs they had when they started the training programme as well as the theoretical knowledge gained within the TBLT programme. Although the teacher training allowed limited time for observation and allocated positions for student teachers' teaching practice, in the present teacher-training programme, even this limited time seemed to influence them.

6.3. Implications

The results of this research study suggest that the Spanish BOE (2015) decisions to push Spanish teachers to use TBLT in their teaching still need some amendments. Thus, the research findings being of an exploratory and interpretive nature, shed light on a number of implications for an impressive use of TBLT and for future research, in terms of three areas: academic, professional and personal. More research will in fact be necessary to refine and further elaborate my research findings.

6.3.1. Reflections for in-service teachers

The different reflections presented by the in-service teachers are stated as follows:

- The Spanish in-service teachers are uncertain about what TBLT is, with eclecticism often more highly favoured by teachers than a task-based framework.
- For The Spanish in-service teachers, TBLT is a more effective pedagogical approach than more traditional CLT models if some reforms are achieved
- Most teachers lack confidence in conducting a TBLT lesson in their classes.
- Lack of inadequate trained professionals who are knowledgeable about TBLT.
- Not all Spanish in-service teachers have positive attitudes towards using TBLT in their teaching.
- Teachers' support the idea of providing TBLT training for both the in-service teachers and the pre-service teachers.
- Teachers' professional experience has an impact on the acceptance or refuse of TBLT.
- Teachers' gender and educational level have no impact on teachers' tendencies towards TBLT.
- It is necessary for teachers to have a positive attitude towards the application of TBLT so that the Spanish Educational policy is successfully implemented.
- In-service teachers have a fundamental role in the success or failure of TBLT in the Spanish EFL classes.
- Teachers' beliefs and attitudes are influenced by what the Spanish BOE (2015) dictates for teachers.
- Most of the Spanish in-service teachers are not provided with adequate TBLT

training along their educational and teaching experience.

- Most of the teachers confirm that the quality and timing of TBLT training matter.
- Textbooks are considered as the main teaching tool for Spanish EFL teachers at elementary schools.
- The Spanish in-service teachers did not have the opportunity to attend a task-based language training.

6.3.2. Reflections for pre-service teachers

- TBLT training had an impact on the student teachers' cognition and understanding of TBLT.
- Using TBLT training programme at the university level provides guidance and support for student teachers in their teaching in the future.
- Spanish student teachers are struggling with the lack of concrete objectives and guidelines for what they are expected to do in a task-based lesson.
- TBLT training had an impact on the student teachers' attitudes and beliefs towards TBLT implementation.
- Student teachers confirm that the quality and timing of TBLT matter for the acceptance or refuse of both in-service teachers and pre-service teachers of TBLT.
- TBLT training provides guidance and knowledge on how to plan and present a task-based lesson.
- Both female and male student teachers' beliefs changed after having the teaching placement.
- Student teachers' beliefs changed between the TBLT training and the teaching placement they had.
- Student teachers faced difficulties in planning and presenting a task-based lesson in real classes.
- It is confirmed that one of the major reasons for not using TBLT is deeply related to a low self-confidence, lack of competence and fear of failure.
- TBLT training influenced student teachers' confidence in adapting a positive learning environment, developing materials that meet students' needs in a task-based lesson and their ability to teach English using TBLT.

- The teaching placement revealed that student teachers encountered potential obstacles and difficulties when applying a task-based lesson.
- TBLT training did not improve the student teachers' competence in assessing learners' performance in a task-based lesson.
- Student teachers still have some of the beliefs about TBLT approach that they had at the beginning of the TBLT training, then, they developed a personal awareness of the applicability of TBLT in real classes that led PTs to develop and modify their teaching and learning beliefs according to the personal teaching experiences they had within the teaching placement.
- The TBLT training programme is not enough to convince the teacher to adopt TBLT as a teaching approach in their future career.

6.4. Recommendations

After doing the research and drawing the conclusions and reflections in association with the research results and limitations, the researcher recommends the following:

A) Recommendation for teachers

- To be aware of the new teaching methodologies in the EFL teaching and learning process.
- To learn more about TBLT and rely more on improving their knowledge and teaching skills through distance learning like online training, new educational technologies and MOOCs lessons for teachers in order to be able to use TBLT correctly in their classes.
- To work in collaboration with the help of other teachers, at least one colleague, and develop a sense community; to ensure progression and common support.
- To participate in regular professional development programmes and educational events in the field of TBLT.
- Teachers should learn how to plan tasks that enhance learners' interests and influence their ability to engage in a task-based lesson.
- To ensure the success of TBLT implication by assigning simple classroom tasks according to students' learning needs and abilities.
- To integrate technology into task-based lesson, to gain time, active participation on the part of students, especially as they are considered 21st century digital learners.

- To start by working within your own teaching subject and change the things within the areas that are under your personal control.
- To attend different TBLT conferences with colleagues, student teachers, and graduate students to update knowledge and maintain enthusiasm for TBLT novelty.

B) Recommendations for supervisors

- To provide specific TBLT training courses that help both in-service and pre-service teachers implement the TBLT in their classes.
- To familiarize teachers with the use of online computer games by conducting workshops.
- To increase student teachers' awareness by preparing instructional materials about teaching with TBLT.
- To draw student teachers' and in-service teachers' attention to the importance of using TBLT as a new communicative language teaching approach.

C) Recommendations for schools and universities

- To provide psychological and professional support for teachers.
- To check teachers' teaching and learning improvement from time to time by organizing workshops and meetings that reorient teachers to use TBLT.
- To keep specific budget for teachers to improve their teaching and learning skills in using TBLT.
- To hold institution-wide, national, and international conferences and workshops between schools and universities.
- To pursue European Union funding for faculty training.
- To develop a regional strategy for teachers as the case of Spain.
- To provide reward for both in-service teachers and student teachers who undertake TBLT approach in their teaching.
- To administer a climate that supports the creativity, innovation, and risk-taking necessary to support transformative efforts to reorient education to address TBLT.
- To work with the ministries of education to create policy to support TBLT.
- To strengthen partnerships between teacher-education institutions and elementary and secondary schools, and such educational organizations as

museums, outdoor education sites, and nature centres.

D) Recommendations for the ministry of education

- To provide schools with adequate sources, materials and facilities to encourage the use of TBLT.
- To include lessons in the English curriculum that could be completed using online TBLT.
- To encourage supervisors and teachers to use this approach in the classroom.
- To provide reward for institutions, schools and faculty members who undertake TBLT programmes.

E) Recommendations for curriculum and training designers

- To create a university curriculum oriented toward TBLT to help student teachers to learn effectively.
- To cooperate with both pre-service and in-service teachers to create appropriate TBLT curriculum.
- To keep contact and work between national publishers, textbook committees and teachers to infuse TBLT into textbooks at all levels.
- To establish new models of professional development in TBLT that bring together essential skills, cross-curricular approaches, and task-based learning models so that PTs and ITs can work positively in a task-based class.
- To design very specific TBLT training in terms of content.

F) Recommendations for researchers

- To carry out more studies into TBLT and their effects on learning different subjects.
- To investigate the perspectives of curriculum and textbook designers with a variety of nationalities on the use of tasks in the Spanish EFL classes.
- To do experimental research with other student teachers in different contexts.
- To do research that make the administration and faculty leaders aware of the need for reorienting the teacher-education programme towards TBLT.
- To increase research on quality TBLT trainings to help learning and teaching become more task-based in nature.
- To conduct research on TBLT assessment.
- To conduct research on economic costs and benefits of reorienting pre-service

teacher education to address sustainability as well as providing professional development for in-service educators.

- To develop guidelines for using information technology related to TBLT.
- To develop guidelines for incorporating TBLT into online and distance learning courses.

6.5. Research limitations

In any research study there are some shortcomings and circumstances that appear during the research and cannot be controlled by the researcher. In order to conduct the present study, I planned a methodology but a set of procedures were changed because of the research conditions I had to face. I could not find the sample population that I had proposed in my research proposal. At the beginning of my research proposal, I wanted to conduct my study with elementary pupils and teachers at different schools in Spain but was not applicable in reality. The main limitations were founded with the sampling of in-service teachers. By virtue that I was a foreign student in Granada and I had not much knowledge about the Spanish school regulations and EFL Spanish teachers' perceptions and their treat of foreign researchers. I found some difficulties in entering the elementary schools and find teachers who may accept to participate in my research in addition to the workload they had and the school internal regulations and rules. Thus, the participants were limited to 76 participants with the help of some Spanish teachers and the sampling selection was very time demanding and energy consuming. This small number of the participants was adapted by the researcher to a sequential mixed methods approach to provide validity to the study as the sample population remained small. At first, I decided to do a TBLT training by myself and design special TBLT lessons and select a group of pre-service teachers and do the training with them along a whole semester but after asking about the subjects taught for this group of students, I found that there was a teacher providing a TBLT training during the same period when I wanted to do my training. Thus, I changed the idea of preparing my own TBLT training lessons and decided to attend the sessions with the students rather than teaching the same subject twice and with the same students. Additionally, it was decided first that when the pre-service teachers start the teaching placement in the second semester, I would attend with them the teaching placement and observe their teaching but because of the complexity of the situation and due to the limited access to schools, the plan was reviewed and restructured from

classroom attendance and observation to checklists distributed to the selected participants, filled in by them and turned back to the researcher by the end of the teaching placement. Despite the mentioned constraints, the research findings were not affected and were reliable.

6.6. Further research

Review of the recent literature and the findings in the present study shed light on some ideas for future studies on TBLT with novice teachers and following them in their field of work. Related to the present study, new research could be carried out with novice teachers using TBLT and ICT in EFL classes. Further research is needed in the field of TBLT implementation and non-native teachers of EFL. Experimental methods comparative studies should be used as well as in-depth interviews with teachers as well as students after each session to understand teachers' opinions about this approach. Another study about the impact of TBLT and learning for students with special educational needs like Dyslexia or Autism should be undertaken. The researcher will use case studies with observation tools to assist students and teachers when using TBLT in their classes. Additionally, attention must be drawn to the textbooks used in relation to TBLT in order to help teachers better understand the textbook activities and the real tasks that should be used in a task-based lesson and to help teachers differentiate between an exercise and task and successfully define a lesson outcome. The researcher will tend to qualitative research and will analyse teachers' lesson plans and textbooks with interviews and classroom observations. Much research is needed about TBLT and its impact on teachers' performance and psychology either novice or experienced by using self-efficacy or self-confidence questionnaire and measuring their anxiety as well.

6.7. Observaciones finales

Este estudio de investigación fue una gran oportunidad para que los profesores en servicio y en formación de EFL pusieran a prueba sus conocimientos y desempeño utilizando una metodología de enseñanza como TBLT a nivel académico, personal y profesional en el mundo ilimitado de la enseñanza. Los resultados recopilados del primer cuestionario realizado con los profesores en servicio, demostraron que los profesores de inglés como lengua extranjera son conscientes y conscientes de la posición que ocupa actualmente TBLT en el campo educativo de inglés como lengua extranjera. Sin embargo,

los docentes confirman que aún tienen que hacer frente a algunas limitaciones al usar TBLT en sus clases y creen que lo que realmente afecta el uso de TBLT por parte de los docentes en su aula es la falta de confianza, disposición y práctica para usar dicho enfoque. Además, se dice que el problema principal es la falta de formación práctica de los docentes, más que la edad, el género, el nivel del sistema educativo, el tipo de escuela o las calificaciones de los docentes. Por el contrario, el año de experiencia de los profesores tiene un impacto directo en la aceptación o el rechazo de los profesores en el uso de TBLT. Esto muestra que a pesar de que los docentes carecen de información sobre TBLT, lo que explica los porcentajes neutrales más altos en respuesta a algunos ítems, los profesores de inglés como lengua extranjera siguen mostrando actitudes positivas hacia la aplicación de TBLT en el contexto de inglés como lengua extranjera. En este sentido, esta investigación ha proporcionado pruebas fácticas que demuestran que TBLT es alcanzable y practicable en el programa de formación de profesores de inglés como lengua extranjera en España si se llevan a cabo algunas reformas. La evidencia presentada en el estudio muestra que los estudiantes del Grado en Educación Primaria comenzaron el programa de capacitación TBLT con diversos conocimientos y creencias sobre la enseñanza y el aprendizaje del mismo. Más tarde, estas creencias se desarrollaron y cambiaron cuando comenzaron su práctica docente. En el primer nivel, la aplicación de TBLT tuvo un gran éxito en términos de su impacto en la comprensión de TBLT por parte de los futuros profesores y en parte de la práctica docente de los futuros profesores, al menos tal como se investigó durante el período de la experiencia práctica principal de los futuros profesores. A partir de los resultados de las pruebas previas y posteriores, el investigador encontró que el uso del módulo de capacitación TBLT a nivel universitario conduce a una mejor comprensión, mejor desempeño y mejores logros para los profesores novatos. Los futuros profesores del grupo experimental que completaron el módulo de formación TBLT superaron a los futuros profesores del grupo de control que no tuvieron la oportunidad de asistir a un curso de formación TBLT. Además, al comparar las creencias y actitudes de los futuros profesores de acuerdo con sus respuestas en los cuestionarios previos y posteriores, se demuestra que los futuros profesores se sintieron más satisfechos de su capacidad para planificar una lección basada en tareas, tenían fuertes creencias sobre su competencia docente en el uso de este enfoque con los libros de texto en su enseñanza futura. Además, ofrecer un curso de TBLT para los futuros

profesores aumenta su confianza en la planificación y presentación de una lección basada en tareas y, por otro lado, reduce sus temores y ansiedad de enseñanza. Durante la tercera fase de la investigación (prácticas de enseñanza) cuando los futuros profesores tuvieron la oportunidad de observar y enseñar en aulas reales, se impulsó su conciencia de las creencias que tenían antes. Por ejemplo, los seis profesores en formación descubrieron que las creencias teóricas de enseñanza y aprendizaje que tenían al comienzo del programa de capacitación no eran consistentemente viables en aulas auténticas. Afirmaron que tenían creencias en la eficacia de las lecciones y tareas que habían preparado con respecto al nivel de los alumnos y los libros de texto. Los estudiantes afirmaron que no les fue fácil implementar este tipo de actividades en aulas reales. A lo largo del programa de formación de cuatro meses y de la práctica docente de tres meses se evidenció un avance importante en sus creencias. También es importante reconocer que al final de la práctica de capacitación y enseñanza de TBLT, algunas de las creencias sobre la enseñanza y el aprendizaje usando TBLT que tenían al inicio del programa de capacitación permanecieron igual. Sin embargo desarrollaron una conciencia de la aplicabilidad de los temas teóricos que ya conocían y desarrollaron y modificaron sus creencias de acuerdo con las experiencias personales de enseñanza que tuvieron dentro del programa de capacitación. Se cree que esta conciencia adquirida por los profesores en formación es el resultado de los componentes de observación y práctica docente del programa de formación de profesores. En conclusión, debe tenerse en cuenta que si el programa de capacitación TBLT se diseña y utiliza de la manera correcta, esto motivará a los maestros en servicio y en formación a aprender más sobre este enfoque y mejorar sus habilidades para usar TBLT en sus clases. En este estudio de investigación, los futuros profesores se comprometieron a aprender sobre cómo enseñar inglés usando TBLT y practicar lo que han aprendido en contextos reales. Este estudio encontró que el presente programa de formación docente brindó a los futuros profesores la oportunidad de llevar a la práctica las creencias que tenían cuando iniciaron el programa de formación, así como los conocimientos teóricos adquiridos dentro del programa TBLT.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A The Research tools Questionnaire (A1)



Escuela de Doctorado de Humanidades y Ciencias Sociales y Jurídicas
Programa de Doctorado en Ciencias de la Educación
Teacher's Questionnaire

Dear teachers,

This questionnaire has been developed to collect the necessary information for accomplishing PhD thesis at Universidad de Granada entitled **“The investigation of Spanish primary school EFL teachers’ knowledge, perceptions and their classroom practices”**.

Your responses will be used for the research only and kept confidential. No participants will be named in the study. The validity of this investigation depends on the extent to which your responses are open and frank. So, you are warmly required to answer honestly. Thank you for your cooperation!

Section I. General and Demographic Information

Gender: Male Female

Age: <30 31-40 >40

Teaching experience: <5 years 10 to 20 years > 20

Section II. Teachers’ Understanding of Task and TBLT

For each of the following statements, please answer by ticking (v) in a grid according to the scale: SA (strongly agree), A (agree), N (neutral), D (disagree), SD (strongly disagree).

Items	SA	A	N	D	SD
1. A task is a communicative goal directed					
2. A task involves a primary focus on meaning					
3. A task has a clearly defined outcome					
4. A task is an activity in which the target language is used by the learner					
5. TBLT supports learner-centeredness rather than teacher- centeredness					
6. TBLT is a sub-branch of communicative language teaching					
7. TBLT includes three stages: pre-task, task-implementation, and post-task					

Section III. Teachers' beliefs on TBLT

The following statements address teachers' views on implementing TBLT. Please respond by ticking () in a grid that matches your position most according to the scale above in section II.

Items	SA	A	N	D	SD
8. I have interest in implementing TBLT in the classroom					
9. TBLT provides a relaxed atmosphere to promote the target language use					
10. TBLT takes into account learners' needs and interests					
11. TBLT pursues the development of integrated skills in the classroom					
12. TBLT gives much psychological burden to the teacher as a facilitator					
13. TBLT requires more preparation time compared to other approaches					
14. TBLT is proper for controlling classroom arrangements					
15. TBLT materials in textbooks are meaningful and purposeful based on real-world context					

18. Did you complete a teacher education or training program before or after starting teaching?

Yes No Neutral

If 'Yes', please explain the training below:

Where? (i.e., university, online, school, ...etc)	How long? (i.e., 1 week, 1 month)	Training objectives (Elementary teachers, teaching methodologies...etc)

Section IV. Teachers' reasons for choosing or avoiding TBLT implementation

Do you use TBLT or not? Please respond by ticking () in one of the following grids. You can tick more than one grid at the same time.

Item 16	If Yes, please choose reasons that let you decide to implement TBLT by ticking () more than one in a grid.	
A	TBLT encourages teachers to be creative in their lessons.	
B	TBLT promotes students' learning communicative skills.	
C	TBLT encourages learners' intrinsic motivation.	
D	TBLT creates a collaborative learning environment.	
E	TBLT is appropriate for small group work.	

Item 17	If No, please choose reasons that let you decide to implement TBLT by ticking () more than one in a grid.	
F	It is a new brand of teaching.	
G	I am not used to teach English using TBLT.	
H	I have very little knowledge of task-based instruction.	
I	I have difficulty in assessing learners' task-based performance.	
J	Materials in textbooks are not proper for using TBLT.	
K	Large class size is an obstacle to use task-based methods.	

19. As an English teacher, how can you help in the implementation of TBLT in the Spanish context?

.....

20. According to you, what is your opinion about training the pre-service teachers before they start teaching?

.....

21. According to you, what are your suggestions for a planning a good training curriculum?

.....

Pre- and post- questionnaire (A2)



This questionnaire is designed for the investigation of 4th student teachers' knowledge of and beliefs about language teaching and TBLT. Your responses will be used for the research only and kept confidential. No participants will be named in the study. The validity of this investigation depends on the extent to which your responses are open and frank. So, you are warmly required to answer honestly. Thank you for your cooperation!

Section I. General and Demographic Information

Gender Male Female

Age 20-25 26-30 >30

Section II. Student Teachers' Understanding of Task and TBLT

For each of the following statements, please answer by ticking (v) in a grid according to the scale: SA (strongly agree), A (agree), N (neutral), D (disagree), SD (strongly disagree).

Items	SA	A	N	D	SD
1. A task is a communicative goal directed					
2. A task involves a primary focus on meaning					
3. A task has a clearly defined outcome					
4. A task is an activity in which the target language is used by the learner					
5. TBLT supports learner-centeredness rather than teacher- centeredness					
6. TBLT is a sub-branch of communicative language teaching					
7. TBLT includes three stages: pre-task, task-implementation, and post-task					

Section III. Student teachers' beliefs about TBLT and language teaching

The following statements address student teachers' beliefs about TBLT. Please respond by ticking () in a grid that matches your position most according to the scale above in section II.

Items	SA	A	N	D	SD
8. I have interest in implementing TBLT in the classroom					
9. TBLT provides a relaxed atmosphere to promote the target language use					
10. TBLT takes into account learners' needs and interests					
11. TBLT pursues the development of integrated skills in the classroom					
12. TBLT gives much psychological burden to the teacher as a facilitator					
13. TBLT requires more preparation time compared to other approaches					
14. TBLT is proper for controlling classroom arrangements					
15. TBLT materials in textbooks are meaningful and purposeful based on real-world context					
16. Learning occurs primary from drilling and practice in a task- based lesson					
17. I have interest in implementing a communicative approach like TBLT in my classroom.					
18. Providing a TBLT training as a university subject with pre-service teachers is more beneficial than with in-service teachers					
19. Group work activities are important for creating a cooperative environment in which students feel comfortable interacting with their peers.					
20. The role of the teacher in a TBLT lesson is limited to a facilitator.					

Unstructured interview questions (A3)

The following questions were mainly used during Phase two and Three of the research.

1. To what extent you are satisfied with the lessons you prepare and present?
2. To what extent you consider teaching with a communicative approach is effective than a traditional teaching method?
3. How well could you implement alternative teaching methods in your classroom?
4. How well could you mix the textbook knowledge with your own teaching method?
5. How well could you adjust your lesson to the proper level for your individual students?
6. To what extent you felt competent for the elements below as a future teacher?
 - a) Content of the subject
 - b) Pedagogy of the subject
 - c) Classroom practices of the subject
7. To what extent you felt competent in assessing students' performance in a task-based lesson?
8. To what extent you felt competent for the elements below as a future teacher?
 - a) Lesson presentation
 - b) Lesson preparation
 - c) Lesson comprehension
 - e) Classroom control
9. To what extent you were able to develop materials that would meet your lesson plan?
9. To what extent you were able to adapt a positive learning environment in your TBLT lesson?
10. To what extent you were confident in your ability to teach English using tasks?
11. To what extent you were able to assess students' performance in your TBLT lesson?

Pre-service teachers' training impact interview (A4)



The present interview aims at evaluating your knowledge of, beliefs and perceptions about TBLT as a teaching approach as well as the impact of the TBLT training module on your progress as future EFL teachers. Thus, you are kindly requested to answer the following questions and which may better contribute to the success of this study.

- 1) Was the overall TBLT training course beneficial to your teaching placement?
- 2) Is there anything which has changed your perception, attitude or behaviour as a result of the training course?
- 3) What are the advantages and disadvantages of planning and teaching a task-based lesson?
- 4) Do you have any recommendations or other comments on the training course?

Student teacher 1 and 2 TBLT training lesson plan (A5)

Lesson plan's name: Sports		Group: 6° Primary Education	
Main learning outcomes/ tasks	Write an email about my favourite sport/ the sport I practice		
Objectives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To understand descriptions about different sports. • To produce descriptions different sports. • To exchange information about sports/ sports routines. 		
Description of activities and tasks	Sk	Gr	Time (approx.)
PRE-TASK			
1st activity			
Warm-up			
To introduce the key vocabulary of different sports learners are going to be put in small groups and asked to write a list of all the sports they can think of. Which group can write the longest list? Now, they are asked to brainstorm their lists miming each sport they say. If it is possible and there is enough time, students can be put into pairs. They can mime a sport to each other and try to guess what it is.	S/LG	G/P	5'
TASK CYCLE			
2nd activity			
Listening			
Students listen to a man talking about his favourite sport («ESL Lesson on Sport», s. f.). After that they have to select the correct picture of that man practicing it and answer some questions:			
- Who did the man play their favourite sport with?	L/LG	I	10'
- Where did they play?			
- What other sport does he like?			
Recording's transcription and activity: <i>APPENDIX 1</i> *Fast finishers: go to Differentiation section			
3rd activity			
Speaking			
Students are going to be grouped in pairs. Each one is going to have a chart in which they have to prepare four questions, the same for both, about sports and sports routines. Once they are ready, they switch partners and ask to other people the questions. When the have the chart completed, they return with their previous partners and talk about their classmates' answers.	S/L/LG	P	10'
4th activity			
Reading and grammar			
Now, an email from an Australian boy is presented to the class. It is a really short email which tells them about his favourite sport and what he does every day to be healthy in terms of sport routine or physical activities. Also, they asked to reply it talking about the same. After reading it, they have to correct some sentences which are wrong in the email.	R/W/LG	I	5'
For example:			
- I doesn't play tennis on Monday			
- Every day I didn't go swimming			

5th activity			
Writing			
Students now have to write their own emails following the structure given before. They just have to describe which is their favourite sports and if they practice any and when.	W/LG	I	10'
Differentiation	➤	For fast finishers, if any, in the listening there is an activity related with the adjectives in the recording. Activity: APPENDIX 2	
Materials	➤	Listening from: www.listenaminute.com	
	➤	Listening pictures from: Google images	
	➤	Email model for the reading from: google images	
	➤	Email's template for the writing from: google images	
Key Competences	➤	Linguistic competence: describing your favourite sport/ sports routines; names of sports and some sport equipment (ball, racket, basket, etc.);present simple for routines, like/love, don't like/ don't love.	
	➤	Social and civic competence: collaborative learning	
Assessment	➤	Observation of participation and correct completion of activities in class	
	➤	Before they do the writing, the reading activity must be corrected to assure they do not have grammatical mistakes to produce their own emails.	
Homework		They have to invent a new sport and it must have any sport equipment, they have to add a drawing showing how it would be and where it could be played.	
Observations (if any)		Observations will be made throughout the class to take note of students' mistakes and difficulties to improve in future lesson plans, and see the weaknesses of the class to work on them.	

APPENDIX 1

Recording's transcription:

“Are you good at sport? I’m not, but I love watching and playing all kinds of sport. My favourite sport is football – the kind with the round ball, not American football. I wasn’t very good at football when I was a kid. This did not stop me playing. I played in the park with my friends for hours every day. What is your national sport? Do you like it? I love Japan’s national sport sumo. It is one of the most exciting sports in the world. You have to spend a little time getting to know the rules and the fighters. The greatest thing about sport is that it brings people together from all over the world. Another good thing

is that it keeps us healthy. Sports stars are very lucky. They love their job and stay fit by doing it every day. What are you going to play next?"

Activity: Circle the correct picture of the man practicing his favourite sport.



APPENDIX 2

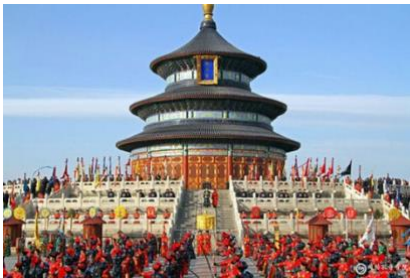
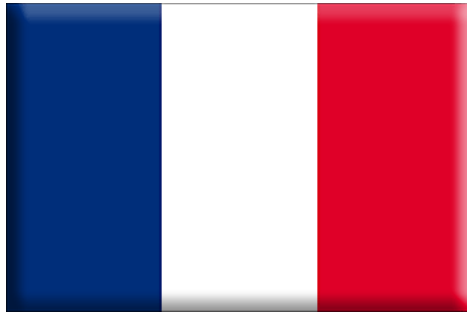
Activity: Reorder the words below to make appropriate adjectives for the phrases.

- ➔ **inaonalt** sport
- ➔ **cneigxti** sports
- ➔ it keeps us **lyehtah**
- ➔ Sports stars are very **cluky**

Student teacher 3 and 4 TBLT training lesson plan (A6)

Lesson name: Country, flats and language.		Group: 6º
Objectives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● To know basic information about chosen cities. ● To exchange information about their chosen cities. ● To describe flags of chosen countries. 	
Main learning outcomes /task	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● To write a brief interview about their chosen city. 	
Description of activities and tasks		Time
<p>Pre-task Look at photos of different cities (New York, London, Paris and Pekin) and its country flags. In small groups, answer by speaking the different questions and imagine different situations. (Annex 3)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Where do you want to travel? ○ With who do you want to go? With family or friends? <p>We will make small groups of 3 students (if it is necessary, there will be a group of 4), each group will have one of these city to work from now on, it is time to choose!</p>		8-10 min
<p>Task cycle</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● <i>Listening, reading and answer the questions:</i> Students read the text “Where is mi city?” where there are four children (Sophia, John, Alain and Lili) explaining in which country is their city and what language is spoken in it. Children would have to fill in a table about the reading. (Annex 4) ● <i>Listening:</i> Students are going to listen an interview about Miguel, a Spanish boy taking about his city, Granada. Student has to complete a table (Annex 4). ● <i>Writing and Speaking:</i> In pair or group of 3, students have to write a short interview about their chosen city, including questions related to its location, its language and its flag, using the example of Miguel’s interview. <p><i>Role-play.</i> Now, each pair or small group have to represent their interviews.</p>		25 min
<p>Post-task Focus on pronunciation: The plural “s” or the third person singular of the present simple. Students have to listen and put the verbs in the correct columns. (Annex 5)</p>		8-10 min
Differentiation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Fast finishers can help to the other ● Variety of activities 	
Materials	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Images for cities ● Audio and reading ● The table to complete 	
Key competences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Social and civic competence: exchanging information ● Linguistic and communicative competence: to make the roleplay ● Sense of initiative and entrepreneurship: turn ideas into action through creativity, innovation. ● Cultural competence 	

ANNEX 3: NEW YORK, LONDON, PARIS AND PEKIN



ANNEX 4: UNIT TABLE

	SOPHIA	JOHN	ALAIN	LILI	MIGUEL
CITY					
COUNTRY					
FLAG					
LANGUAGE					
TYPICAL FOOD					
FAVORITE MONUMENT					

ANNEX 5: POST- TASK PRONUNTIATION

<i>/s/ walks</i>	<i>/z/ plays</i>	<i>/iz/ watches</i>

Student teacher 5 and 6 TBLT training lesson plan (A7)

Lesson name: Team sports		Group: 5 th Year	
Group: 5 th Year	Lesson name: Team sports		
Objectives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● To identify new culturally different team sports and their features. ● To extract general and specific information from oral and written sources. ● To share and exchange information about different team sports. ● To make collectable sport cards with the information of such new team sports 		
Main learning outcomes /task	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● To complete a sticker describing a team sport. 		
Description of activities and tasks			Time
Pre-task	Warming up with flashcards: introduction of new team sports.		5'
Task-cycle	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Listening: listen to the conversation between Clarah and Charles and complete their columns in the table. ● Speaking: student A receives a card with information missing for student B and the other way around. They need to complete the table by exchanging oral information. ● Reading: students read a celebrity's mini biography and need to seek for the specific information required in the table. ● Writing: make stamps "cromos" with the given images so as to explain well-known sports in their country. 		40'
Post-task	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Language focus: affirmative, negative and interrogative forms of present simple. Students complete simple exercises such as completing sentences or filling the gaps. 		10'
Differentiation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Fast finishers will help the less-able pupils. ● Grammar and vocabulary requirements less strict for low ability pupils 		
Materials	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Stickers ● Worksheets ● Dictionaries ● Digital board ● Flashcards 		
Key competences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Linguistic and communicative competence, since there are speaking, reading, listening and writing activities. ● Social and civic competences as communicative and civic 		

What sport is your favourite?

Introduction Task Process Evaluation Conclusion Credits



Your mission today is to create a blog entry. You need to tell your colleagues:

- Which sport is your favourite/Which sport you practice
- How frequently do you practice it?
- Who do you play with?
- What equipment do you use?

<p>My name is _____. I live in _____, in the United States. I have loved writing since I was a child. My favourite genre is _____ and I read ___ hours a day. My last poem is about _____ and _____. Let me recite it for you!</p>	<p>I am a little _____, Shining _____, Growing _____, _____ night.</p>
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Annex 4. Listening activity belonging to session no. 3.

Complete the sentences with <i>never, rarely, sometimes, usually and always</i> .				
Kike _____ reads fiction novels.	■	■	■	■
Martina _____ uses an e-book to read comics.	■	■	■	■
James _____ read with the lights on.	■	■	■	■
I _____ give up reading.	■	■	■	■
Keylor _____ does post-task reading activities.	■	■	■	■

Annex 5. Post-task activity belonging to session no. 3.

Summary of the TBLT training lessons (A8)

Lesson One: Language Teaching Methods (September 25th, 2017)

My first Monday seminar, in week 1 of the course, prepared the student teachers for their first lesson in the training. They were instructed about the training and how will be conducted and the lesson will be introduced in this training with details. The lesson was divided into two parts, the first part started with a warm-up by asking a set of discussion question like;

How did you learn English? What types of activities did you do in class?

Do you consider the methods employed by your different teachers to be more traditional or more up-to-date? Think about Primary and Secondary Education.

In the first part of the session, the teacher grouped students into groups of 3 and showed them a table of all the different language teaching methods and asked the students to write about the main principles of the method, how useful do they find the method? and would they feel comfortable using this method?

The students had around 10 minutes for the task and then a student from each group had to write an idea on the board. Next, the teacher did a theoretical explanation to the teaching methods and asked students to prepare a table about the advantages and disadvantages of each method and explain which one they think is the best and why for the next session. Finally, the lesson was closed by giving extra references for further information about Legislation in Spain.

Lesson two: The content-based approach, CLIL and bilingualism in monolingual settings (October 2nd, 2017)

This lesson commenced by a warm up discussion between the teacher and the students by asking the students to imagine that they are a parent, friend or relative of a child at primary education age who can either go to a bilingual school or a non-bilingual school. students had 2 to 5 minutes to discuss with their partner what they would do and try to give good reasons for their decisions. After partner discussion, the teacher opened the discussion to the whole class and they every student gave his/her vision and reasons for their decisions and the teacher notes on the board their main reasons. a theoretical explanation to the lesson started and here the teacher was explaining what is a Content-

based instruction and pointing to its advantages and challenges. the teacher gave students a break of approximately 10 minutes. then, in the second hour, the teacher asked the students to form a group of 4-5. Two-three students search for advantages to bilingual education, and 2-3 others search for disadvantages. Students make notes and compare the notes to the rest of their teams. In this task, the students had to make a decision towards this approach and share their decisions with another team. Finally, the students had to write a concluding note regarding this lesson and add it to their portfolio (see appendix). This activity was mainly task-based and the students were highly engaged in the task and they completed successfully.

Lesson three: Units of Work, student-centered learning, task-based learning and projects (October 9th, 2017)

After two lessons, task-based language teaching was introduced and explained in this lesson. the aim of this lesson was to explain to students the task they have to do during this semester. As 'I' mentioned in lesson two that students had to write a concluding note about their decision in content- based instruction and bilingualism and add it to the PORTFOLIO. The present lesson was administered to students to explain to them what is a portfolio and what are they required to do with this portfolio. first, the lesson started by a warm-up discussion about how important is planning for English lessons and Unit of Work in primary education, to make a list of reasons for planning, what are the challenges or difficulties involved in planning for primary education, what students think are important ingredients in planning individual activities and in planning Units of Work and Schemes of Work (year plans). this lesson was a teacher-centered lesson, because the teacher had to discuss with the students and explain to them the portfolio they had to prepare and give it back by the 16/12/2017. Task-based lesson was briefly explained in the lesson even though students were required to prepare task-based outline for a class to add in their portfolio. the three stages were introduced and explained by the teacher.

Lesson four: Listening and oral comprehension skills in a foreign language (OCTOBER 16th, 2017)

In this lesson, the teacher carried on the explanation of the portfolio and reminded the students by the submission date of PORTFOLIO. the teacher explained to the students the evaluation procedures of this unit that there will be an individual oral defence during final week of December either in class or in the office of the teacher trainer. The portfolio

was evaluated based on three main evaluation criteria cited by the teacher trainer (unit originality, pedagogical soundness and appropriate use of accurate and fluent professional English). the teacher entered in the main topic of the lesson and started the lesson with warm-up questions as usual by asking the students;

-What difficulties have you had when listening in another language?

-What can we do in general terms to help our students in Primary Education to improve their listening skills?

-What listening activities do you think would be useful for us in Primary Education?

The teacher was using Spanish from time to time when explaining the lesson to explain the main ideas. This lesson was mainly theoretical and students had around 10 minutes to do the task and answer the questions and then share and discuss with class their answers. From time to time the teacher was pointing students randomly to answer and share their points of views.

Lesson five: SPEAKING AND ORAL PRESENTATION SKILLS IN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE (OCTOBER 23rd, 2017)

As all the lessons were power point presentations and the lesson was theoretical and structured. In this lesson the student teachers were highly engaged in the lesson because after the discussion of the teacher with the students' teachers about their views concerning speaking and oral presentation skills in a foreign language, it is founded that they had a lot of difficulties and obstacles with teaching speaking to elementary learners and they feel they are not well educated and trained as EFL teachers in succeeding a speaking lesson. In this lesson, the teacher talked about three main parts in teaching a speaking lesson by asking the following questions

What are the main reasons for using speaking activities in class?

What type of speaking activities can a teacher do in class in terms of oral interaction and oral presentation?

How much the target language should be used in the classroom?

What strategies could you use to help students use the target language in the classroom?

As a warm up, the teacher discussed the lesson with the students and they claimed that speaking happens in nearly every situation of their daily lives. It is their main mean of communication, even though they currently tend to text a lot. Moreover, they said that speaking is their first mean to produce language. Many students claim to have studied

foreign languages for a long time but they still find it frustrating when they cannot express themselves orally especially as future EFL teachers.

In response to the second question, the student teachers suggested different activities. One of them explained the activities he may use in oral interaction and presentation. He proposed to use a class survey. Depending on the children's level, they will be given cards with either general or specific information that students need to exchange. Each student will interview a couple or three of their colleagues and such an activity will be the antecedent for a writing activity in which students report their teammates' results. On the other hand, for oral presentations, he suggested the sharing of personal stories by scheduling time of the week. Students are allowed to decide what they want to tell and when they want to take their turns. Prior to the activity, the teacher will model a story and students will take him/her as a guide for their performance. The achievement of storytelling means the preparation of students toward more complex and challenging activities. The students were highly learning from each other by practicing the activities they have suggested in class. In response to the last two questions of the lesson the students declared their awareness that their ultimate goal focus is on the children's acquisition of the foreign language skills (not only speaking) so they can communicate effectively and independently. Therefore, target language should be given preference against the use of the native language and the use of it should be applied in as many contexts as possible. For question three, the students asserted that increasing learners' motivation by providing them with useful vocabulary which may be applied in the situations that are required within the lesson. Moreover, dictionaries should be accessible as a resource for children to broaden their vocabulary knowledge. Peer-learning is vital. Pupils can sometimes get support first by addressing their partners or colleagues than having to ask their teachers. This is then a way of enhancing good relationships between classmates and creating a good communicative atmosphere. Next, the teacher showed the students the Spanish Organic Law explained to them the main points in this decree concerning teaching speaking in Spanish EFL classes. The decree was in Spanish and the teacher was explaining and discussing the decree in Spanish language. (see figures....). Finally, the lesson was closed by giving a task to students, in order to discuss with the teacher later, by choosing at least 5 items for speaking in the EPOSTL, they select, adapt and/or design different activities to improve their

experience/knowledge/ability in this area, they give themselves score from 1-5 in all 8 indicators.

Lesson six: Reading and Written Comprehension Skills in a Foreign Language (October 30th, 2017)

The teacher started the lesson as usual by asking students some questions about the topic they will talk about. In this lesson the teacher discussed with the students three main points in teaching reading in a Spanish primary EFL class by asking them the following questions:

Why Reading in English is important at Primary level?

What type of real-life reading activities do people normally engage in?

Think of some ways in which these Reading activities might be used in the reading class.

The discussion commenced when the teacher explained that Written comprehension lies, according to Boland (1993) upon word decoding (sounding out of words found in written texts), comprehension (which involves knowledge of vocabulary and grammatical structures and spelling). Such principles are basic pillars to start understanding written pieces and should not be taught in isolation and some factors have a big influence on the acquisition process: personal abilities and features, reading readiness before carrying out any teaching process at school, socioeconomic background and the educational setting characteristics. The students shared their personal experiences in teaching reading in elementary classes and most of them confirmed the importance of this skill (reading) in learning English especially with young EFL learners. Based on their experiences, the students described some types of real-life reading activities they have used in their previous teaching and the teacher was commenting and correcting the implication of these activities for the whole class, in order the students apply them correctly in their future EFL classes. Finally, the teacher provided some real-life reading activities that may serve them in the future and most of the students agreed that Pen friends reading activities are so useful with young learners and this type of activity is a trend that puts in contact two people from different backgrounds willing to exchange opinions and interests and it may be of significance for children. Moreover, it develops the social and civic as well as the cultural awareness competence.

Lesson Seven: WRITING IN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE (NOVEMBER 6th, 2017)

This lesson is a continuation of Lesson six that was about Reading and Written Comprehension. However, three questions were discussed in this lesson regarding writing skill;

- Why is writing in English important at Primary level?
- What type of real-life writing activities do people normally engage in?
- Think of some ways in which these writing activities might be used in the English class.

In this day, there were a lot of absent students, only few attended the lesson. The teacher explained that Written production is the last (but not less important) of the four core skills that integrates the language mastery to be accomplished by the students. Nowadays, it allows virtual communication (usually done through the exchange of written texts), as well as the sending of information. In response to question two, the students shared the type of real-life writing activities they used to use in their EFL classes. The students demonstrated their awareness that people usually send e-mails or text more and more these days, but it would be nice to bear in mind all the notes they take throughout their daily lives. Ranging from shopping lists to the most sophisticated application forms, people engage in a huge variety of writing tasks that may have a different register depending on the context they are situated. The teacher was astonished and surprised at the students' awareness and maturity towards some details of teaching the writing skill that the majority of teachers forget about it or did not pay attention to it.

Lesson eight: DEVELOPING LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE: GRAMMAR, VOCABULARY, PRONUNCIATION AND SPELLING (NOVEMBER 20th, 2017)

This lesson was general in content in comparison to the previous lessons that were taught. It involved Grammar, Vocabulary, Pronunciation and Spelling and the teacher opened discussion by asking students two main questions about;

What problems have they had in teaching grammar, vocabulary and spelling?
How can they help their learners acquire and learn these areas?

First, the students shared the problems they had in teaching grammar and claimed that some tenses do not correspond to the ones available in Spanish. For example, subjunctive does not exist in English and it took to some of them a long time to realize they use the 'past simple' form to express such a tense.

English is rarely translated word-by-word, so the learning of given structures is difficult for learners. Complex structures such as inversions are high-level and sometimes teacher does not expect to find such inverted sentences within a text. Second, in teaching vocabulary and pronunciation, students mainly found suffixes and prefixes quite difficult to understand. Rather, learning such morphemes by heart seemed the most effective way to remember these patterns. From the students' answers the teacher tried to explain and provide solutions to every student problem but the lesson time was not enough to answer all their questions and worries. In answering the second question, the teacher provided solutions and tips for the pre-service teacher to help learners better acquire and learn grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation from the (Order17 March, 2015 Andalusia) by giving examples of communicative tasks. By the end of the session, the teacher briefly provided a set of other ideas on grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation.

Lesson Nine: CULTURE AND LANGUAGE EDUCATION (NOVEMBER 27TH, 2017)

In this lesson the teacher moved to culture in relation to language and opened the discussion by asking students the following opening questions:

Why is the cultural component important in the language class?

What cultural resources/activities can you use in the English class?

The students explained that having their children communicating in a foreign language means the children need/have the capacity to interact with people from other English-speaking countries. Therefore, costumes or cultural aspects are important so children are prepared for real-life situations in which they are required different ways of reacting or behaving. The students showed their awareness to the importance of teaching culture in EFL classes. Additionally, the teacher divided the students into groups of four and gave them 5 minutes to think about the possible resources and activities they may use in teaching culture. Next, the teacher discussed with students these ideas and every student from each group was required to write the idea on the board. After finishing the task, the teacher opened the discussion with the students and started explaining the Orden ECD/65/2015 –Key Competences: Cultural Awareness and expression and Orden 17 Marzo: ÁREA DE 1ª LENGUA EXTRANJERA (see Appendix). The students were highly interested by these articles and were positively interacting in the class with teacher by asking various questions about the application of these articles.

LESSON TEN: RESOURCES AND ICTS (DECEMBER 4th, 2017)

This session involved 2 outcomes about resources and ICTs where students had to a) Identify a variety of appropriate resources for Primary Education; and b) design an outline for a Webquest. The teacher commenced the lesson by a series of question as follow:

- What resources can we use in the English class?
- What criteria would you employ when choosing resources or designing your own materials?
- What are the advantages and limitations of using textbooks?
- How can we use Information and Communication Technology (ICTs)?
- How can Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) improve learners' communicative competence in primary education?
- What useful online resources are you already familiar with?

The teacher passed quickly through these questions because the second outcome needed more time for the teacher to explain the Webquest for the students. In this lesson, the teacher explained the article of the 17th of March and what are the general ideas it contained about the use of ICTs in Spanish EFL classes and how Spanish EFL teachers are required to teach.

Lesson Eleven: EVALUATING AND TESTING (DECEMBER 11th, 2017)

In this lesson, the teacher tried to help the students find assessment procedures and management strategies for the EFL class. The discussion was opened by asking a set of questions like;

- In what ways can we assess learners during lessons?
- How would you assess tasks and projects?
- What components would you include in an end of Unit test?
- What are the best ways to organize a classroom (seating arrangements, etc.)?
- How can we ensure that students are 'on task' for the majority of class time?
- How can we use assessments to encourage learners and improve classroom management?

Besides answering the questions above, the teacher explained types of assessment and other considerations from theory and provided what authors and advocators said in

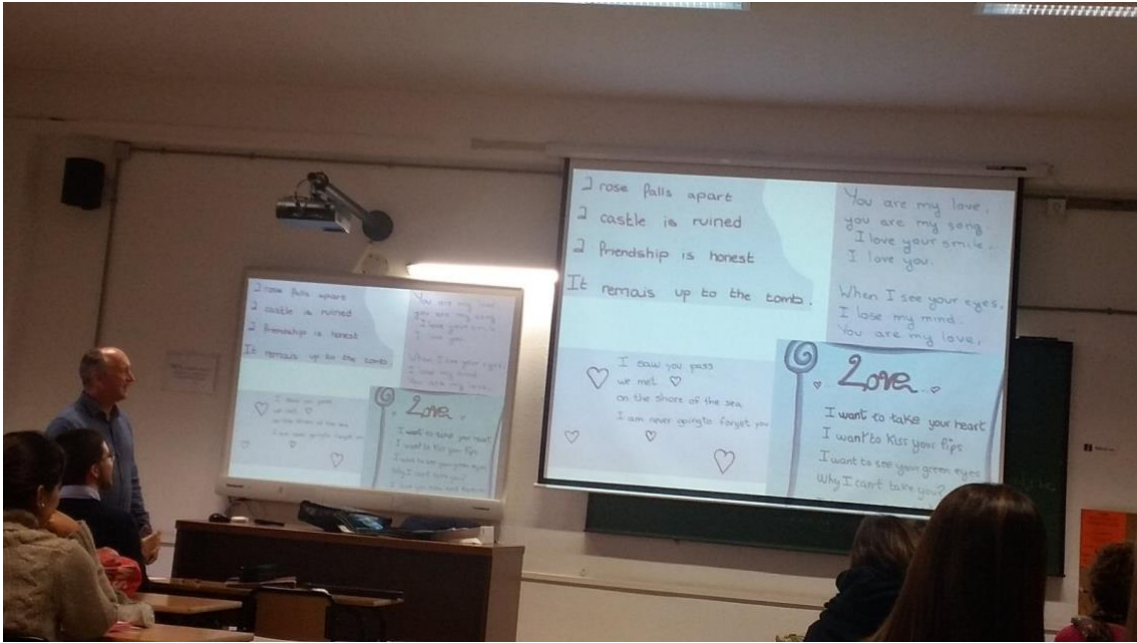
this field. The students were highly interacted in the lesson and were asking a lot of questions about assessment because according to them they had a lot of troubles and obstacles in assessing their learners' performance and learning. The students were also concerned about what did the Article of 17 March, 2015 say regarding assessment and evaluation and what measures did this article suggest for teachers to help them overcome these problems.

The teacher was responding to their answers and providing as much as solutions and ideas he could. This lesson was not enough in terms of time to go into details on the topic and answer all the students' questions and doubts.

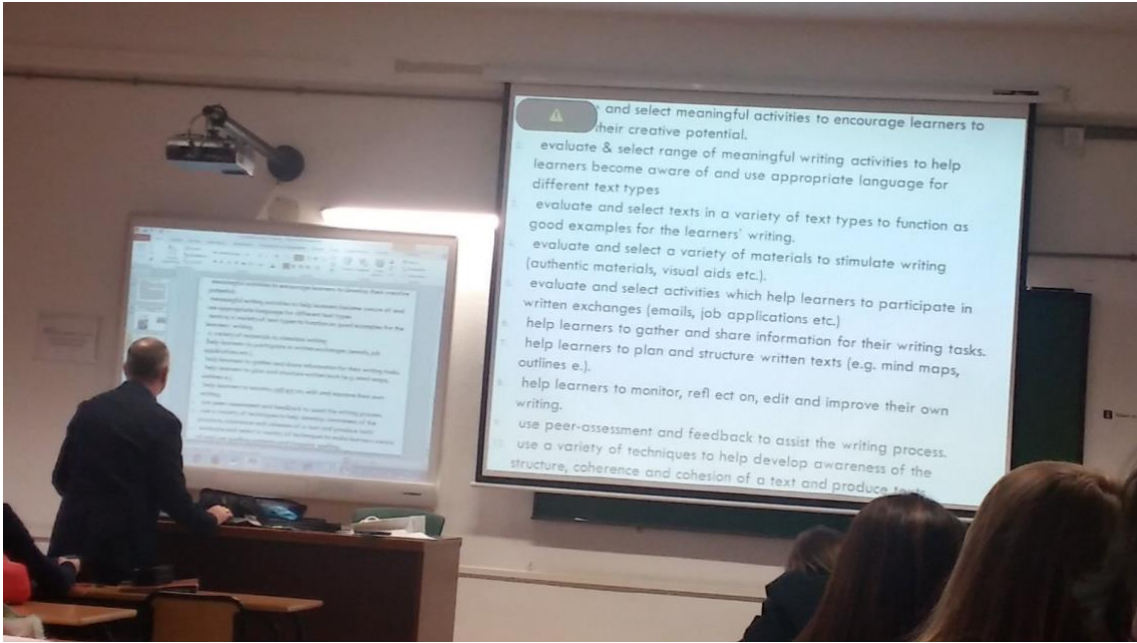
Lesson Twelve: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT AND LANGUAGE (DECEMBER 11th, 2017)

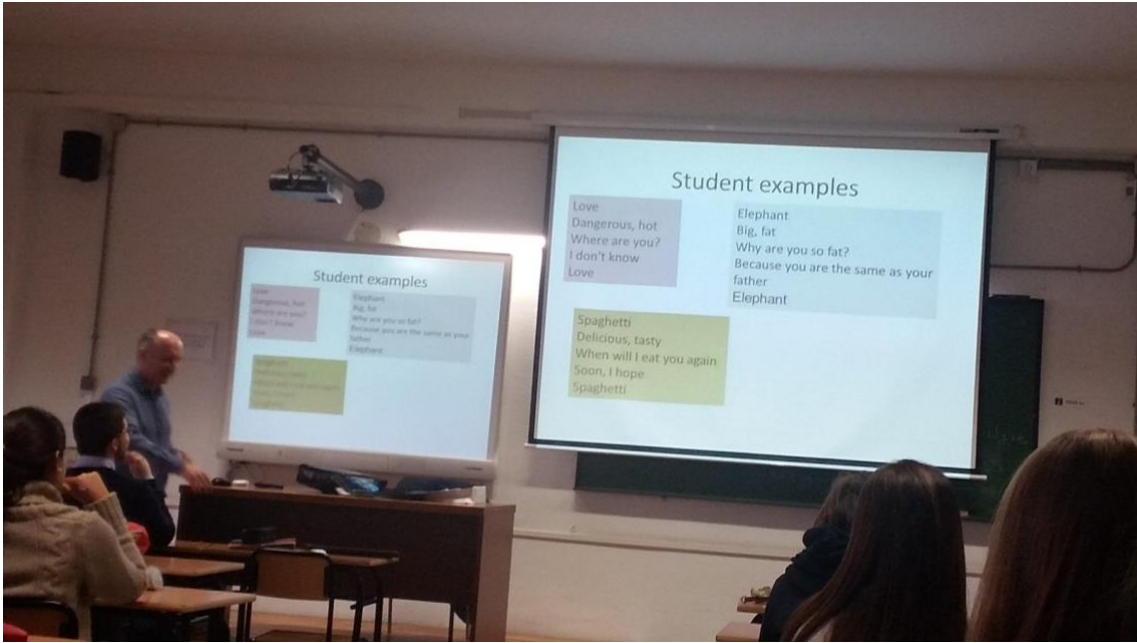
This was the concluding lesson of this teaching training and was addressed to classroom management and language teaching. This lesson was the continuation of lesson eleven in terms of content. The teacher tried to summarize the lesson as much as possible and touch the main points only without going into more details because it needed more time and extra lessons. By the end of the lesson, the teacher explained to the students that the teacher, with the methodologies they are using, will be a facilitator, a guide. In shorter, the class will be student-centred rather than the teacher being a leader. He explained that Since TBL and CLT rely on the use of the target language as the tool to achieve the communicative competence, it would be useful start speaking English since the very first moment, fostering an environment where children feel comfortable.



Pictures from the TBLT training class(A9)









 <p>OUTCOME</p>	 <p>OBJECTIVES</p>
<p>Each student will introduce a wild animal on a piece of paper.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To produce a written text about physical appearance and way of life of a wild animal. • To exchange information about the wild nature and animals living there.

Group → 5th Year of Primary Education

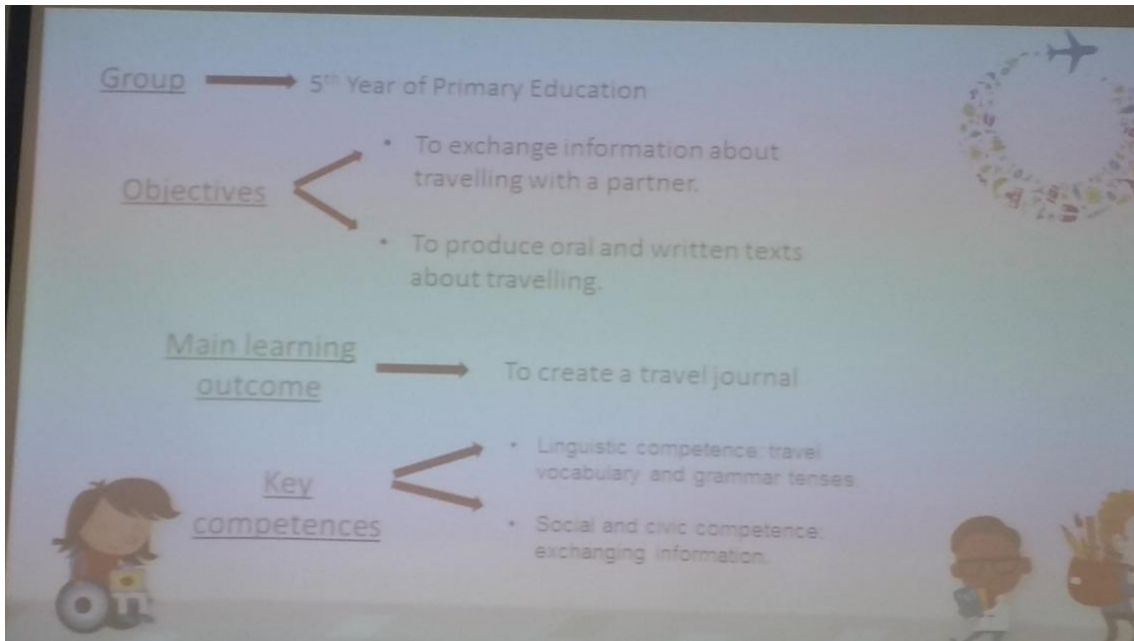
Objectives

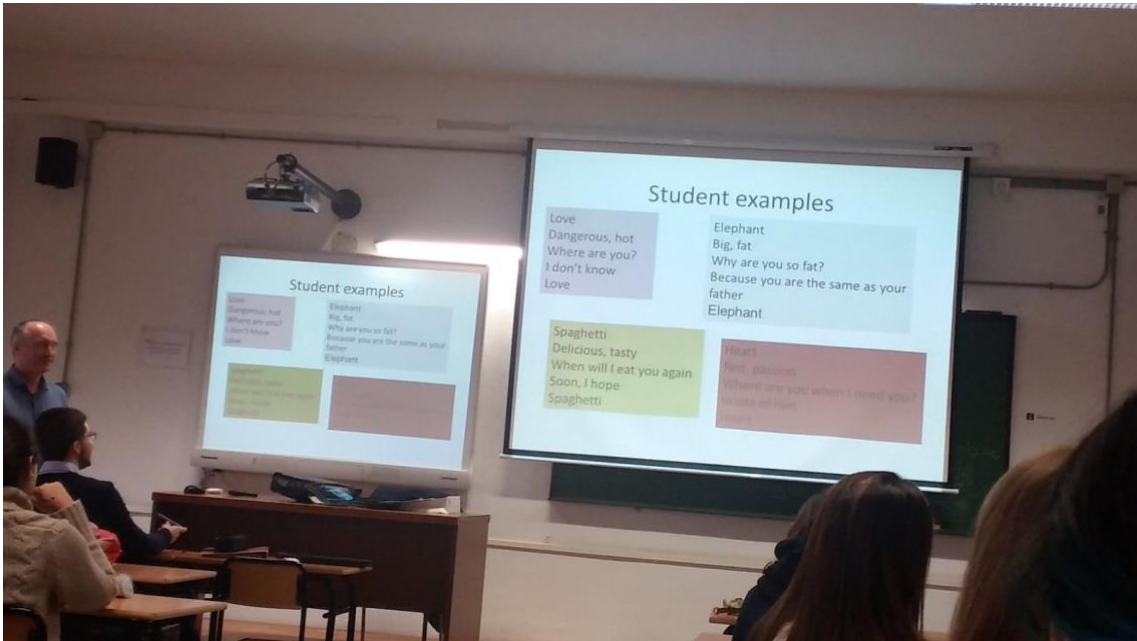
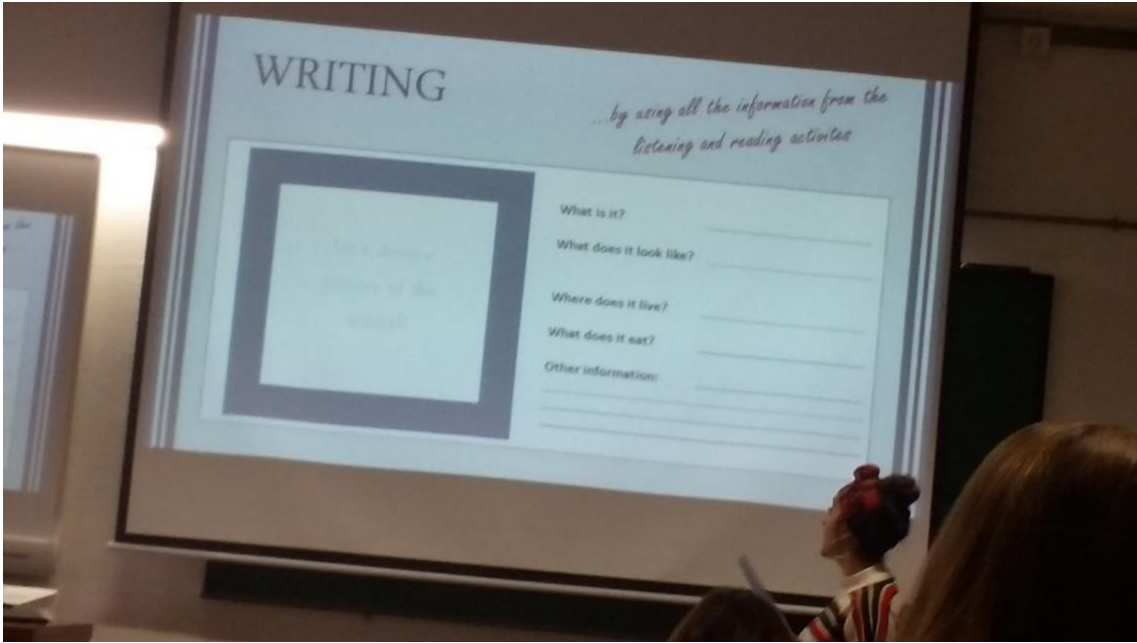
- To exchange information about travelling with a partner.
- To produce oral and written texts about travelling.

Main learning outcome → To create a travel journal

Key competences

- Linguistic competence: travel vocabulary and grammar tenses
- Social and civic competence: exchanging information.







Task cycle

Listening: Maria's Trip

Where did she go?	
What monuments did she visit?	
What did she eat?	
What was the weather like?	

