

## The Comparative Impact of Information-gap Task and Opinion-gap Task on Speaking Performance of Field-dependent and Field-independent EFL Learners

Behdokht Mall-Amiri<sup>1</sup>, Ph.D

(corresponding author)

Department of English Language, Central Tehran Branch

Neda Rafiee<sup>2</sup>

Department of English Language, Science and Research Campus,

<sup>1,2</sup>Islamic Azad University, Iran

**Abstract:** *The present study was an attempt to compare the effect of Information-gap task and Opinion-gap task on field-dependent and field-independent intermediate EFL learners' speaking ability. To this end, 100 female EFL learners from Iran Language Institute (ILI), located in Tehran, Iran were chosen. The homogeneity of the participants was ensured through a piloted Preliminary English Test (PET). Then, based on their scores, 96 learners were selected. Then, based on their performance on the GEFT questionnaire they were divided into two groups of 40 field dependents and 43 field independents. The participants' performance on the speaking part of the PET test was considered as the pre-treatment scores. The students practiced information-gap and opinion-gap tasks during 10 sessions. After the instructional period, the researcher used another PET speaking test as the post-test. The results analyzed through a two-way ANOVA revealed that the two personality types performed equally after receiving both types of tasks in their posttest.*

**Keywords:** *Field-dependent learners; Field-independent learner; Information-gap task; Opinion-gap task; Speaking*

### Introduction

#### Cognitive Styles

Cognitive style is defined as a characteristic, self-consistent mode of functioning which individuals show in their perceptual activities (Witkin, et al. 1971). Hence, this psychological term refers to variations among individuals in preferred ways of perceiving, organizing, analyzing, or recalling information and experience. It refers to a technical psychological distinction between typical ways of thinking (Cook, 1991).

#### Field-dependent and Field-independent learners

Field-dependent learners thrive best in structured social environments, think globally, and are extrinsically motivated (Witkins, 1962). Field-independent learners prefer individual effort and study, are analytical thinkers, and tend to be intrinsically motivated (Witkin, et al., 1971).

Field dependency was operationally defined in this study as the learners' performance on the GEFT questionnaire.

### Task

Over the last two decades, second language researchers, methodologists, and syllabus designers have shown interest toward task-based approaches to second language instruction, which focus on the ability to perform a task or activity, rather than solely explicit teaching of grammatical structures. According to (Robinson, 1995) task-based approach probably provides more favorable conditions for the development of second language ability.

According to Ellis (2003), teachers have recognized that when learners are given the opportunity to experience samples of language use (i.e. the samples which are representative of how learners perform when they are attending to fluency), they will be succeeded in their fluent and effective communication.

Ellis (2003, p.16) specifies 6 features of a task which are as follows:

1. A task is a work plan. A task provides a plan for learner activities. It may include teaching materials used in the class.
2. A task involves a primary focus on meaning. Learners engage in using language pragmatically rather than only practicing specific language structure. In other words, in this case learners are not forced to use specific language so as to perform a task rather they are free to choose the language need to achieve the outcome of the task.
3. A task involves real world processes of language use. Learners participate in activities which resemble the activities in the real world. For example, completing a form, asking for direction.
4. A task can involve any of four language skills. E.g., listening to a radio broadcast and reporting it to others could be one of the examples.
5. A task engages cognitive processes. In order to perform a task, learners may be required to employ cognitive processes such as selecting, identifying, reasoning, and evaluating.
6. A task has a clearly defined communicative outcome. Through defining the outcome of a task in advance we can figure out whether the task has got completed or not.

### Task Types

Having mentioned some of the definitions of tasks, it is also important to know about different types of tasks. Brown (1991) believed that task types differ in objective and demand.

Different researches such as Prabhu (1987), Pica, Kanagy, and Falodum (1993) have made different classifications regarding task types and some of them are mentioned here. One of the earliest classifications of the tasks has been Prabhu's Bangalore Project classification. Prabhu (1987, p.56) identified three task types:

1. Information-gap activity, which involves a transfer of given information from one person to another- or from one form to another, or from one place to another - generally calling for the decoding or encoding of information from or into language (for example photo)
2. Reasoning-gap activity: involves deriving some new information from given information through processes of inferences, deduction, practical reasoning or a perception of relationships or patterns. One example is working out the teacher's timetable on the basis of given class timetable.
3. Opinion-gap activity: involves identifying and articulating a personal preference, feeling or attitude in response to a given situation. (e.g., e story completion or taking part in the discussion of a social issue).

## **Speaking**

Iranian EFL students usually hesitate to speak English because they have problems using accurate, fluent and complex language, therefore their scores are usually very low in all English language skills. Leoma (2004) holds that speaking has been considered as an individual ability, although, a crucial part of language use is utilizing it personally, social aspect of speaking should not be ignored. From a communicative view of language, listening and speaking skills are not separable. They are interwoven closely in a way that in a usual spoken interaction, each participant's interactive discourse influences the outcome which conveys the meaning (Leoma, 2004).

## **Speaking Fluency**

In the literature of language teaching and testing, fluency mainly refers to productive language performance and as Riggensbach (1991) contends is an important criterion by which non-native performance can be judged.

In foreign language teaching and testing various definitions of the term fluency have been proposed. Brumfit (1985) argues from a definition of fluency as natural language use and defines the aim of fluency activity in the classroom as to develop a pattern of language communication in the classroom which is similar to that utilized by competent users in the L1.

## Speaking Accuracy

Different definitions for accuracy have been put forward in the literature. Yuan and Ellis (2003) mention that accuracy concerns the extent to which the language produced conform to the target language norms. Richards, et al. (1992) also define accuracy as the ability to produce sentences which are grammatically correct. Byrne (1988), defines accuracy more precisely when he says that accuracy refers to the use of correct forms where utterances do not contain errors which affect the phonological, syntactic, and semantic or discourse features of a language.

Regarding the importance of grammatical accuracy in EFL pedagogy it should be said that in the mid to late 1970s some teachers refuse the accuracy parts with regard to providing natural language activities in the classroom. This over emphasis on fluency resulted in learners who were able to produce fairly fluent but barely comprehensible language (Brown, 2001). It is now clear in language pedagogy that accuracy goes hand in hand with fluency.

## Teaching L2 Speaking in the Classroom

In the communicative model of language teaching, the teacher helps the students in real life communication. They help their student develop the ability to produce grammatically correct and logically connected sentences that are suitable for specific context (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). According to Nunan (2003, p.48), there are some principles for teaching speaking, two of the main ones are described below:

### 1. Give students practice with both fluency and accuracy

At the beginning and intermediate level of studies, learners must be given opportunities to improve their fluency as well as accuracy.

### 2. Use group work or pair work

To improve students' speaking, they should be given enough opportunities to speak in class.

Based on Hinkle (2006), teaching speaking has been interwoven with three other skills; listening, reading and writing. Therefore, classroom activities and interactions have been based on pre-speaking, speaking, and post-speaking activities as three interrelated steps by the means of integrating three language skills (Brown, 2001; Lazaraten, 2001; Nation & Newton, 2009). These three stages could be respectively defined as the following:

**Pre-speaking** or the preliminary stage refers to a preparatory stage to aid learners to get prepared for a speaking task through introducing the topic and activating schemata. Activities like brainstorming can facilitate the process of producing or creating ideas and reviewing the linguistic features relating to the topic. What seems to be crucial in this stage is providing an appropriate context to trigger learners to recognize communicative functions, and it also aids learners to construct and reconstruct these functions.

**During speaking step**, learners are provided with sufficient number of lexical items to obtain communicative aims. Activities with the purpose of improving retention of language system are Practiced in the third stage, **post-speaking** .

Speaking today has a crucial role in the daily lives of much of the world's population and speakers of globally dominant languages. Since speaking a second language is important but at the same time difficult ample research (Passov, 1991), Serova, and Goreva, (2005), Moschanskaya, (2001) Rabbanifar and Mall-Amiri (2017) have been conducted to help students improve this ability and lessen the amount of difficulty.

### **Research Questions**

In order to fulfill the purpose of the present study the following research questions were formulated:

**Q1.**Is there any difference between the effect of information –gap task on field -dependent and field-independent EFL learners' speaking?

**Q2.**Is there any difference between the effect of opinion-gap task on field -dependent and field-independent EFL learners' speaking?

**Q3.**Is there any difference between the effect of information-gap and opinion- gap task on field-dependent EFL learners' speaking?

**Q4.**Is there any difference between the effect of information-gap and opinion- gap task on field-independent EFL learners' speaking?

### **Method**

#### **Participants**

The participants of the study were 100 Iranian female intermediate EFL students selected from learners studying at the ILI (Iran Language Institute) located in Iran. They ranged in age from 15 to 26. Based on the scores they obtained from a PET,96 learners whose scores were one standard deviation above and below the mean were chosen to be the main participants of the study. Moreover, thirty other students with the similar characteristics to the main sample were chosen to participate in the stage of piloting the proficiency test (PET). Then in order to identify the learning style of students a GEFT questionnaire was administered and based on the result of the learners, they were divided into two groups: 40field-dependent and 43field-independent learners. Therefore, 84 learners underwent the experimentation.

There were two raters who were EFL teachers with 4 to10 years of teaching experience at English institutes and held MA degree in TEFL who did the rating of the speaking performance of the learners.

## **Instrumentation**

In order to conduct the purpose of the study, the following instruments were utilized:

### **Preliminary English Test (PET)**

A pre-piloted PET was administered for homogenizing the learners at the first step. It is the intermediate level Cambridge ESOL exam which is appropriate for those who participate in everyday communications (e.g. read simple books and articles, newspapers, write a simple personal letter, make notes during a meeting). It involves the four main language skills-reading, writing, listening and speaking, using authentic material.

In order to rate the speaking performance the PET Analytic rubric for speaking task was used. Both versions of the two PET speaking test that were used for pre-treatment and post-test were completely the same on construction but different on examples. The speaking subtest was used as pre-treatment and posttest.

### **Course books**

The passages utilized in this study were extracted from Cover To Cover book (Day & Yamanaka, 2008) which is specified for teaching reading strategy, composed of 12 units and each unit consists of extensive and intensive reading, comprehension questions after texts, vocabulary learning, opinion questions. The other books that were utilized in this study were American files 3 and 4 (Oxenden & Latham-Koening, 2010).

### **Procedure**

The researchers firstly piloted the PET among 30 female intermediate EFL learners studying at Iran Language Institute (ILI) in Tehran. After making sure about the reliability and appropriateness of the items, the test was administered on 100 learners at the same institute. Then 96 learners whose scores fell between one standard deviation above and below the mean were chosen for this study.

The two raters whose consistency in scoring had already been established rated the participants' performance on speaking and writing sections of PET. The next step was to conduct the GEFT among the 96 participants and 40 field-dependents and 43 field-independent (four classes forming two experimental groups) were chosen.

All of these classes included learners with two types of learning style, namely field-dependents and field-independent and two classes received information-gap task and two other classes received opinion-gap task instruction during 10 sessions in 5 weeks. Each session lasted 30 minutes.

Before the start of the treatment, the two groups of field-dependents and field-independents were additionally checked to be the same regarding speaking ability based on their scores on the PET speaking part that. In the first step of the treatment in each session, on 2 classes of FD/FI the opinion-gap activity was practiced and on 2 other classes information-gap tasks were implemented.

Information-gap activities were collaborative activities, usually involving two participants. Each learner had information that the other student did not have. The objective was for learners to share the information verbally, they were not allowed to simply show each other the information. Then they used the combined information to solve a problem. For example an especially effective information-gap activity was a jigsaw reading, a type of activity that was done usually in groups. In a jigsaw reading, the teacher used academic texts or texts from the students' course book. The teacher divided a text into sections and assigned each group a section to read. Each group was responsible for understanding its part. Then new groups were formed with one ambassador from each previous team. The new groups now had one representative from each section and each could share what she understood from their part of text.

Finally they were able to complete the tasks like fill –in- the blanks, complete the chart, answer the questions, agree or disagree, that were provided after the text in each session, and some of these tasks were done. Also the learners were exposed to new vocabularies in the warm up part and some grammatical points after the instruction were practiced. Finally, the learners were asked to compare their answers to other groups' and check them with the teacher. During the activity the teacher monitored the timeframe, moved around the class, monitored students' language production and participation to ensure that they would not let their partners see each other's notes or information.

In the other experimental group, the same procedure was followed practicing opinion-gap tasks. The researcher used the same warm up questions and the same texts to read as the information-gap tasks. The learners were asked to do the tasks which were provided after the text, like agree or disagree and giving their own opinion. Then they expressed their open-ended ideas but it did not require the participants to reach an agreed solution. It permitted a number of possible outcomes and the participants could choose to take part in the interaction or remain silent. It required students to give their opinions based on given topics. First, they jotted down their own ideas. Then, they discussed their opinions in small groups. Finally, each group presented their collective opinion which had been written in one paragraph. For some topics, there might be no right or wrong responses and there was no reason to expect the same answers or responses from different individuals or different groups. For example, the teacher divided the class into several groups that discussed or described a common object from different perspectives. After all groups finished, the teacher asked the groups to report their ideas to the

rest of the class. Depending on the number of the students, the students were divided into groups of four or five. The grouping was done randomly without paying attention to their FD/FI.

After 10 sessions which the learners received the treatments, they took the posttest which was another version of PET speaking part. The posttest data was analyzed in order to reveal the impact of the independent variable and the moderator variable on the dependent variable of the study.

**Findings**

Firstly, the researcher piloted the PET test on 30 learners similar in characteristics to the main participants to check its reliability and appropriateness of the items. The analyses of IF and ID demonstrated that there were six malfunctioning items; therefore, to make the test more reliable, those malfunctioning items were eliminated from the test. The reliability of the test was estimated both before and after removing the six malfunctioning items which turned out to be .79 and .803 respectively.

After administering the PET on the main participants and assigning them to two main experimental groups, their speaking performances on the PET test were compared to ensure their homogeneity in this variable. Inter-rater reliability of the speaking scores given by the two raters to the first group (info-gap, FD) was estimated through Pearson formula. Firstly, however the normality condition was checked:

**Table:1**

**Descriptive Statistics of the two raters' speaking pretest scores of group1**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		ratios
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	
preR1	20	12.6000	1.35336	-.164	.512	-.32
preR2	20	12.8500	1.81442	-.047	.512	-.09
Valid N (listwise)	20					

As the above table shows, both skewness ratios were less than 1.96, hence they were normally distributed. The following table shows the result of the correlation between the two raters' scores.



**Table: 2****Correlations between raters' speaking pretest scores of group 1**

	preR1	preR2
preR1	Pearson Correlation	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.789**
	N	20
preR2	Pearson Correlation	.789**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	1
	N	20

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As depicted in table 2 above, the correlation between the two raters' scores turned out to be significant ( $r=.79$ ,  $p=.000<.05$ ). Therefore, the mean of their scores could safely be used for further calculations.

The similar statistical process was done for 3 other groups and it was revealed that the correlations between raters' speaking pretest scores of group 2,3and 4 turned out to be significant too.

To make sure about the homogeneity of the learners regarding their speaking proficiency prior to the start of the treatment, the four groups' PET speaking scores before the treatment had to be compared statistically through one-way ANOVA. Primarily, however, the conditions of normality and homogeneity of variances were checked. The following table shows the result for the former:

**Table: 3**

**Descriptive Statistics of the pre-treatment speaking scores**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Ratios
				Statistic	Std. Error	
G1 speaking pretest	20	12.7250	1.49978	.023	.512	.04
G2 speaking pretest	20	13.4500	1.76143	.822	.512	1.6
G3 speaking pretest	20	13.1500	1.35821	.418	.512	.81
G4 speaking pretest	23	13.4783	2.10237	.166	.481	.34
Valid N (listwise)	20					

As table 3 displays, all ratios fell below 1.96 which ensures that the four sets of scores were normally distributed. The following table shows the result of the Levene's test of homogeneity, the latter condition:

**Table: 4**

**Test of Homogeneity of Variances speaking pretest**

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.519	3	79	.216

As shown in table 4, the variances of the four sets of scores were not significantly different ( $F=1.51, p=.21 > .05$ ), hence the condition was met. Therefore, One-way ANOVA was legitimate to run:

**Table: 5****ANOVA on speaking pretest**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	7.584	3	2.528	.854	.469
Within Groups	233.977	79	2.962		
Total	241.560	82			

As manifested in table 5, the means of the four groups were not significantly different ( $F=.85$ ,  $p=.46 > .05$ ). Therefore, it was concluded that the four groups were homogeneous regarding their speaking proficiency at the outset, and as such any possible difference among their posttest performance could be attributed to the treatment they received or their personality.

To test the null hypotheses, the speaking posttest of the two groups had to be compared through a two-way ANOVA.

**Table: 6****Descriptive Statistics of the posttest scores across groups**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Ratios
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	
G1posttest	20	14.2250	1.98332	.326	.512	.63
G2posttest	20	15.2000	1.75019	.005	.512	.009
G3posttest	20	14.9000	1.91669	-.216	.512	-.42
G4posttest	23	14.4348	1.92652	-.137	.481	-.28
Valid (listwise)	N 20					

Table 6 displays the normalcy of the scores of each group as the skewness ratios were all less than 1.96. The assumption of homogeneity of variances was also verified. The following table shows the result:

**Table: 7**

**Levene's Test of Equality of Error  
Variances Dependent Variable: posttest**

F	df1	df2	Sig.
.324	3	79	.808

As depicted in table 7, the variances of the four groups were not significantly different ( $F=.32, p=.808>.05$ ). Thus, the assumption was met. The following table shows the descriptive statistics of the four groups' posttest scores:

**Table: 8**

**Descriptive Statistics of the four groups' posttest scores across the task type**

**Dependent Variable: posttest**

Task	Personalit y	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
information- gap	FD	14.2250	1.98332	20
	FID	15.2000	1.75019	20
	Total	14.7125	1.91113	40
opinion-gap	FD	14.9000	1.91669	20
	FID	14.4348	1.92652	23
	Total	14.6512	1.91341	43
Total	FD	14.5625	1.95523	40
	FID	14.7907	1.86520	43
	Total	14.6807	1.90086	83

As table 8 exhibits, the means of the four groups were almost the same. The following table shows the result of the two-way ANOVA.

**Table: 9****Tests of Between-Subjects Effects****Dependent Variable: posttest**

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	11.899 <sup>a</sup>	3	3.966	1.102	.353	.040
Intercept	17845.478	1	17845.478	4957.257	.000	.984
Task personality	.042	1	.042	.012	.914	.000
task personality *	1.343	1	1.343	.373	.543	.005
task personality *	10.721	1	10.721	2.978	.088	.036
Error	284.390	79	3.600			
Total	18184.750	83				
Corrected Total	296.289	82				

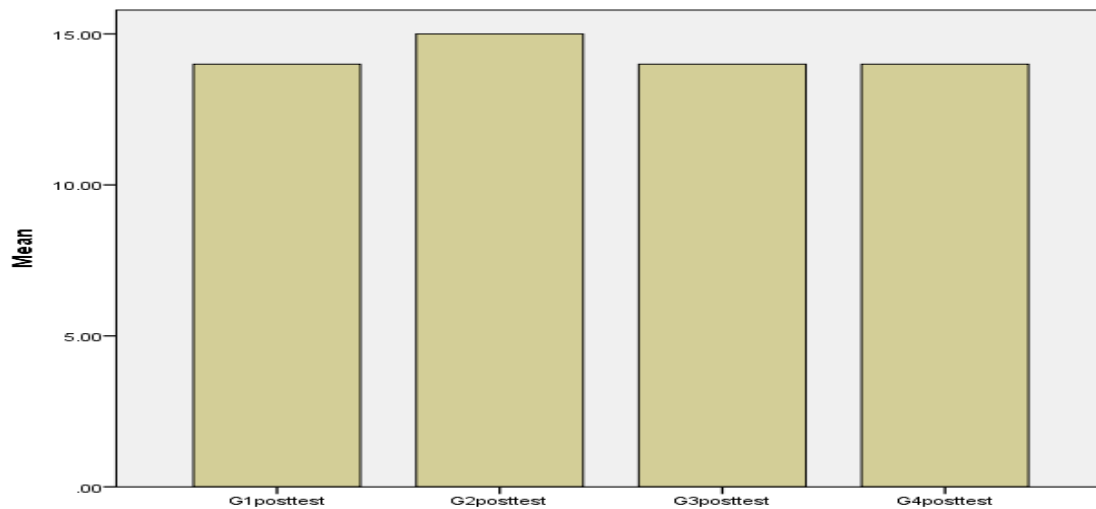
a. R Squared = ,040 (Adjusted R Squared = ,004)

As depicted in table 9 the interaction between the two independent variables (task type and personality type) turned out to be non-significant ( $F=2.97$ ,  $p=.088>.05$ ), and as such the main effect of each independent variable could be drawn on separately to test the null hypotheses. As shown in this table, the effect of personality type came out to be not significant ( $F=.373$ ,  $p=.543>.05$ ). Therefore the first and the second null hypotheses failed to be rejected implying that FD and FID learners benefited from information-gap task (1<sup>st</sup> hypothesis), and opinion-gap task (2<sup>nd</sup> hypothesis) equally.

Also displayed in table 9, the effect of task-type turned out to be non-significant ( $F=.012$ ,  $p=.914>.05$ ). As such, the third and fourth null hypotheses failed to be rejected too, implying that information-gap and opinion-gap tasks had equal effect on FD learners (3<sup>rd</sup> hypothesis), and also on FI learners (4<sup>th</sup> hypothesis).

The graph representing the posttest mean of the four groups appears hereunder:

Figure:1



Bar graph representing the posttest mean score of each group.

### Conclusion

On the basis of the results of the analysis of data related to the post-tests, the researchers were not able to reject the first null hypothesis of the study which indicated that there is no significant difference between the effect of information-gap task on field-dependent and field-independent EFL learners' speaking. The field-dependent learners exposed to information-gap task proved to be equal in their posttest performance to those field-independent learners who were exposed to information-gap task.

According to Witkins (1962), field-dependent learners perform well in social environments, think globally, have difficulty solving problems. According to (Brown, 2000), "Field independence refers to one's ability to perceive a particular element, or factor in a field of distracting items" (p.106). FD/FI learners seem to deal with speaking performance in different ways due to their different ways of looking and thinking about the situations. Employing small-group and pair work as a means of increasing the students' target language practice time and using tasks which encourage the use of the target language in information and decision making situations may improve the complex process of speaking performance for every student.

These controversies illustrate the fact that cognitive style of FI/FD does not affect the learning process and outcomes independently, and there are various other factors which, when they are available, can compensate for these differences: The importance of each end of the pole (FI versus FD), coupled with variety of existing language learning environments, provides the hope that any learner with each kind of learning style (FD/FI) could be successful given the appropriate situations (Chapelle, & Green, 1992).

Based on the results of the analysis of data related to the post-tests, the researchers were not able to reject the second null hypothesis of the study which indicated that there is no significant difference between the effect of opinion-gap task on field-dependent and field-independent EFL learners' speaking. One justification for the finding of this study may be that FD and FI learners cooperated in their speaking tasks during their treatment period, and this cooperation moderated their orientations linked to their personality type and thus performed similarly at the posttest.

The third and fourth null hypothesis also failed to be rejected supporting that there is no significant difference between the effect of information-gap and opinion-gap task on field-dependent EFL learners' speaking and also there is no significant difference between the effect of information-gap and opinion-gap task on field-independent EFL learners' speaking.

TBL (Task-based learning) seems to help create an effective learning environment in the classroom since it meets three essential conditions necessary for successful learning: it provides learners with the exposure to the target language, maximizes opportunities for them to put their often limited language to genuine use and motivates students to get engaged in the learning process (Prabhu, 1987). In addition, focused instruction, drawing attention to language form, helps learners develop their proficiency more rapidly, although no study has demonstrated that task-based teaching results in higher levels of language proficiency than teaching based on traditional linguistic syllabuses (Ellis, 2003).

### **Suggestions and Recommendations**

Another study could also be conducted in co-ed contexts to see whether sitting together of male and female FD and FI learners, exposed to information-gap and opinion-gap tasks would bring about different results.

Also, another demographic variable which could be adjusted is age. It would be useful to conduct the study in various age ranges such as teens and adults. The reaction of field-dependents and field-independents in various age ranges to the different types of tasks would perhaps show discrepancy.

Other research can be carried out to investigate the impact of these tasks on field-dependents and field-independents' listening and/or writing proficiency.

This study focused on field-dependents / field-independents as the learning styles; other similar research could be conducted on extroverted and introverted learners to see how this personality feature interacts with the effect of task type.

### **References**

- Brown, H. D. (1987). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. (2nd Ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Brown, H. D. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching, fourth edition*. New York: Longman.
- Brown, H. D. (2001). *Teaching by principles. an interactive approach to language pedagogy*. New York: Longman.
- Brown, R. (1991). Group Work, Task Difference, and Second Language Acquisition. *Language Learning*, 12(1), 1-12.
- Brumfit, C. (1985). *Language and literature teaching: from practice to principle*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Byrne, D. (1988). *Focus on the classroom: selected articles*. Oxford: Modern English Publications, ISBN 0-906149-87-8 .
- Chapelle, C., & Green, P. (1992). Field Independence/Dependence in Second-Language Acquisition Research. *Language learning*, 42(1), 47-83.
- Cook, L. (1991). Learning style awareness and academic achievement among community college students. *Community/Junior College Quarterly of Research and Practice*, 15(4), 419-425.
- Day, R. R., & Yamanaka, j. (2008). *Cover to cover: reading comprehension and fluency*. Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based language learning and teaching*. Oxford: New York: Oxford Applied Linguistics.
- Hinkel, E. (2006). Current perspectives on teaching the four skills. *Tesol Quarterly*, 40(1), 109-131.
- Lazaraton, A. (2001). Teaching oral skills, in M. Celce-Murcia (ed) *Teaching English as a Second Foreign Language*(pp.103-115). Boston: Heinle and Heinle.
- Lennon, P.& Riggenbach, H. (2000).*The lexical element in spoken second language fluency.Perspectives on fluency*.Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press25-
- Leoma, S. (2004). *Assessing speaking*. Stuttgar: Ernst KlettSprachen.



- Moschanskaya, E.(2001). *Developing Skills of Non-Verbal Communication in the Situation of Oral Monologue (as illustrated by the situation of presentation)*: synopsis of PhD thesis in Pedagogical Sciences. Perm.
- Nation, I. S. P., & Newton, J. (2009). *Teaching ESL/EFL listening and speaking*. New York:Routledge.
- Nunan, D. (2003). *Practical English language teaching*. New York:McGraw-Hill/Contemporary.
- Oxenden, C., & Latham-Koenig, C. (2010). *New English File. Pre-Intermediate*. Student's Book, Student's Workbook and CD. Oxford: Oxford University press.
- Passov, E.(1991). *Communicative Method of Teaching Speaking to Second Language Learners*. Moscow: Prosveschenie.
- Pica, T., Kanagy, R., & Falodun, J. (1993). Choosing and using communication tasks for second language instruction and research *Tasks and language learning: Integrating theory & practice* (pp. 9-34). Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters, Ltd.
- Prabhu, N. S. (1987). *Second Language Pedagogy*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Rabbanifar, A. & Mall-Amiri (2017). The comparative effect of opinion gap and reasoning gap tasks on complexity, fluency and accuracy of EFL learners' speaking. *International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World:16(4)*, 55-77.
- Reiss, M. A. (1985). The Good Language Learner: Another Look. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 41(3), 511-23.
- Richards, J.C., Platt, J., and Platt, H. (1992). *Dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics*. London: Longman.
- Richards, J.C., & Rodgers, T.S. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching* (2<sup>nd</sup>ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Riggenbach, H. (1991). Toward an understanding of fluency: A microanalysis of nonnative speaker conversations. *Discourse processes*, 14(4), 423-441.
- Robinson, P. (1995). Task complexity and second language narrative discourse. *Language Learning*, 45(1), 99-140

Serova, T., &Goreva , T. (2005). *Developing Skills of Oral Communicative Interaction When Teaching Business Communication in a Second Language*. Perm: Perm State Technical University.

Witkin, H. A. (1962). *Psychological differentiation: studies of development*.

New York, Wiley.

Witkin, H. A., Oltman, P.K., &Raskin, E. (1971). *Group embedded figures test*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press

Yuan, F. and Ellis, R. (2003). The effects of pre-task planning and on-line planning on fluency, complexity and accuracy in L2 oral production, *Applied Linguistics*, 24: 127.