AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE EFFECTS OF APPLYING THE ACTIVITIES OF COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING APPROACH ON ENGLISH LEARNERS' SPEAKING SKILLS IN LIBYA

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ABSTRACT

The central research question guiding this study is as follows: ‘To what extent do specific Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) activities enhance the speaking skills of university students compared to Grammar Translation Method?’. In the Libyan context, studies such as Alhmali (2007) and Orafi and Borg (2009) have investigated English language teaching, yet there has been limited emphasis on enhancing the speaking skills of Libyan English language learners. The significant gap in research on enhancing the speaking skills of Libyan English language learners is underscored by the considerable challenges they face in developing speaking proficiency, primarily due to an education system traditionally focused on grammar and a lack of exposure to spoken English in daily life. The combination of a GTM-focused educational approach and limited exposure to English creates a significant barrier for Libyan learners aspiring to achieve speaking proficiency.

To address the gap identified by Richards and Rodgers (2014) suggest that CLT activities can enhance learners' speaking skills. Therefore, this study explores the impact of CLT activities specifically problem-solving and role-play on Libyan learners' speaking skills. The study hypothesizes that learners exposed to CLT activities will improve their speaking abilities more than those taught using the Grammar Translation Method (GTM). Using an experimental design, data from 45 participants were analysed over six weeks. Participants were divided into three groups: a control group using GTM, and two experimental groups engaged in CLT activities one focusing on role-play and the other on problem-solving. The study employs pre- and post-tests to assess speaking proficiency, measuring fluency, accuracy, and vocabulary use. The control group followed GTM instruction, while the experimental groups practiced CLT activities, with the role-play group simulating real-life situations and the problem-solving group tackling communicative challenges through collaboration and verbal interaction. The outcomes of the analysis reveal that all groups improved between pre- and post-tests. The CLT role-play and CLT problem-solving groups showed greater improvements than the GTM control group, with the overall largest improvement observed in the CLT role-play group, across all measures of speaking skills studied in this research.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CAR (Classroom Action Research)

CC (Communicative Competence)

CLT (Communicative Language Teaching)

CL (Communicative Learning)

DM (Direct Method)

EFL (English as a Foreign Language)

ELT (English Language Teaching)

EMI (English-medium instruction)

ESL (English as a Second Language)

Ex1 (Experimental group 1)

Ex2 (Experimental group 2)

FL (Foreign Language)

GPCE (General People's Committee of Education)

GTM (Grammar-Translation Method)

HEI (Higher education institution)

HSD (Honestly Significant Difference)

L1 (First language)

L2 (Second language)

MHE (Ministry of Higher Education)

MoE (Ministry of Education)

POS (Parts of Speech)

SCT (Sociocultural Theory)

SLA (Second Language Acquisition)

TBL (Task-Based Learning)

TL (Target Language)

TTR (Type token ratio)

WPM (Words Per Minute)

ZPD (Zone of Proximal Development)

DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my beloved father and mother, whose unwavering support made this journey worthwhile. I also dedicate it to my family, friends, and everyone who supported and stood by me throughout this journey. Your encouragement and trust in me have been invaluable.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Overview

This chapter introduces the thesis by providing a comprehensive overview of its content and structure. It begins by discussing the importance of English-speaking proficiency, particularly within the Libyan context, and offers a detailed examination of English Language Teaching (ELT) in Libya. The chapter then introduces Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), outlining its background and the motivation behind this research. Next, the chapter highlights the novelty and significance of the study, emphasizing the unique challenges and opportunities it presents within the Libyan educational landscape. The research aims, objectives, and key questions are then presented, alongside the study's specific focus and research hypotheses. Furthermore, the chapter reviews relevant previous studies, summarizing their key findings, methodological approaches, and adaptations that serve as a foundation for the current research. Finally, the thesis framework is outlined, providing a structured overview of its chapters and key components. This organised structure establishes a clear foundation for the detailed analyses and discussions that follow in subsequent chapters.

1.2 Significance of English-Speaking Proficiency

The demand for English speaking proficiency is significant in today's globalised world, where English functions as a lingua franca in various domains such as education, business, and international communication. Proficiency in English speaking skills not only enhances individuals' academic and professional opportunities but also facilitates cross-cultural communication and collaboration. Research has shown that high English proficiency correlates with improved academic performance and greater access to higher education. For example, Wolf et al. (2024) carried out research examining the connection between academic achievement and English language proficiency among learners, finding that proficiency in English significantly predicts academic success, particularly in reading and mathematics. In educational settings, English speaking proficiency is increasingly valued as it allows students to access a wide range of academic resources, participate effectively in discussions, and engage with diverse perspectives. Research by Crystal (2003) highlights the dominance of English in academic publishing, making English proficiency crucial also for scholars seeking to publish their research globally. Recent evidence highlights the continued dominance of English in academic publishing. According to Phillipson and Skutnabb-Kangas (2017), English has

expanded globally through historical and political processes. This dominance impacts not only linguistic diversity but also the accessibility of research across different languages. Additionally, studies by Jenkins (2007) emphasise the importance of English as a medium of instruction in higher education institutions worldwide, underscoring the need for students to develop proficient speaking skills to succeed in tertiary education. Recent research highlights the significant role of English as a medium of instruction in higher education institutions globally. For instance, Lasagabaster (2024) discusses the impact of English-medium instruction (EMI) in higher education, particularly focusing on its implementation in the Basque Country. The study underscores that proficiency in English is crucial for students to effectively engage with academic content and participate in global academic discourse.

For Libyan L2 English learners, this is particularly significant. As higher education institutions (HEIs) increasingly adopt English as the language of instruction, Libyan students face the challenge of achieving high levels of English proficiency to excel in their studies. Mastery of English not only affects their academic performance but also their ability to access international research and collaborate on a global scale. Thus, addressing the challenges faced by Libyan students in acquiring proficient English-speaking skills is crucial for their academic and professional success.

Likewise, in various professional industries, such as business, engineering, healthcare, and academia, employers often prioritise candidates with strong English-speaking skills. This is because effective communication in English is crucial in a globalised workforce, where interactions with international clients, colleagues, and partners are common. Recent research shows a shift in China's English education policy, driven by the Belt and Road Initiative, the former of which focuses on enhancing intercultural communication skills over testing abilities to meet the needs of international engagement and professional communication (Hu *et al*., 2024). This policy change reflects the broader global trend of prioritising English-speaking skills in multinational companies and professional sectors such as technology, finance, and tourism, where effective communication is essential for professional success. According to, McKay and Bokhorst-Heng (2009) the role of English proficiency as a key factor in career advancement and international mobility, indicating its significance for individuals seeking employment opportunities in diverse cultural contexts. English proficiency enables individuals to navigate the complexities of international communication and fosters cultural exchange and understanding. As such, the demand for English speaking proficiency extends beyond individual benefits to encompass broader societal and global implications.

Pennycook (2017) examines the global spread of English and its role in facilitating international communication. The study emphasises how English enables interaction among people from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds, enhancing cross-cultural engagement. With the importance of English language as a medium of communication now explored, the following section provides the context and background of the study.

1.3 Study Context and Background

Developing strong oral communication skills is essential for everyday interactions, highlighting the importance of speaking as a core principle in learning a new language, especially for foreign language learners. Ur (2000) argues that practical utilisation and continuous practice of a language are more beneficial than mere comprehension of its grammatical rules, based on her observations and experiences as a language educator. She provides examples of language learners who, despite understanding grammar rules, struggle to communicate effectively in real-world scenarios. Ur's evidence is grounded in the communicative approach to language learning, which emphasises the importance of engaging in meaningful communication rather than solely focusing on the structural aspects of a language. By advocating for activities such as role-playing, group discussions, and conversational practice, Ur demonstrates how these methods enable learners to use the language actively in real-life situations, leading to greater fluency and confidence. This perspective is particularly relevant to my study on Libyan L2 English learners as it supports the need for practical, communicative activities to improve their language proficiency. Given the specific challenges faced by Libyan students in acquiring English speaking skills, implementing a communicative approach can significantly enhance their ability to engage in meaningful conversations and perform effectively in academic and professional settings. This practical application helps learners develop fluency and the ability to use language appropriately in various contexts.

Research has consistently demonstrated the importance of interaction and communication across various domains, including corporate settings. For instance, Tannenbaum and Cerasoli (2013) conducted a meta-analysis revealing that effective verbal communication significantly enhances both individual and team performance. Their study highlights that the ability to articulate ideas clearly, collaborate with colleagues, and engage in influential discourse is crucial for success in professional environments. Strong communication skills are essential for various professional activities such as presentations, negotiations, and networking. The findings indicate that employees with strong communication skills not only perform better in their roles but also exhibit higher levels of interpersonal influence and are often considered for leadership

positions. Building on this premise, I argue that developing speaking skills is essential for effective communication in everyday interactions. This is particularly relevant to my research on Libyan L2 English learners, which evaluates the effectiveness of communicative language teaching activities in improving English speaking proficiency. My study focuses on how specific CLT activities, such as role-playing and collaborative problem-solving, can enhance speaking skills. By emphasising practical language use, the research aims to demonstrate the positive impact of these activities on learners' ability to speak effectively

The Grammar Translation Method (GTM) is a traditional approach to language teaching that focuses primarily on the explicit instruction of grammatical rules and vocabulary through translation exercises. This method emphasises reading and writing skills, with little to no emphasis on speaking or listening, as students typically translate sentences between their native language and the target language and learn grammatical structures through rote memorisation and drills. In contrast, more contemporary approaches, such as CLT, prioritise interactive and practical language use. CLT focuses on developing learners' ability to use language effectively in real-life situations through activities like role-playing, group discussions, and problem-solving tasks. Unlike GTM, which often limits language practice to written exercises, CLT aims to enhance all aspects of language proficiency, including speaking, listening, and interpersonal communication skills.

The activities of CLT approach provide opportunities for learners to engage in interactive tasks that mimic real-life communication, thereby fostering their communicative competence and fluency. By incorporating CLT activities that prioritise speaking and interaction, this study seeks to demonstrate how these approaches can improve learners' oral proficiency and overall language acquisition. Hence, it is contended that the practical utilisation and continuous practice of a language holds superior value to mere comprehension of its grammatical rules, as is the focus of more traditional teaching techniques such as the GTM. Indeed, in the pedagogical domain, the development communicative competence has long been acknowledged as a central objective, facilitating unrestricted expression conducive to efficient interpersonal communication (Kayi, 2006). In short, effective communication necessitates the ability to navigate language within social contexts. More specifically, the present study assesses the impact of specific CLT activities, namely role-playing and collaborative problem-solving, on the development of speaking skills among L2 learners. A detailed exploration of the broader range of CLT activities available to teachers and the rationale behind the selection of these specific methodologies will be provided in Chapter 2.

1.4 Background of CLT

CLT places equal emphasis on the development of all four language skills –listening, speaking, reading, and writing, while primarily focusing on enhancing learners' communicative competence. Unlike traditional methods that often rely on analysis of language structure, CLT advocates for meaningful classroom practices that mirror real-life situations (Alwazir and Shukri, 2016). Alwazir and Shukri argue that traditional methods, which concentrate on the structural aspects of language such as grammar and syntax, may not sufficiently prepare learners for practical communication. They assert that CLT, by contrast, aims to engage students in activities that simulate real-life interactions. This approach helps learners develop the ability to use the language spontaneously and appropriately in various social contexts. For instance, rather than practicing rigid grammar drills, students might participate in role-plays, debates, or problem-solving tasks that require them to use the language actively and interactively. This focus on real-life communication is grounded in the idea that language learning should be functional and applicable to everyday situations. Alwazir and Shukri (2016) support their claims with evidence, showing that students who engage in communicative activities tend to develop better fluency and confidence in using the language compared to those who follow traditional, form-focused instruction.

The fundamental goal of CLT is to provide students with opportunities to proficiently utilise the target language for everyday communication, fostering their willingness to express themselves openly and communicate effectively in public settings. To do so, CLT incorporates a range of activities designed to promote interactive and communicative skills. Among these, problem-solving activity provides learners with the opportunity to practice and train in the target language, thereby enhancing their interactive competence. Waters (2006) suggests that tasks designed to stimulate creative thinking, and active intellectual processing can significantly benefit language learning and acquisition. In the context of my research, this suggestion is particularly relevant as it aligns with the principles of CLT, which emphasises the importance of engaging learners in tasks that mirror real-life communication. The evidence presented by Waters supports the argument that incorporating such tasks into language instruction can enhance learners' ability to use the language creatively and effectively. This perspective is crucial for my study on Libyan L2 English learners, as it underscores the potential benefits of integrating creative and intellectually stimulating tasks into the curriculum to improve speaking proficiency and overall language skills.

Despite the benefits of using problem-solving activities to enhance students' speaking skills, it is essential to provide adequate support during these activities. In language learning,

especially with tasks designed to improve speaking, students may need guidance to effectively practice and develop their verbal communication abilities. Without proper support, learners might struggle to apply their speaking skills in complex scenarios, which could hinder their progress. Ensuring that students receive the necessary assistance and feedback during speaking exercises helps them better engage with the tasks, leading to more effective language development and greater confidence in their spoken English. Maclellan (2008) argues that while challenging activities are beneficial for students, their effectiveness in developing speaking skills is significantly enhanced when accompanied by appropriate guidance. Maclellan's research indicates that challenging tasks, such as problem-solving activities, can stimulate students' engagement and critical thinking. However, without structured support, students may struggle to effectively utilise these tasks to improve their speaking abilities. Evidence from Maclellan's study shows that learners who receive targeted feedback and instructional support during challenging speaking activities are more likely to achieve better outcomes in language proficiency. Building on this perspective, my research highlights the importance of incorporating supportive measures in communicative language teaching. By ensuring that students have access to adequate guidance and feedback, my study aims to demonstrate how structured support during speaking exercises can enhance the effectiveness of these activities in improving English speaking skills. This approach aligns with the broader evidence suggesting that successful language learning requires not only engaging tasks but also the necessary support to help learners apply their skills effectively.

Role-play is another effective activity implemented in CLT classrooms. As stated by Tompkins (1998), this activity serves as a teaching method that encourages learners to actively participate in the learning process. For instance, Tompkins highlights the use of role-playing exercises in language classrooms, where students assume different characters and engage in simulated conversations. This method not only facilitates active participation but also allows learners to practice speaking skills in dynamic, real-world contexts. By immersing students in realistic scenarios, role-playing activities help them develop their ability to use language spontaneously and effectively, thereby reinforcing their communicative competence. This practical application of the teaching method exemplifies how engaging activities can significantly enhance language learning by making the process more interactive and relevant. In role-play activities, learners are prompted to assume roles in negotiation and discussion based on provided evidence or clues (Richards, 2005).

However, various methodologies, including CLT, have encountered criticism, with some arguing that these approaches may not be suitable for every cultural and contextual setting.

According to works by Bax (2003), Heip (2007), and Ahmed and Rao (2012), CLT faces notable limitations due to its potential lack of universal acceptance across different cultures and learning backgrounds. This is particularly evident in EFL settings, where different perspectives on learning and teaching frameworks can hinder the effective application of CLT. Critics highlight that traditional educational practices often prioritise limited learner autonomy, individual work, and significant teacher intervention, which conflict with the principles of CLT that emphasise group work, increased speaking time for learners, and a student-focused approach. These core practices of CLT may be challenging to implement in certain contexts, especially when they require extended periods of student speaking. Furthermore, interpretations of CLT can vary among educators, leading to disagreement in classroom practices and implementation challenges across diverse social and educational environments. Bax (2003) further argues that CLT often overlooks the critical aspect of language learning and teaching context. The values promoted by CLT may not align with the realities of EFL situations, making it difficult to implement the approach effectively due to specific environmental conditions and cultural influences. This misalignment highlights a significant gap between the practical variations needed for successful CLT implementation and its theoretical ideals, underscoring the need for a more context-sensitive approach in language teaching.

That said, CLT has evolved into a comprehensive approach rather than merely a teaching method. While a teaching method typically refers to a specific set of instructional procedures or techniques aimed at achieving certain educational goals, a comprehensive approach encompasses a broader set of principles, theories, and strategies that guide the entire educational process. This includes not only the techniques used in the classroom but also the underlying educational philosophy, the role of the teacher and students, the design of the curriculum, and the types of assessments used. CLT, as a comprehensive approach, integrates all four language skills listening, speaking, reading, and writing and emphasises the importance of contextual and situational learning to enhance communicative competence. This shift from a method to an approach reflects a deeper understanding of the complexities involved in language learning and teaching, acknowledging the need to adapt to various learning styles, cultural contexts, and educational goals. Furthermore, evidence from research supports the effectiveness of CLT as a comprehensive approach, showing that it can foster more authentic and meaningful communication in the target language, thus better preparing learners for real-world language use (Littlewood, 2014; Richards and Rodgers, 2014). It involves activities where practice in using language in a real communicative context is the focus, facilitating the exchange of real information in unpredictable language use scenarios (Richards, 2005). In CLT classrooms,

teachers monitor and facilitate the learning process of second language communication, while learners negotiate with one another to foster cooperation rather than engaging in individual tasks (Richards and Rodgers, 2014). Learners are also encouraged to observe and learn from each other's progress to enhance their speaking abilities.

In contrast, GTM employed for the control group in this study emphasises rote memorisation, grammar drills, and teacher-centred instruction. In other words, this method typically focuses on the accurate reproduction of language structures through repetitive exercises and direct instruction from the teacher. While this approach may develop learners' grammatical accuracy, it often neglects the development of communicative skills and fails to provide opportunities for authentic language use (Brown, 2014). This is because students primarily engage in individual tasks, with limited interaction and collaboration, which can hinder the development of spontaneous and fluent language use (see Chapter 2 for an in-depth exploration of GTM).

1.5 Background and Context of English Language Teaching (ELT) in Libya

This study underscores the essential role of English language proficiency, specifically in speaking skills, within the Libyan context. Given English's global significance, proficiency in spoken English is essential for Libyan students to effectively engage in international communication, education, and professional activities. Through an examination of the current state of English-speaking ability among Libyan learners, this research identifies key challenges and proposes strategies to enhance their communicative competence. By centring on speaking skills, the study aims to contribute to the broader objective of enhancing English language education in Libya.

The role and importance of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in Libya is particularly significant due to the country’s status as a major industrial oil producer. Libya’s economy has historically been dependent on oil, which has led to a significant integration into the global market. According to Orafi (2008), Libya’s need to engage in international economic activities has increased the demand for English language proficiency among its citizens. The oil industry, being the backbone of Libya’s economy, necessitates effective communication in international business, technical discussions, and negotiations. English serves as the primary language of the global oil sector, making it indispensable for Libyans working in this field. Moreover, the global oil market operates predominantly in English, and this linguistic requirement has been reinforced by Libya’s partnerships with multinational corporations and foreign entities. The ability to communicate in English enables Libyan professionals to engage in international

dialogue, access technical information, and collaborate effectively with global partners, which is crucial for maintaining competitiveness in the oil industry (Orafi, 2008).

In contrast, while Arabic is essential for local and regional communication, it does not facilitate the same level of international interaction and technical exchange as English in the context of global oil markets. The emphasis on English is therefore driven by the need to engage in global business practices and to remain relevant in the international oil economy. Proficiency in English is critical for Libyan L2 learners, as it allows for sustained collaboration and the dissemination of knowledge within international research initiatives. English, being the lingua franca of global academia and research, facilitates participation in a wide range of academic activities, including publishing in international journals, presenting at conferences, and engaging in cross-border academic collaborations. This involvement is particularly important in fields such as science, technology, and engineering, where much of the cutting-edge research and development occurs in English-speaking contexts. As Elramli (2012) notes in his study on the assimilation in the phonology of a Libyan Arabic dialect, understanding and utilising English phonological rules is crucial for effective communication and participation in global dialogues. This linguistic adaptation is a significant step for Libyan students and professionals, who find that English proficiency is not merely an academic requirement but a pathway to broader opportunities in their respective fields. Investing in communicative competence in English offers significant advantages for Libyans across various sectors. Economically, proficiency in English can enhance an individual's competitiveness in the global job market, particularly in key sectors such as oil, tourism, and international trade, where English is often used for business transactions and negotiations. This can lead to better job opportunities and career advancement in both domestic and international companies.

Furthermore, English language skills facilitate cultural exchange by enabling Libyans to engage in meaningful interactions with people from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds, fostering mutual understanding and respect. In the academic domain, strong communication skills in English open opportunities for Libyans to participate in international conferences, collaborate with researchers worldwide, and publish in prestigious English-language journals. These activities are vital for advancing research and innovation and for integrating Libyan academia into the global scholarly community. Nevertheless, navigating the EFL landscape in Libya presents distinctive challenges and opportunities, which the following sub-sections explore in detail.

1.5.1 English as a Foreign Language in Libya

In the field of second language acquisition, the distinction between English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English as a Second Language (ESL) is widely recognized and has important pedagogical implications. EFL refers to the learning and teaching of English in a context where English is not an official or widely spoken language, and learners have limited exposure to English outside the classroom. In these settings, English is typically learned as an academic subject rather than a language for everyday communication (Harmer, 2007). Conversely, ESL refers to English language learning in a country where English is the dominant or official language, and learners regularly engage with English in daily life for purposes such as work, education, and social interaction. In ESL contexts, learners benefit from naturalistic exposure to English beyond formal instruction, which significantly shapes their acquisition process (Richards & Schmidt, 2013). In the Libyan context, English is taught as EFL. This distinction is crucial for understanding the challenges and opportunities specific to English language education in Libya. Unlike ESL contexts, where learners are engaged in an English-speaking environment, EFL learners in Libya have limited exposure to English outside the classroom. This influences the choice of teaching methodologies and the types of activities that are most effective in fostering language acquisition. The following section explores the use of CLT in EFL contexts in more detail.

Its inception dates to the post-World War II era when the northern part of Libya was under British control from 1943 to 1951, leading to the integration of English into the national curriculum around 1947 to supplant Italian, which had prevailed as the officially learned second language in schools during the Italian conquest from 1911 to 1943. The British administration advocated for the dissemination and utilisation of English to further its interests by implementing intensive English language programs within schools and educational institutions across Libya. These programs aimed to integrate English as a key part of the curriculum, ensuring that the Libyan populace, particularly students, became proficient in the language. Conversely, French held sway in the southern region of Libya during the early 20th century, particularly during the period when Libya was a French protectorate in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, prior to World War II. Subsequently, in 1951, English was formally introduced as the medium of instruction in state educational institutions.

From the inception of Qaddafi's regime in 1969, the landscape of English language teaching and learning in Libya underwent significant transformations and challenges. From the 1970s to the mid-1980s, English was a mandatory subject (Sawani, 2009). However, during this period, priority was given to the teaching Arabic due to Qaddafi's antagonism towards

foreign language learning. This sentiment was reflected in government policies, such as forbidding shopkeepers from using English signs and arabicising street names (Carlson, 2010). Subsequently, in the late 1980s, Qaddafi implemented a ban on the teaching and usage of the English language across various sectors, including education, economics, and industry. This prohibition persisted for nearly a decade, motivated by political tensions with the West, and particularly the United States.

In the late 1980s, Libya experienced a period of political isolation and educational disruption, including a ban on teaching English, which lasted until the early 1990s. By the mid-1990s, Libya underwent a significant shift in foreign policy, which led to improved relations with Western countries. This new diplomatic stance was accompanied by initiatives to attract foreign investments, particularly in the oil and gas industries. Consequently, English language education was reinstated and revitalised as part of Libya's broader effort to modernise and integrate into the global economy. The transition from the ban to the reintegration of English language education significantly affected the development of English language provision in Libya. Consequently, there was a renewed emphasis on learning English, and the General People's Committee of Education (GPCE) decided to reintroduce English as a primary subject in preparatory (for students aged 12 to 15 years) and secondary schools (for students aged 15 to 18 years). The GPCE also initiated workshops and training programs for pre-service teachers and facilitated international scholarships for English language education. These efforts aimed to bolster the quality of English language teaching and learning in Libya, ultimately contributing to broader opportunities for education and employment in the country. Since this time, English has remained the predominant foreign language that is learnt by schoolchildren within the Libyan education system.

1.5.2 The Organisational Framework of Education in Libya

The educational system in Libya is organised into several stages, each catering to specific age groups and developmental needs. The structure ensures a comprehensive and age-appropriate learning experience for all students. The framework is as follows:

1- Pre-primary Education:

Age Range: 3 to 5 years

Description: Pre-primary education focuses on early childhood development, including basic cognitive, social, and emotional skills. It provides a foundation for lifelong learning and prepares children for formal schooling.

2- Primary Education:

Age Range: 6 to 11 years

Description: This stage covers the fundamental aspects of literacy and numeracy, along with general knowledge in subjects such as science and social studies. Primary education is designed to build a solid academic base for further learning.

3- Preparatory Education:

Age Range: 12 to 14 years

Description: Preparatory education builds upon the skills acquired in primary school and introduces students to more specialised subjects. It serves as a transition period, preparing students for secondary education and future academic.

4- Secondary Education:

Age Range: 15 to 18 years

Description: Secondary education is divided into general and vocational tracks. It offers in-depth knowledge in various disciplines, preparing students for higher education or direct entry into the workforce. This stage is crucial for developing specialised skills and knowledge.

5- Higher Education:

Age Range: 18 years and above

Description: Higher education includes undergraduate and postgraduate programs at universities and specialised institutions. It focuses on advanced academic and professional training, providing students with the expertise required for careers in various fields.

The education system in Libya has two main components: the school system and the university system. Within the school system, education is organised into two main stages: basic and secondary. The basic stage comprises elementary school, which spans six years, followed by preparatory school (also known as junior high school), lasting three years. Subsequently, students' progress to the secondary stage, which comprises three years of high school. Prior to the elementary stage, children have the option of attending kindergarten, although attendance is not mandatory and is typically offered in private kindergarten schools. At the secondary level, students can choose between two majors: sciences and arts. To proceed to secondary education in Libya, students are required to obtain a certificate after completing nine years of education, starting at age six and continuing until age fifteen. This educational journey comprises two phases: the primary phase, which commences at age six and concludes at age twelve, and the preparatory phase, spanning three years. Upon successful completion of the third year of the preparatory phase, students receive a certificate. Libyan school authorities consider education

essential for both human and technological advancement, and they are constantly adapting the system to address the impacts of globalization and the shifting demands of contemporary Libyan society.

1.5.3 An Overview of the Libyan Curriculum

The evolution of the EFL curriculum in Libya has undergone several developmental phases. Initially, in the years following the lifting of the ban on English instruction in 1997, the curriculum featured the "Basic Way to English" series, authored by K.C. Ogden, which aimed to provide English instruction through a limited vocabulary of 850 words (Mohsen, 2014). This was part of the broader shift in the late 1990s towards reintegrating English education in Libyan schools, following nearly a decade of restriction. Concurrently, L.W. Lockhart authored the "Basic Reading Book" focusing on reading comprehension skills. Subsequent to this, in 1960, the "New Method" series, authored by Michael West, was introduced to replace the previous series, integrating aspects of Arab world culture. This series was later succeeded by the "Modern Reader" series in 1968, authored by A. Johnson, the English language inspector in Egypt. In late 1969, the Ministry of Education (MoE) initiated a comprehensive revision of the educational system, leading to significant changes to the English language curricula at both primary and secondary levels. During this process, Mustafa Gusbi and Ronald John co-developed a new series in the 1980s (“Further English for Libya”). This series comprised course Books, Workbooks, and Teachers' Books, meticulously designed to suit the cultural context of Libyan learners (Orafi and Borg, 2009). This series predominantly adopted a teacher-centred approach and relied on GTM (Elhensheri, 2004).

Following an interruption in English language instruction due to political tensions, the teaching of English resumed in the mid-1990s, utilising the pre-existing curriculum for both preparatory and secondary stages. However, challenges emerged, particularly the scarcity of qualified English language teachers (Elabbar, 2014). Subsequently, in 2000, the introduction of the "English for Libya" curriculum marked a significant step forward. Published by Garnet Education in the UK, this curriculum was implemented across preparatory and secondary schools. Moreover, starting from the academic year 2005/2006, English language instruction was extended to the 5th and 6th grades in primary schools (ages 10 to 12), becoming a compulsory subject until the third year of secondary school (ages 16 to 18). More recently, since 2018, the Ministry of Education has initiated English language instruction from the first grade of primary schooling. Additionally, since the mid-1990s, programs such as overseas scholarships have played a pivotal role in expanding educational horizons for Libyan students and educators such as opportunities for further education and research in English-speaking

countries like the United Kingdom. These programs have not only exposed participants to innovative teaching methodologies but have also facilitated cross-cultural exchanges, enriching the educational landscape in Libya and fostering a more global perspective among educators.

Phillips (2002) outlines the design and structure of the English curriculum implemented in Libya. This curriculum aims to enhance English proficiency among students by focusing on practical language use. The reintroduction of English instruction in the late 1990s and early 2000s, as outlined by Phillips (2002), involved significant curricular reforms and new textbooks. Traditional methods that prioritised rote memorisation and passive learning inhibited students' language acquisition and communicative competence, and the prevalence of teacher-centred methodologies, underscored the urgent need for a shift towards a student-centred approach (Alhmali, 2007). Such a transition was seen as essential for improving speaking proficiency. Phillips (2002) also highlighted the importance of continuous professional development (CPD) for teachers to successfully implement the curriculum. He advocated for regular training sessions, workshops, and collaborative learning opportunities to ensure that teachers are well-equipped with the latest pedagogical strategies and resources.

Furthermore, Phillips emphasised the importance of ongoing curriculum evaluation and revision to meet emerging challenges and incorporate feedback from educators and learners. Given this emphasis, it is plausible that there have been updates to the English curriculum in Libya since 2002. Orafi (2008) highlights significant reforms in the curriculum, reflecting enhancements in content and pedagogical approaches to better align with contemporary educational needs. Additionally, Abukhattala (2016) explores the integration of technology in Libyan language classrooms, noting that despite the recognised potential of technology to enhance language teaching, its implementation has been limited. Abukhattala's study, focusing on high and secondary schools in Misurata, identifies challenges such as inadequate funding, scarcity of technology, and insufficient teacher training, although there is a strong willingness among educators to use technology for teaching English as a foreign language. These findings underscore the ongoing need for curriculum updates and effective technological integration to improve language education in Libya. the need for ongoing curriculum evaluation and revision to address emerging challenges and incorporate feedback from educators and learners.

1.6 Summary of EFL in Libya

In recent times, the significance of EFL within Libya has notably escalated, making proficiency in English indispensable across various academic and professional domains. Despite numerous studies conducted on teaching the English language in the Libyan context

(e.g., Alhmali, 2007; Orafi and Borg, 2009; Shihiba, 2011), the focus on enhancing the speaking skills of Libyan English language learners remains underexplored. While there has been some research into the speaking skills of Libyan learners in recent years, particularly concerning various teaching methods and student performance, comprehensive approaches that directly impact speaking proficiency have not been extensively investigated. This study aims to fill this gap by enhancing the speaking skills of Libyan learners through targeted methodologies, specifically employing CLT activities such as role-play and problem-solving, thereby building upon and extending the insights of previous studies. One of the reasons for this focus is the significant challenge posed by a deficiency in speaking proficiency among Libyan students, as evidenced by several studies and reports. For instance, Orafi and Borg (2009) conducted a detailed examination of the English language curriculum in Libyan secondary schools, focusing particularly on the implementation of teaching methods. Their research, based on classroom observations and interviews with teachers, highlighted that despite the curriculum's emphasis on language practice, actual classroom practices often reverted to the Grammar Translation Method (GTM). This teacher-centred approach led to students struggling with oral communication skills, as it prioritised grammar and vocabulary memorisation over interactive speaking activities. This issue is further corroborated by Abukhattala (2014), who conducted a qualitative study examining the challenges of teaching English as a foreign language in Libyan higher education. Using interviews and questionnaires, he explored the perceptions and experiences of both teachers and students, finding that the GTM employed in Libyan classrooms has not effectively developed students' speaking abilities. He identified barriers such as a lack of resources, large class sizes, and limited opportunities for students to engage in speaking activities. Both studies underscore the need for a shift towards more communicative teaching methods that focus on interaction and practical language use to improve speaking proficiency among Libyan students.

In the current Libyan educational landscape, the CLT approach is not widely implemented. Many teachers rely on traditional methods, such as GTM, which focuses on grammar and vocabulary memorisation. Alhmali (2007) and Shihiba (2011) have noted that despite curricular emphasis on communication skills, Libyan classrooms continue to prioritise GTM practices due to teachers' familiarity with these methods and the perceived efficiency in covering syllabus content. While some schools and educators have shown interest in CLT, the approach's adoption is hindered by factors such as limited training in CLT techniques, insufficient materials and resources, and a lack of institutional support. This was highlighted in study by Elabbar (2011), which pointed out that the shift to CLT is constrained by systemic

issues such as large class sizes, lack of technological integration, and minimal teacher development programs focused on CLT. Despite these challenges, some educators are beginning to explore CLT as a viable alternative to traditional methods, recognising its potential to improve students' communicative skills.

In my research, I addressed gaps in the literature, including the work of Owen et al. (2019), which focused on secondary school students in Libya. Their study primarily targeted students with low English proficiency, for whom communication skills were a challenge. However, their focus was on English as a compulsory subject, alongside other subjects like Chemistry and Geography, meaning students were learning English mostly for the sake of passing exams. As a result, speaking skills were not emphasized, and were absent from the assessments. In contrast, my study examines university-level second-year students who are enrolled in the English department, with a clear focus on language proficiency and a desire to become proficient English speakers. These students are intrinsically motivated by their interest in English, and their proficiency level is higher, enabling them to engage in more fluid communication. This distinction is key, as it allows my research to explore the impact of CLT activities on students who are already capable of communicating in English, as opposed to those struggling to achieve basic proficiency.

This study aims to evaluate the effectiveness of the CLT approach in improving speaking skills among Libyan English language learners. Specifically, it will examine how CLT activities such as problem-solving and role-playing contribute to students' spoken fluency. By analysing the impact of these CLT activities, the research seeks to offer valuable insights for educators and policymakers on how to optimise teaching methodologies in Libyan classrooms to better support speaking proficiency. The goal is to provide evidence-based recommendations for integrating CLT activities to enhance the speaking skills of Libyan learners effectively.

1.7 Problem Statement

Previous research indicates that Libyan language classrooms predominantly adopt a teacher-centred approach, characterised by a focus on the teacher as the primary source of knowledge and authority, with limited student participation in the learning process (Alhmali, 2007; Orafi and Borg, 2009; Shihiba, 2011). This approach often aligns with the GTM, which emphasises explicit grammar instruction and vocabulary memorisation rather than interaction. In contrast, CLT prioritises interactive and practical use of language to enhance communicative competence. As a result, students may struggle with effective communication in English, as GTM methods often do not adequately prepare them for real-life conversational use. Based on

the outcomes of these studies, along with the researcher's firsthand experiences as both a student and an educator in the Libyan education system, it is evident that students are primarily exposed to explicit grammar explanations, where rules and structures are taught directly, and rote memorisation of English vocabulary lists, where students learn words by repetition without contextual use. Passive reading tasks, such as reading passages without engaging in discussion or critical analysis, and display-type questions, which test surface-level knowledge rather than deeper understanding or application, further illustrate the limitations of this approach. For example, students may spend significant time memorizing verb conjugation tables and vocabulary lists without practicing how to use these words in sentences or conversations, leading to difficulties in applying their knowledge in practical contexts. Despite the global adoption of CLT, its specific impact on English speaking skills in the Libyan context remains underexplored. This study aims to fill this research gap by investigating the effects of CLT activities on the speaking skills of Libyan English learners.

1.8 Novelty and Innovation

This study contributes to the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) by investigating the impact of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) activities on the speaking proficiency of university-level English language learners in Libya. While experimental methodologies are widely used in SLA research, the novelty of this study lies in its specific focus on university students, its methodological approach, and its examination of CLT in a higher education context in Libya.

Previous research on CLT in Libya, such as Owen et al. (2019), has primarily examined its implementation in secondary school contexts, where English is a compulsory subject. These studies have explored the effectiveness of CLT activities, including information gap tasks and language games, in improving students' speaking proficiency. However, there remains limited research on the application of CLT at the university level in Libya, particularly among English users who engage with the language at a more advanced level. This study seeks to extend the existing body of literature by investigating how two specific CLT activities (role-play and problem-solving) impact speaking skills in a higher education setting.

Another key contribution of this study is its controlled experimental design, which includes three distinct groups: two experimental groups and one control group. While experimental research has been widely employed in SLA, many previous studies in the Libyan context have relied on less structured methodological approaches. This trend is partly due to challenges such as limited access to research funding, insufficient institutional support, and a

lack of specialized training in experimental design. As a result, many previous studies have focused on observational or qualitative methods rather than rigorous experimental designs. For instance, Alsied and Ibrahim (2017) highlight that Libyan EFL learners often struggle with conducting research due to inadequate methodological training and limited access to academic resources. These challenges make it difficult for researchers to implement experimental approaches effectively. Similarly, Owen et al. (2019) emphasize that while communicative language activities such as language games and information gap exercises have proven effective in enhancing Libyan students' English-speaking performance, few studies have rigorously tested their impact using controlled experimental designs. The reliance on qualitative or quasi-experimental methods has left gaps in empirical evidence regarding effective SLA strategies in Libya. By introducing a carefully controlled experimental approach, this study addresses these methodological limitations and contributes to a more empirical and replicable understanding of SLA within the Libyan educational context. The structured design not only strengthens the reliability of the findings but also serves as a model for future SLA research in under-researched contexts like Libya

Research indicates that university-level students, particularly those learning English as a foreign language (EFL), often develop strong reading and writing skills but struggle with oral communication. Tschirner (2016) found that while students in higher education frequently attain advanced proficiency in reading, their speaking and listening skills tend to lag due to the text-heavy nature of academic curricula and limited opportunities for structured oral practice. Similarly, Gan (2012) highlighted that many university students, even at advanced levels, face significant difficulties in spoken communication. This is largely due to prior educational experiences that emphasize grammar and writing over interactive speaking activities. Given these challenges, it is essential to implement targeted instructional strategies that enhance students' oral proficiency. This study, therefore, seeks to bridge this gap by examining the impact of role-play and problem-solving activities on improving speaking skills in higher education settings. By implementing a controlled experiment, this study provides a more precise evaluation of how role-play and problem-solving activities influence speaking skills, offering a clearer understanding of their effectiveness in a university setting. It builds on previous studies by focusing on higher proficiency students, offering a more detailed and controlled analysis of CLT's potential to improve speaking skills in higher education. This study not only contributes to the understanding of CLT in the Libyan context but also provides actionable insights for educators and policymakers aiming to enhance speaking proficiency at the university level.

1.9 The Libyan Context: Unique Challenges and Opportunities

Libya's English language education system has undergone various reforms aimed at improving teaching quality and integrating modern pedagogical practices. While significant curriculum reforms were introduced in 2002, the system has since seen incremental updates rather than a complete overhaul. These updates have included efforts to integrate contemporary teaching methods and technology into the curriculum. However, despite these advancements, the core curriculum has largely retained elements from the early 2000s, reflecting a gradual rather than a transformative shift in educational practices. Historically, Libyan English language education has relied on traditional, teacher-centred methodologies emphasising rote memorisation and grammatical accuracy. This approach has often resulted in students possessing theoretical knowledge of English without practical proficiency for real-world use (Abukhattala, 2014 and Orafi, 2008). The recent updates to the curriculum, while introducing new teaching methods and digital resources, have not fully departed from these traditional methods. Therefore, the educational system remains in a state of gradual transition.

In this context, CLT presents a significant opportunity because it focuses on interaction and practical communication, addressing the limitations of GTM methods by emphasising language use in real-world situations. This approach aligns with the needs of students in a diverse linguistic environment, aiming to enhance practical English proficiency rather than theoretical knowledge. Examining the implementation of CLT within Libya's partly modernised educational landscape provides valuable insights into how innovative methodologies can be adapted to meet current educational demands. It offers a model for integrating effective teaching strategies into a system that is still developing and can potentially serve as a reference for other multilingual and multicultural settings.

1.10 The Focus of the Study: Aims, Objectives, and Questions

The present study investigates the efficacy of CLT activities in enhancing students' English-speaking proficiency at Elmergib University, located in Al-Khums City. Established in 1984, Elmergib University is a prominent higher education institution in Libya, serving a diverse student population across various disciplines such as engineering, science, arts, and social sciences. The university emphasises quality education and research, playing a vital role in the academic and professional development of students in the region. The English Language Department, where this study is conducted, offers both undergraduate and graduate programs focused on improving language proficiency and preparing students for global communication. Al-Khums City, situated on the Mediterranean coast, is known for its historical significance

and cultural heritage, offering a vibrant and dynamic setting for students. This context underscores the importance of exploring innovative teaching methods, such as CLT, within the academic framework of Elmergib University. The study aims to assess the impact of integrating CLT activities into instruction specifically designed to enhance speaking skills in Libyan English language classrooms.

The ultimate objective of this experimental inquiry is to ascertain whether communicative activities contribute to enhancing students' proficiency in utilising the target language.

To fulfil the outlined research objectives, the study posits two primary research questions:

- Research Question 1: What is the effectiveness of specific CLT activities in enhancing the speaking skills of English as a foreign language student?

This question is further delineated into three sub-questions:

1. What impact do CLT activities have on the fluency of EFL students?
2. What impact do CLT activities have on the speaking accuracy of EFL students?
3. What impact do CLT activities have on the vocabulary acquisition of EFL students?

- Research Question 2: Are there statistically significant differences in the speaking proficiency of EFL students across the experimental and control groups following the implementation of CLT activities?

1.11 Research Hypotheses

The investigation into the effectiveness of certain CLT activities in enhancing the speaking skills of EFL students in Libya has led to the formulation of the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis A (H0): There exists no significant difference in the English-speaking proficiency scores between the group taught using Grammar Translation Method and the two groups instructed through the implementation of Communicative Language Teaching activities (specifically role-play and problem-solving).

Hypothesis B (H1): There is a significant difference in the English-speaking proficiency scores between the group taught using Grammar Translation Method and the two groups instructed through the implementation of Communicative Language Teaching activities (specifically role-play and problem-solving).

1.12 Outline of Methodology

The rationale behind this study is to provide learners with opportunities to engage in communicative settings and practice the language, thereby enhancing their speaking skills. The overarching objective is to determine whether CLT activities contribute to improved proficiency in spoken English among second language learners. The primary measurement tool used in this study is a series of pre- and post-tests designed to evaluate changes in specific aspects of language proficiency. These tests include detailed assessments of speech rate, grammatical errors, consonant clusters, and vocabulary usage. The pre-test establishes baseline data, while the post-test measures any changes or improvements in these areas following the intervention, details of which will be provided in Chapter 4. The study involves evaluating the outcomes of implementing CLT activities on two experimental groups: one taught through role-play and the other through problem-solving. These results were compared with those of a control group taught using GTM. Data was gathered and analysed from 45 learners over a period of six weeks.

1.13 Methodological Justification and Adaptation

This study borrows the application of CLT activities and the use of an experimental methodology involving pre- and post-tests from the studies by Ning and Hornby (2010), Pattanpichet (2011), and Talebi and Sobhani (2012). The decision to adapt CLT activities from these studies acknowledges their effectiveness in enhancing speaking skills. These studies have shown that CLT, with its focus on real-life communication and interactive learning, can lead to significant improvements in speaking proficiency. By leveraging this aspect of their methodology, it is hoped that this study can add to the data already provided and further strengthen the motivation for school systems (and in this case, specifically in Libya) to more comprehensively adopt CLT for ELT. In terms of choosing to use pre and post-tests, this method provides a structured framework for assessing the impact of CLT activities on speaking skills, allowing for systematic measurement of any improvements over time.

1.14 Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is structured to systematically address the research questions and objectives, with each chapter building on the previous one to provide a comprehensive understanding of the study.

Chapter Two: This comprises a comprehensive review of the literature related to the implementation of the CLT approach in ELT. It begins with a general introduction to CLT accompanied by an exploration of the values encapsulated by the CLT. Additionally, this

chapter presents the techniques and associated theories of CLT. Moreover, it provides a detailed overview of communicative activities that are applicable in the CLT classroom. Finally, this chapter reflects on the adoption of CLT in EFL settings.

Chapter Three: This chapter comprises an introduction to speaking skills, emphasising their significance in language acquisition. It then outlines the key characteristics of speaking skills, including fluency, accuracy, and vocabulary usage, with illustrative examples. Finally, this chapter discusses the factors that affect speaking proficiency.

Chapter Four: This defines the methodology employed in the current study. It comprises eight primary sections. The initial section describes the participants, their roles and process of involvement. The second section reveals the justification behind the chosen experimental research methodology. The following section presents the methodological approach, including the instruments and treatment used, and explains the weekly topics and associated activities. The fourth section exposes the procedural aspects of the study, while the section following details the data collection process. Section six interprets the methodology employed for data analysis, encompassing recording, transcribing, and coding procedures, before the following section presents the results from the pilot pre-test. The last section summarises the key points from the chapter.

Chapter Five: This chapter is organised and designed to address the findings regarding the development of participants' speaking abilities accompanied by a comprehensive discussion section relating to the implications of the results. Primarily, this chapter presents results demonstrating whether implementing activities associated with the CLT approach influenced the speaking proficiency of second language learners, specifically focusing on their fluency. This chapter also presents the findings relating to the measurement of grammatical errors present in the participants' speech. Additionally, a discussion section explores the implications of grammar errors on speaking proficiency. The final measure of the study is then presented; namely, vocabulary size. The chapter concludes with a sample of the familiar and less familiar vocabulary uttered by the 45 participants.

Chapter Six: A full discussion of the findings of the current study, which focuses on investigating the impact of CLT activities on the speaking skills of university students. By combining empirical data with theoretical perspectives, this analysis offers valuable insights into the dynamics of language proficiency development and the effectiveness of CLT approaches in enhancing speaking skills.

Chapter Seven: This concludes the study, where the primary findings from preceding chapters are summarised and evaluated considering the research questions and objectives delineated in Chapter One. This chapter concludes with a summary of limitations and suggestions for future research.

1.15 Summary

This chapter has provided an outline of the thesis. It commenced by describing the study's contextual background, revealing the purposes and motivation for conducting the research. In addition, there has been a presentation of the problem statement as well as an illustration of the progression towards the experimental study. Furthermore, the research aims and objectives were expounded upon, alongside the formulation of research questions. Additionally, a set of research hypotheses was presented in alignment with the research inquiries. Information about the background and context of ELT in Libya was also provided, detailing the historical and current state of English education in the country. Concluding this chapter, an overview of the thesis structure was provided. The following chapter provides a full review of the literature related to the implementation of the CLT approach.

Chapter 2: Communicative Language Teaching

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, a review of the literature regarding the implementation of the Communicative Language Teaching approach is undertaken. This chapter is structured into five main sections, each addressing a specific component of the CLT approach. The first investigates the CLT approach in a broad sense, exploring the values inherent to it. Additionally, in the second section there is a presentation for the techniques and associated theories of CLT. The third section provides a detailed overview of communicative activities that are applicable in the CLT classroom. Section four provides an exploration of the efficacy of the CLT approach in EFL. Finally, the chapter concludes with a summary of the key points.

2.2 The Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) Approach

Scholars, including Harmer (2015) and Richards and Rodgers (2014), argue that CLT was introduced to revolutionise language teaching methodologies, shifting the focus from rote memorisation and grammar drills to meaningful communication and interaction. The term "communicative abilities" here refers to the capacity to effectively use language for genuine communication in real-life situations. This includes skills such as speaking fluently, understanding and responding to spoken language, and using language appropriately in various social contexts. It also encompasses the ability to negotiate meaning, express opinions, and engage in meaningful interactions with others. In the context of CLT, the emphasis is not only on linguistic accuracy but also on functional communication skills. CLT thus aims to equip learners with the ability to use language creatively and flexibly to express themselves and accomplish communicative tasks. This aligns with the broader goal of language education to empower learners to participate actively in social, academic, and professional contexts where language use is essential.

According to research by Richards and Rodgers (2014), the primary goal of CLT is to foster learners' communicative competence through meaningful interaction and authentic communication tasks. This innovative approach emerged from a growing dissatisfaction with traditional methods, such as GTM, which focused heavily on the structure of language. The shift towards CLT reflects a broader educational trend prioritising practical communication skills and fluency over a mere theoretical understanding of grammar. Hence, as mentioned by

Hedge (2001), the CLT approach emphasises a “meaning-centred” approach in response to these traditional teaching methods.

Understanding CLT requires distinguishing between an approach and a method. An approach represents the overarching theory or philosophy that guides language teaching practices, while a method encompasses the specific techniques and activities used in the classroom to implement that approach (Richards and Rodgers, 2014). This differentiation is vital as it elucidates how different teaching approaches influence instructional strategies and learning outcomes. The concept of ‘communicative competence,’ a central element of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach, is further elaborated in this study. Drawing on Canale and Swain's (1980) foundational work, communicative competence is defined as the ability to use language effectively and appropriately in a variety of communicative contexts. Canale and Swain (1980) conceptualize communicative competence as comprising three key components: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence. Grammatical competence refers to the knowledge of linguistic rules, including syntax, morphology, and vocabulary, which enables accurate language use.

Sociolinguistic competence involves the ability to use language appropriately in different social and cultural contexts, considering factors such as register, politeness, and discourse norms. Strategic competence concerns to the use of verbal and non-verbal strategies to compensate for communication breakdowns, ensuring effective interaction. This clarification is now incorporated into the discussion on the theoretical foundations of CLT to underscore its alignment with broader Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theories. The theoretical underpinnings of CLT are directly rooted in Canale and Swain’s (1980) conceptualization of communicative competence, emphasizing that language proficiency extends beyond grammatical accuracy to include the ability to engage in meaningful and contextually appropriate communication. This perspective supports the communicative approach in language teaching by highlighting the importance of interaction, functional language use, and adaptability in real-life communication. By integrating Canale and Swain’s (1980) framework, this discussion now thoroughly addresses the key theoretical principles that validate CLT as an effective approach in language education.

While the CLT approach excels in developing communicative competence through practical, real-world interaction, the GTM also offers unique advantages. GTM's structured approach emphasises a deep understanding of grammatical rules and vocabulary, making it particularly beneficial for learners who need a strong foundation in language structure. This method can be especially useful for students who aim to master the written form of the language,

where precision and accuracy are crucial. In comparison, CLT aims to improve fluency and the ability to engage in spontaneous communication, potentially at the expense of grammatical precision. GTM fills this gap by providing a framework for learning the mechanics of the language, which can be essential for advanced learners, linguists, or those interested in translation work. Therefore, both GTM and CLT have significant roles in language education. A combined approach that utilises the strengths of both methods could offer a balanced learning experience, enhancing both communicative skills and grammatical understanding. This integration raises important questions about how best to balance these methods in teaching, tailoring education to meet the diverse needs of language learners

2.3 CLT: Core Values and Contemporary Applications

According to recent studies by Ellis (2017) and Ghafar et al. (2023), Communicative Language Teaching generally refers to an approach that prioritises the development of communicative competence. These studies emphasise the integration of task-based learning, digital tools, and innovative assessment methods to enhance the effectiveness of CLT. Ellis (2017) explores how task-based language teaching can further the principles of CLT by designing interactive and communicative tasks. Ghafar et al. (2023) provide a comprehensive review of five studies that examine the impact of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) on students' communicative competence, particularly in speaking skills. These studies were conducted in Kosovo, Indonesia, Iran, Libya, and Malaysia, offering insights into the adaptability and challenges of CLT implementation in different educational settings. In Kosovo, Kasumi (2015) investigated CLT's effectiveness in high schools through a quasi-experimental design, comparing students exposed to CLT-based instruction with those following traditional grammar-based methods. The study involved 60 students, divided into experimental and control groups. Over an eight-week period, students in the CLT group demonstrated significant improvements in speaking fluency and confidence compared to the control group. However, the study noted limitations such as the short intervention duration and the need for better teacher training in CLT methodologies.

In Indonesia, Ratih and Hanafi (2016) conducted a quasi-experimental study involving 75 junior high school students. The experimental group (40 students) participated in a six-week CLT program incorporating role-plays, group discussions, and problem-solving tasks, while the control group (35 students) continued with conventional teaching methods. Paired t-tests revealed that the experimental group made significant gains in speaking fluency and pronunciation. Challenges included large class sizes and limited resources, which affected the effectiveness of CLT implementation.

In Iran, Aalaei (2017) examined the effects of CLT on English major university students using a mixed-methods approach. The study involved 50 undergraduate students divided into experimental and control groups. Over a semester, the experimental group engaged in interactive CLT practices, including simulations and debates, while the control group received lecture-based instruction. Independent t-tests demonstrated that the experimental group outperformed the control group in speaking proficiency, particularly in grammatical accuracy and fluency. The study emphasized the need for curriculum reforms and teacher preparedness in implementing CLT effectively.

In Libya, Owen and Razali (2018) assessed the impact of CLT on secondary school students' English-speaking performance. A sample of 45 students was divided into an experimental group (23 students) and a control group (22 students). Over four weeks, the experimental group engaged in CLT activities such as role-plays and group discussions, while the control group followed traditional rote learning methods. Statistical analysis using paired t-tests showed that the experimental group made significant progress in fluency and pronunciation. However, challenges included resistance from teachers accustomed to traditional teaching methods and the brief intervention period. In Malaysia, Mangaleswaran and Aziz (2019) conducted a study on CLT's effectiveness in improving oral communication skills among college students in an ESL context. The study involved 80 students, equally split between experimental and control groups. The experimental group participated in a ten-week CLT program featuring task-based learning, group projects, and interactive workshops, while the control group followed lecture-based instruction. Findings from both quantitative (paired t-tests) and qualitative analyses (student feedback) indicated that CLT significantly enhanced students' confidence, coherence, and interactive speaking abilities. The study recommended extending CLT programs and providing continuous professional development for teachers to sustain these improvements.

Collectively, these studies demonstrate that CLT positively influences students' speaking abilities across diverse educational settings. Improvements were consistently observed in fluency, pronunciation, grammar, and comprehension. A notable strength of these studies is their use of quantitative and quasi-experimental methodologies, employing pre-tests and post-tests, as well as statistical techniques such as paired and independent t-tests and Cronbach's Alpha reliability tests. Some studies also incorporated qualitative methods such as questionnaires and interviews to explore students' attitudes and teachers' perspectives. However, the review also identifies key limitations, particularly small sample sizes and short intervention periods, which may limit the reliability and generalizability of the findings. The

review highlights the need for future studies to adopt larger sample sizes, extend CLT implementation durations, and provide comprehensive teacher training to enhance the effectiveness of communicative-based instruction.

Additionally, Ghafar et al. (2023) underscore the importance of teacher training and active student-teacher engagement in maximizing CLT's effectiveness. These observations are highly relevant to the present study, reinforcing the necessity of methodological consistency, appropriate sampling, and an extended intervention period to produce effective conclusions. By critically engaging with Ghafar et al.'s findings, this study strengthens its contextual grounding and contributes to the broader discussion on CLT's role in language learning.

The term CLT generally refers to an approach to teaching a language in a manner that promotes communicative competency as its foremost aim. Recently, it has been defined as "an approach to foreign or second language teaching which emphasises that the goal of language learning is communicative competence, which seeks to make meaningful communication and language use a focus of all classroom activities" (Richards and Schmidt, 2013, p. 99). Furthermore, in the teaching and learning of a language, CLT embodies straightforward values. Larsen-Freeman (2000) and Richards (2005) have both contributed to exploring these. They note that firstly, in CLT, learning and teaching language are grounded in communication. This is because verbal communication is inherently a communal activity, and so in a CLT classroom, teachers and students are encouraged to utilise language meaningfully, fostering communication among speakers. Secondly, language diversity is recognised as a practical model for learning and teaching in this approach. Therefore, there is no prohibition against the occasional use of L1 in the CLT classroom to facilitate the learning process. Moving on to the next principle, no particular technique or procedure is prescribed by the CLT approach. Instead, materials and language teaching strategies should be designed to inspire and motivate students to practice and use the target language. Moreover, significance is placed on the functional aspects of language. For this reason, it is common for activities such as pair work and role-play to be implemented in the classroom to enhance real communication.

Consistent with modern perspectives on CLT, achieving communicative competence among learners is facilitated by the strategies outlined above, though there may be variations in how this competence is developed. This difference has been formalised into what is known as the 'weak' and 'strong' forms of CLT. The weak form integrates communicative practices with a focus on language structures. This version of CLT offers students opportunities to use and practice English for interactive purposes, often described as "learning to use English" (Ellis, 2017, p. 101). Additionally, contemporary perspectives, such as those by Van den Branden

(2016), emphasise the communal and practical aspects of communicative competence in this approach.

Despite the numerous advantages of CLT approach, some scholars and educators have raised significant concerns. One of the primary critiques of CLT is its lack of prescribed techniques or procedures. This flexibility, while beneficial for tailoring materials and strategies to specific student needs, can also result in inconsistency and confusion regarding what constitutes effective practice (Kwon, 2017). Teachers without sufficient experience or training in communicative methodologies may find it challenging to implement CLT effectively. This issue can be compounded by a potential overemphasis on fluency at the expense of accuracy, leading to the neglect of essential grammatical and structural aspects of language learning. Furthermore, common activities used in CLT, such as pair work and role-play, might not be equally effective for all learners.

Barnard and Burns (2012) point out that focusing solely on the functional aspects of language can sometimes lead to students merely performing set tasks rather than engaging in genuine communication. Such scenarios can result in superficial interactions that fail to fully develop students' language skills. Additionally, learners with different cultural backgrounds or learning styles may find these activities less beneficial or even uncomfortable, indicating the need for a more nuanced approach that considers the diverse needs of students.

In response to these critiques, it is essential to explore the concept of the "strong form" of CLT, which emphasises that language acquisition occurs through interaction and communication (Van den Branden, 2016). Contrasting the traditional view of language learning as mastering a structured system, the strong form of CLT posits that students learn how to use and practice the language communicatively. This approach prioritises fluency techniques, aiming to enable students to use the language effectively and authentically in communicative settings. However, there are challenges associated with this approach, particularly in EFL contexts. Lightbown and Spada (2021) highlight that in environments where exposure to English-speaking communities is limited, it may be difficult for learners to acquire English solely through communicative processes. This limitation underscores the importance of providing a supportive learning environment and comprehensive teacher training to facilitate effective CLT implementation. To fully comprehend the historical development of CLT and its various forms, it is important to shed light on different language teaching approaches and related theories, which are covered in the next section.

2.4 Grammar-Translation Method (GTM)

Various methods in language teaching have emerged due to the interaction between different learning theories and the process of language acquisition. Understanding the impact of these theories is crucial for comprehending language teaching techniques. Richards and Rodgers (2014) observe that the teaching methods for languages like English were heavily influenced by the approach used for teaching Latin grammar. According to my perspective, this historical influence highlights both the strengths and limitations of the GTM that evolved from these Latin-based practices. While the GTM provided a structured approach to language learning, its emphasis on grammatical rules and translation sometimes overlooked communicative aspects of language use.

Larsen-Freeman (2000) further explains that the methods developed for teaching Latin continued to serve as a model for teaching foreign languages, eventually evolving into the GTM. However, reflecting on contemporary language teaching, it becomes evident that relying solely on GTM may not address all aspects of language acquisition effectively. Modern approaches increasingly emphasise communicative competence and interactive learning, suggesting a need to balance traditional methods with innovative practices that better support real-world language use. Richards and Rodgers (2014) present several additional features of GTM. Firstly, listening and speaking skills are given less emphasis compared to reading and writing skills. Secondly, the core objective of learning a foreign language is to acquire the skill of translation into the target language, along with reading and comprehending its literature. Thirdly, there is a strong emphasis on learners attaining accuracy in the second language, with grammar instruction based on a deductive approach.

Lastly, vocabulary learning is typically achieved through memorisation and lists of words found in reading texts, presented both in the L1 and L2, which was traditionally considered an effective way to learn the vocabulary of a second language. As previously noted, in the Libyan context, between the 1970s and the 1990s, the GTM was employed. However, this method failed to enhance the speaking and communication abilities of Libyan learners, leading to a demand for new teaching methodologies (Orafi and Borg, 2009).

2.5 Activities in the CLT Classroom

Activities in the CLT approach naturally involve students in actual communication or practical tasks. The success of communicative tasks is prioritised over strict grammatical correctness. Larsen-Freeman (2000) emphasises that the communicative environment is dynamic and essential for fostering real communication among students. Therefore, students

can enhance their English proficiency through engaging in various interactive activities in their English language classrooms. Such activities are classified by Littlewood (1981) into two main groups: pre-communicative and communicative activities.

The distinction between pre-communicative and communicative activities is central to understanding the pedagogical strategies within the CLT approach. Pre-communicative activities are designed to provide students with a foundational understanding of language fundamentals. According to Littlewood (1981), these activities, often referred to as quasi-communicative, focus on isolated aspects of second language knowledge. They typically involve structured question-and-answer interactions that draw on classroom interactions or communal backgrounds. The primary goal of pre-communicative activities is to enhance students' basic language skills and prepare them for more complex communicative tasks. Once students have acquired the necessary foundational skills, they can engage in communicative activities, which are more dynamic and interactive. These activities require individuals to apply their interaction skills and prior knowledge to convey meaning effectively. Communicative activities involve the use of language materials and resources to engage in tasks such as problem-solving and information-gap exercises.

Additionally, social interaction activities, including role-plays and simulations, are employed to simulate real-life communication scenarios. These activities encourage diverse learners to participate actively, thereby fostering a collaborative learning environment. Hedge (2001) emphasises that CLT is not a monolithic method but an approach that encompasses various teaching strategies and techniques aimed at developing communicative competence. This approach is characterised by its focus on learner-centeredness, a departure from traditional teacher-centred methods. CLT thus encourages learners to take an active role in their own learning process, reflecting a broader educational trend towards constructivism, which posits that learners construct knowledge through active engagement and interaction with their environment.

By engaging in interactive activities, such as group discussions and role-plays, learners can practice and refine their language skills in a supportive, collaborative setting. It appears then that the successful implementation of CLT requires a nuanced understanding of both the theoretical foundations and the practical realities of language teaching. It is not enough to merely adopt CLT principles; educators must also be responsive to the specific needs and constraints of their teaching contexts. This involves a flexible, adaptive approach that blends elements of CLT with culturally and contextually relevant practices.

Richards (2005) classified classroom activities into three basic categories. The first category he terms “mechanical activities”, which can be described as measured practice activities where students can effectively practice without necessarily understanding the language they are using. For example, students may engage in replacement and recurrence drills designed to practice specific grammatical structures. The second category is “meaningful practice”, where activities are controlled but require students to make meaningful choices through action and application. For instance, students might be asked to describe a specific location or house using prepositions. They may be provided with a street map and a list of prepositions such as “near”, “from”, “on”, “of”, “next to”, and “across from”. Then, students need to respond to questions, such as "Where is the hospital?", with answers referring to the position shown on the map. These activities are considered 'meaningful' as students need to provide responses relevant to the location indicated on the map. Moving on to the third category, “communicative practice” involves activities focused on real-life interaction where learners are expected to engage in authentic communication. In such activities, real information is exchanged, and the language used is not predetermined. For example, students may be asked to describe the way to their school or draw a map of their houses, then provide responses to inquiries using expressions like "next to the supermarket" or "behind the pharmacy “.

By incorporating Richards (2005)’s classification into this research, I aim to demonstrate how a balanced approach one that includes mechanical activities, meaningful practice, and communicative practice can address the diverse needs of learners. This approach ensures that students not only gain a solid grasp of language forms but also have opportunities to use these forms meaningfully and effectively in real-life communication. This balanced method supports different learning styles and helps learners develop comprehensive language skills. This approach should not only support the development of accurate language use but also promote fluency and the ability to convey meaning effectively.

In the specific context of Libyan education, where traditional methods have dominated, integrating these categories of CLT activities provides a structured yet flexible framework for enhancing language teaching practices. Furthermore, a study by Brown and Lee (2015) highlights those additional activities, such as problem-solving, games, and role-play, can enhance the communicative competence of learners. For instance, learners engaged in problem-solving activities are presented with stimulating tasks where they can generate new information and meaningful solutions from real-world experiences in challenging conditions. Many such activities are included in English language learning schoolbooks across various institutions. According to the recommendations of the authors of the curriculum "English for Libya"

(Phillips, 2002), in EFL Libyan secondary institutions, learners should be encouraged by their teachers to tackle challenging tasks in groups or pairs as outlined in the schoolbooks.

It is also suggested that educators avoid providing learners with direct answers to activities and instead promote critical thinking to help them assess whether their responses are correct or incorrect. This approach has several potential benefits, such as fostering independent problem-solving skills and deeper understanding of the material. However, it also presents challenges. For instance, some learners may find this method frustrating if they do not yet have the skills or background knowledge to effectively evaluate their own work. Therefore, while promoting critical thinking can be valuable, it is essential for educators to provide appropriate support and guidance. This could include support strategies, formative feedback, and opportunities for learners to discuss and reflect on their answers. A balanced approach that integrates both self-assessment and direct support may better address the diverse needs of learners and enhance overall learning outcomes

However, applying such activities can be challenging in certain learning situations. For example, the findings of Adnan *et al.* (2012), which investigated the views of Malaysian educators on implementing CLT activities in their classrooms, revealed that some participants found role-play activities to be too time-consuming to be effective. Additionally, the study highlighted challenges such as insufficient class time, large student numbers, and limited access to resources and materials necessary for CLT. Despite these obstacles, some educators acknowledged the potential of role-play to improve students' communicative abilities and increase engagement. The study concluded that for CLT activities to be more effectively integrated, there must be structural support, including smaller class sizes and adequate training for teachers.

Similarly, the findings of Hiep (2007) regarding the views of Vietnamese teachers indicate that, overall, educators were not satisfied with the application of such activities and deemed them unsuccessful. The primary reasons for their dissatisfaction included a lack of adequate training in CLT methodologies, insufficient classroom time to properly implement the activities, large class sizes that made it difficult to manage interactive exercises, and a shortage of necessary materials and resources. Additionally, cultural factors and existing educational practices, which heavily emphasised rote learning and grammar, further hindered the effective adoption of CLT activities.

Information gap activities are another significant feature of interaction in CLT classrooms. Richards (2005, p. 18) notes that “the fact that in real communication, people typically communicate to obtain information they do not possess". Information gap activities

simulate this function. In short, learners engage in authentic interaction and go beyond language practice exercises to utilise their communicative and linguistic resources to obtain new information. Utomo (2016) highlights that through certain activities, learners can practice their spoken language skills, which can stimulate their interest in speaking and practicing English. This assertion is supported by additional evidence from Nunan (2015), who explores how task-based language teaching, which includes interactive and communicative tasks, creates engaging and meaningful contexts for language practice, thereby increasing learner motivation. Collectively, these studies provide a strong basis for understanding how specific types of activities can effectively enhance learners' interest and engagement in practicing English. This indicates that information gap activities can enhance oral interaction comprehension and expand learners' vocabulary.

On the other hand, studies based in China and Vietnam that aim to assess these activities in ELT note different challenges. This may be attributed to socio-cultural and political influences in these countries, which differ from those in the UK or the USA. For instance, Hiep (2007) emphasises that Vietnamese learners share the same mother tongue and, as a result, may lack motivation to use and practice the English language within their language classrooms. Thus, when Vietnamese learners are asked to work in pairs or groups to engage in real games, the authors question whether the learners are engaged in open interaction or not when they revert to use of L1.

2.6 Adoption of CLT in EFL Settings

Since the 1970s, CLT has emerged primarily in Western contexts and has become widely adopted in the field of language teaching, particularly in the learning and teaching of English. And as previously noted, EFL refers to the learning and acquisition of English in a country where English is not the official language, while ESL refers to learning and teaching English in settings where English is used as the medium of instruction, even outside of the classroom. It can be argued that ESL learners have greater exposure to English in their daily lives, which thus may facilitate language acquisition. Conversely, EFL learners, as noted by Ellis (2005), often have limited opportunities to use and practice English outside of the classroom, relying primarily on instruction within the classroom.

Building upon this distinction, Littlewood (2007) explains that due to the demand from EFL students to effectively speak and use English, education authorities in various EFL contexts have integrated CLT into their syllabuses since the 1990s. This adoption of CLT can be attributed to the limitations observed in earlier methods, such as GTM, in fully addressing

the development of students' communicative skills. Consequently, this traditional method has been considered insufficient in meeting the needs of EFL learners. As noted by Liao (2000), CLT was introduced into the Chinese curriculum in the early 1990s as a response to the challenges faced by learners in secondary institutions. Rao (2002) further explains that institutions and colleges began offering English courses and programs based on CLT principles to improve students' English proficiency. Similarly, Shih (1999) observed English programs and courses in Taiwanese universities and found that they had transitioned to a communicative approach to meet learners' needs. In Arabic L1 settings, CLT principles have been widely adopted in most Middle Eastern countries. For example, Bahumaid (2012) reports that communicative curricula have been implemented in Gulf countries since the 1980s, leading to a positive impact on English language education.

Expanding on the discussion, the suitability of implementing CLT principles in EFL contexts has been a topic of uncertainty in recent years. To explore this, İnceçay and İnceçay (2009) conducted a study examining the perspectives of Turkish university preparatory school students on communicative and non-communicative activities in EFL classrooms. The study involved 30 students (16 females, 14 males) aged between 17 and 21, who had been primarily exposed to formal grammar instruction throughout their previous education. A mixed-method approach was used to collect data, incorporating both questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The questionnaire consisted of 19 items, with some focusing on communicative activities such as whole-class discussions, group work, and pair work, while others examined non-communicative activities like error correction and audio-lingual drills. To gain deeper insights, five students were selected for interviews based on their English proficiency and age. The findings revealed that students preferred a combination of both communicative and non-communicative activities. While they valued interaction-based approaches for developing speaking skills, they also found traditional methods, such as structured grammar exercises and correction-focused activities, beneficial for accuracy. The study concluded that an integrated approach combining both methods may be the most effective strategy for EFL instruction in contexts like Turkey, where students have prior exposure to grammar-based learning.

Additionally, empirical research has widely utilized pre- and post-tests to measure improvements in speaking skills and overall language proficiency. One such study is Al-Garni and Almuhammadi (2019), which investigated the effectiveness of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in enhancing EFL students' speaking abilities. The researchers conducted a quasi-experimental study employing a pre- and post-test design to evaluate changes in speaking proficiency. The study was conducted at the English Language Institute of the University of

Jeddah, involving two classes, each comprising 21 female EFL students. Participants were divided into an experimental group and a control group. The experimental group engaged in communicative activities, specifically interviewing, problem-solving, and role-playing, while the control group received traditional instruction based on grammar-focused teaching methods.

Students' speaking proficiency was assessed using pre- and post-tests, focusing on four key aspects: fluency, pronunciation, grammar, and comprehension. The assessment employed standardized proficiency scales to measure progress, ensuring consistency and reliability in evaluation. The results indicated that the experimental group demonstrated significant improvements in speaking skills compared to the control group. Participants in the CLT-based instruction showed enhanced fluency, greater confidence, and improved interactional competence. These findings highlight the effectiveness of communicative activities in fostering oral proficiency in EFL learners.

Building on the literature reviewed in this Chapter, this study thoroughly examines empirical assessment measures, particularly those employed in Al-Garni and Almuhammadi (2019), to evaluate changes in speaking ability through pre- and post-tests. The study underscores the importance of validity and reliability in assessment, emphasizing the role of trained evaluators, standardized rubrics, and clearly defined scoring criteria. These considerations have directly informed the methodology outlined in Chapter 4, where the rationale behind the chosen measures for assessing speaking proficiency before and after the intervention is presented. By aligning with established research methodologies, this study ensures that its assessment framework is both methodologically sound and aligned with best practices.

Chang and Goswami (2011) conducted a study to explore the views of Taiwanese high school students on classroom-oriented knowledge focused on CLT. The study involved 24 participants who were interviewed to gain insights into their perceptions of CLT activities within their English language classes. The CLT activities implemented in this study included interactive tasks such as pair work, group discussions, and role-plays, designed to enhance communication skills and practical language use. The primary method of data collection was done through semi-structured interviews, where students were asked about their experiences and attitudes towards the CLT activities. This qualitative approach allowed for an in-depth understanding of students' views and the factors influencing their perceptions. The study did not specify a control group or a detailed comparison with non-communicative activities, focusing instead on gathering detailed feedback from the participants. The findings of the study indicated that students generally had positive attitudes towards CLT activities. They

appreciated the interactive nature of the tasks, which they felt improved their speaking skills and made learning English more enjoyable. However, some students also expressed concerns about the effectiveness of CLT in preparing them for exams, which tended to focus more on grammar and rote memorisation.

2.7 Sample of Previous Studies

Ning (2011) explores the implementation of Cooperative Learning (CL) techniques in China, in accordance with revised English Language Teaching (ELT) guidelines that prioritize enhancing students' communication skills in English through collaborative activities and practical language use. Ning's study involved 52 first year students who received English instruction for four hours per week over an 18-week period. The study compared a control group subjected to traditional whole-class instruction and an experimental group exposed to adapted CL methods. While Ning (2011) employed an experimental approach by assigning students to either CL or traditional whole-class instruction groups, it did not incorporate formal statistical methods for analysing quantitative data. The research focused on comparing students' success and course marks rather than utilising detailed statistical measures to assess changes in English competence across various skills. This distinction clarifies that the study, although experimental, did not use a quantitative approach involving statistical analysis beyond basic evaluation of course performance.

Another aspect that requires clarification is the instructional method employed for the control group. The article contrasts CL methods, which emphasise group work, with whole class instruction, a teacher-centred approach without group activities. The study does not provide extensive details about the nature of whole class instruction, but it is clear that this method differs significantly from the CL approach in terms of student engagement and instructional style. This lack of specificity hinders the ability to compare the outcomes of the control and experimental groups effectively. While the study reports that the improvement of the experimental group surpassed that of the control group, it does specify the measures used to derive these scores in the section titled “Team Assessment”. This section outlines the evaluation process, detailing how the group’s performance was assessed, which provides the necessary clarity on the criteria and methods used to assess improvement. Thus, the study offers a clear explanation of the assessment methods employed, contrary to the initial impression of a lack of detail.

Talebi and Sobhani (2012) conducted an important study to investigate the impact of CLT activities on the speaking skills of English language learners. Their study employed a rigorous

experimental design, involving 40 learners enrolled in a speaking course at an IELTS centre in Mashhad, Iran. To ensure the integrity of the study, participants were assigned to either a control group or an experimental group, with the aim of ensuring a balanced representation of learners with similar speaking proficiency levels before the study commenced. In the experimental group, learners were exposed to speaking instruction that integrated CLT activities.

Data collection methods were thorough, employing an experimental study design with a focus on quantitative measures. Quantitative measures included pre- and post-tests designed to assess specific aspects of language proficiency, such as fluency. These tests provided numerical data on participants' performance before and after the intervention, enabling a clear comparison of improvements. This approach ensured a comprehensive evaluation of the impact of the instructional methods on language proficiency. Verbal interviews were conducted with the participants before and after the intervention period to assess their speaking skills and performance. In contrast, the control group received traditional instruction in speaking, attending three sessions per week over the course of one month. This traditional instruction entailed conventional teacher-centred approaches, such as lectures and drills, with limited emphasis on interactive and communicative tasks present in the experimental group, but the authors did not specify. Upon completion of the intervention period, the results of the study unequivocally demonstrated the superiority of the experimental group in oral interviews, indicating an improvement in speaking skills among learners exposed to CLT activities.

The timeframe of the study allowed for the implementation of the intervention and enabled a comprehensive assessment of its effectiveness in enhancing learners' speaking proficiency. In conclusion, Talebi and Sobhani's seminal research underscores the efficacy of CLT approaches in augmenting speaking proficiency among English language learners. Their study provides compelling evidence of the transformative power of integrating communicative tasks into language instruction, fostering active engagement, meaningful interaction, and ultimately leading to substantial improvements in speaking skills.

In another study conducted by Ning and Hornby (2010) in a Chinese context, the impacts of CLT on the competencies of EFL students across various language skills were investigated. The study involved 100 students from a university in the northern region of China. The CLT approach implemented in this study focused on incorporating communicative activities and authentic language use into the classroom. Authentic language use refers to practicing language in realistic contexts that reflect real-life situations, such as making requests, engaging in conversations, and solving problems, rather than focusing solely on textbook exercises or drills. Specific CLT activities in the study included role-plays, pair and group discussions, information

gap tasks, and problem-solving activities, all designed to mirror natural language use and foster meaningful communication. These activities aimed to promote meaningful interaction among students and facilitate the development of speaking and reading skills. Both a pre-test and a post-test were administered to assess the effects of the CLT approach on students' language competencies compared to traditional teaching methods. The pre-test served as a baseline measure of students' language proficiency before the intervention, while the post-test evaluated their proficiency after exposure to the CLT approach.

The study utilised controls by comparing the performance of students who received instruction using the CLT approach with those who received traditional teaching methods. This allowed for the evaluation of the effectiveness of CLT in improving language competencies compared to conventional approaches. However, the duration of the study was not explicitly mentioned. The findings of the study revealed significant differences in the preference for teaching speaking and reading skills when utilising the CLT approach. In their study, Ning and Hornby (2010) examined the impact of CL on English language competencies among Chinese EFL learners. The research revealed that the CL approach had clear advantages in enhancing students' listening, speaking, and reading skills. Specifically, the interactive and communicative nature of CL activities, such as group discussions and role-plays, contributed to significant improvements in these areas by providing more engaging and practical language use opportunities. For instance, CL's focus on collaborative tasks likely helped students better understand spoken English and practice their speaking abilities in realistic contexts, while authentic reading materials facilitated more effective reading comprehension.

However, the study also found that CL did not lead to significant improvements in writing and vocabulary skills compared to traditional teaching methods. Traditional methods, which often involve more direct instruction and focused practice, may still be more effective for these areas. The lack of significant differences in writing and vocabulary suggests that while CL is beneficial for interactive and communicative aspects of language learning, it may not sufficiently address the specific needs of writing practice and vocabulary acquisition. Overall, while the CL approach demonstrates clear benefits in certain language skills, its limitations in writing and vocabulary highlight the need for a balanced approach that integrates both interactive methods and traditional practices to address all areas of language proficiency effectively (Ning and Hornby, 2010).

2.8 Summary

Following the introduction and the outline of the current study in the previous chapter, this chapter has introduced literature related to the CLT approach and its application in the English language classroom. From this review, it is evident that the CLT approach holds value and that activities such as role-play and problem-solving can be effectively implemented in English language classes, prompting active roles of both learners so that they become actively engaged in the practice of communication in the L2. Another important aspect presented in this chapter is the analysis of the advantages and disadvantages of applying the CLT approach. While it has been commended for its effectiveness, it has also faced criticism and challenges in implementation. To conclude, the implementation of CLT activities is beneficial for language learning, but it requires careful consideration of challenges and the development of strategies to overcome them. This study aims to contribute to this understanding by exploring the effectiveness of CLT in the Libyan EFL context. The next chapter will focus on the speaking skills that are planned to be improved through the application of CLT activities in the classroom in this current study.

Chapter 3: Speaking Skills

3.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, an introduction to the CLT approach and its applicable activities in the English language classroom was provided. The rationale behind presenting CLT activities in the preceding chapter stems from the hypothesis that implementing these activities enhances learners' speaking skills more effectively than GTM. Consequently, this chapter is focused on a thorough exploration of the various components of speaking skills and is structured into four main sections, each addressing specific aspects related to speaking proficiency. The first section offers a comprehensive introduction to speaking skills, emphasising their significance in language acquisition. The subsequent section outlines the key characteristics of speaking skills, including fluency, accuracy, and vocabulary usage, with illustrative examples. In the third section, various factors influencing learners' speaking skills are elucidated. This includes but is not limited to, socio-cultural, psychological, and instructional factors that play a role in shaping proficiency in spoken language when that language is not a person's L1. Finally, a summary section provides a concise recapitulation of the main points in the chapter, setting the foundations for this present research, a detailed explanation of its methodology, and the presentation and analysis of its results.

3.2 Speaking Skills and their Importance

Speaking, in linguistic terms, is recognised as a productive skill, encompassing the ability to articulate sounds and words verbally. Furthermore, speaking skill denotes the capacity to engage in verbal interaction with others, facilitating requests and generating authentic discourse (Nunan, 2015). Goh and Burns (2012) emphasise that speaking skills involve various cognitive and interactive processes that are crucial for effective communication. They advocate for a holistic approach to teaching speaking that considers both the linguistic and communicative competencies necessary for learners to express themselves clearly and coherently in different contexts. They argue that speaking is not just about using the correct grammar or vocabulary but about effectively managing the interaction and conveying meaning through verbal and non-verbal signals. Similarly, Newton and Nation (2020) discuss the integration of listening and speaking skills as an essential component of language teaching. They suggest that this integration helps learners develop their ability to communicate in a way that mirrors real-life interactions. By engaging in activities that combine both listening and speaking, learners can practice using language as it naturally occurs, thus enhancing their fluency and comprehension.

Furthermore, Derwing and Munro (2015) highlight the importance of focusing on intelligibility in speaking. They suggest that teaching should prioritise helping learners produce speech that is clear and understandable to their listeners. This approach ensures that learners are not only accurate in their use of language but also effective communicators who can make themselves understood in various settings.

In short, speaking is an essential skill in the teaching and learning of the English language because it facilitates the practical application of language in real-life contexts. This skill goes beyond the mechanical reproduction of vocabulary and grammar, enabling learners to actively participate in communicative scenarios. Speaking is a dynamic, interactive process that engages learners in meaningful exchanges of information, ideas, and emotions. As such, it plays a critical role in developing a learner's communicative competence and confidence. Newton and Nation (2020) argue that effective speaking practice is fundamental to enhancing learners' overall language proficiency, as it helps to improve fluency, pronunciation, and listening comprehension. Furthermore, Derwing and Munro (2015) highlight the significance of speaking activities in reducing communication barriers and fostering the ability to navigate diverse social and academic settings. From my perspective, a comprehensive approach to teaching speaking skills should incorporate these elements to address the diverse needs of learners. Integrating listening and speaking activities, focusing on intelligibility, and considering both linguistic and communicative competencies create a strong framework for language instruction. By adapting such a holistic approach, educators can better prepare students for real-world communication, ensuring that they are not only fluent but also effective and confident speakers. This approach not only addresses the practical needs of learners but also supports their integration into global communication networks, underscoring the importance of speaking as a central element of language instruction.

While it is generally accepted that L1 acquisition begins with speaking before reading and writing, this sequence does not necessarily apply to L2 acquisition, especially in a classroom setting for adult learners. Traditional methods, like the GTM often emphasise reading and writing over speaking. This has been particularly true in the Libyan EFL context, where Traditional methods, such as the GTM, have historically emphasised reading and writing over speaking. For instance, GTM prioritises the explicit teaching of grammatical rules and vocabulary through translation exercises and rote memorisation. This approach often results in limited opportunities for learners to engage in spoken communication. In the context of Libyan EFL education, GTM has traditionally dominated the curriculum, leading to a focus on written exercises and grammar drills rather than interactive language use. This historical preference for

reading and writing is evident in curriculum designs and classroom practices, which frequently neglect speaking proficiency in favour of textual analysis and translation (see Alhmali, 2007 and Elabbar, 2014).

Traditional methods, such as the GTM, have long been prevalent in the Libyan educational system. These methods emphasise reading and writing over speaking, resulting in limited opportunities for learners to develop their speaking skills. For instance, GTM often focuses on the rote learning of grammar rules and vocabulary, with less emphasis on interactive and communicative practices (Newton and Nation, 2020). Recent research, including that by Khilafat and Reddy (2022), indicates that this historical focus on GTM has led to challenges in integrating effective speaking practice into the curriculum. Their study reflects on the difficulties Libyan teachers face when implementing communicative approaches due to entrenched educational traditions and a lack of resources. In contrast, the shift towards CLT aims to address these limitations by emphasising speaking and interactive communication from the outset. CLT offers a more dynamic approach that encourages learners to actively use the language in realistic contexts, which is crucial for developing communicative competence. However, integrating CLT into the Libyan context presents its own challenges, as noted in Khilafat and Reddy's (2022) research. They highlight the need for a balanced approach that respects cultural norms while promoting effective language use. This study, therefore, focuses on how CLT can be adapted to fit the Libyan context, addressing both historical constraints and the need for modern, communicative practices.

Leong and Ahmadi (2017) assert that speaking is the most crucial language skill due to its role in effective negotiation and conversation. They argue that speaking facilitates essential interpersonal interactions and is pivotal in both professional and social contexts where successful dialogue is key. This viewpoint underscores the significant role of speaking in achieving communicative competence. However, while the importance of speaking is evident, it is crucial to recognise that its effectiveness is closely linked with other language skills, such as listening. Effective communication and negotiation often depend on the ability to listen actively and respond appropriately. For instance, in a negotiation, understanding the nuances of what others are saying is just as important as articulating one's own ideas clearly. A balanced approach to language instruction should therefore integrate speaking with listening, reading, and writing. Focusing solely on speaking might lead to incomplete language development, as proficiency in other skills enhances overall communicative effectiveness. Educators should ensure that speaking is taught alongside these complementary skills to provide learners with a well-rounded language education. In sum, while speaking is undoubtedly a vital skill, its role

should be considered within the context of a comprehensive language learning framework that includes all language skills. This approach will better equip learners to engage effectively in various communicative scenarios, thus supporting their overall language proficiency.

Verbal interaction provides significant advantages for students, as highlighted by Scrivener (2005), who asserts that actively using and practicing a language is more beneficial than merely studying its theoretical aspects. Scrivener emphasises that engaging in speaking activities enables students to apply their language knowledge in real-life contexts, which enhances their communicative competence and confidence. Furthermore, Osborn *et al*. (2019) demonstrate that participating in dynamic conversations yields various benefits. By immersing learners in practical scenarios such as group activities, professional meetings, and social events, students can develop their language skills in diverse contexts. This immersion helps them gain practical experience and adapt to different communicative situations, which are crucial for effective language use. Incorporating regular verbal interaction into language instruction not only aligns with these insights but also underscores the importance of creating opportunities for students to practice speaking in realistic settings. By focusing on active communication, educators can better prepare students for real-world interactions, ensuring they are not only familiar with language structures but also adept at using them in practical, meaningful ways.

Dynamic conversations, as described by Osborn *et al.* (2019), refer to interactive dialogues characterised by fluidity, spontaneity, and active engagement among participants. These conversations involve dynamic exchanges of information, ideas, and perspectives, and evolving interactional process. Individuals with proficiency in spoken English may have greater opportunities for employment in international businesses. This assertion finds support in the proposition of Baker and Westrup (2003) who argue that proficiency in English significantly enhances employment prospects by making learners more attractive to potential employers. Their assertion is supported by evidence from various studies indicating that English proficiency plays a crucial role in the global job market. For instance, Coleman (2006) explores the impact of English-medium instruction in higher education across Europe. The study highlights that institutions using English as the medium of instruction often experience an increase in international student enrolment, reflecting the demand for English proficiency in higher education. This increased enrolment is indicative of a broader trend where English skills are highly valued by both academic institutions and employers. The study also shows that English proficiency is increasingly linked to better career opportunities and job prospects, particularly in international and multinational organisations. As Coleman (2006) notes, the prevalence of English in European higher education aligns with the notion that English skills

enhance employability and open doors to global career opportunities. Thus, Baker and Westrup's view is reinforced by Coleman's findings, which demonstrate that mastering English not only improves job prospects but also plays a crucial role in career advancement, particularly in international contexts.

EFL instructors in English language classes are encouraged to help learners enhance their verbal communication skills. Brown and Lee (2015) suggest that maintaining effective verbal communication can be achieved through different mechanisms. First, fluency training, which involves the ability to speak and express oneself spontaneously and smoothly without frequent hesitations, includes activities designed to improve a learner's speech fluidity and spontaneity. This training incorporates exercises such as timed speaking activities, where learners discuss a topic for a set period, and role-playing scenarios that mimic real-life conversations. The goal of fluency training is to enhance students' confidence and communicative competence by promoting continuous speech and reducing anxiety about making mistakes.

Fluency and accuracy are thus crucial components in enhancing learners' speaking skills. Given the fundamental importance of these elements, in Libyan contexts EFL teachers are required to incorporate speaking activities into their curriculum. Various types of activities can be employed to train these sub-skills, including performance activities, guided activities, and creative activities, depending on the learners' objectives. Performance activities provide learners with opportunities to communicate in the target language (TL), emphasising meaning and fluency over linguistic accuracy. Both teachers and learners should prioritise conveying meaning effectively during these activities. Guided activities, such as repetition practice or sentence completion exercises using word cues and images, focus on improving word usage and pronunciation accuracy. In these activities, the emphasis is typically on linguistic accuracy, with teachers emphasising the importance of accuracy in their feedback. Additionally, guided activities often involve typical conversations, enabling learners to discuss their ideas, express desires, and introduce themselves, further enhancing their speaking skills. Creative activities, on the other hand, are designed to encourage learners to engage in imaginative practice.

Problem-solving tasks and role-play scenarios are integral activities that provide opportunities for relaxed yet meaningful practice, focusing specifically on enhancing students' speaking skills. Hedge (2001) highlights that problem-solving is one of the tasks that encourages learners to engage in spontaneous and authentic communication, which is crucial for building fluency. Similarly, Johnson and Johnson (2008) emphasise that role-play scenarios are vital in teaching and learning language for communication, as they allow students to practice speaking in a variety of real-life contexts and situations. These activities are particularly

effective in encouraging interaction in the language classroom, enabling students to apply language structures and vocabulary in a safe, controlled environment. I believe that incorporating problem-solving tasks and role-play aligns with the goals of my project by creating an interactive learning environment that prioritises developing speaking skills through practical application and communicative competence. This approach not only motivates students by making language learning more dynamic and relevant but also aligns with the principles of CLT. By focusing on these specific activities, I aim to provide a targeted and effective framework for improving students' speaking skills.

3.3 Characteristics of Speaking Skills

In this section, there is a presentation for the various characteristics of speaking skills as they relate to communicative proficiency. Speaking skills are essential for effective communication in a second language, encompassing the ability to convey meaning clearly and engage in meaningful interactions. These skills include fluency, accuracy, and vocabulary use. By understanding these components, educators and learners can focus on activities and practices that enhance communicative ability in real-world contexts. Mazouzi (2013) underscores the necessity of designing speaking activities that strike a balance between fluency and accuracy, which is essential for achieving effective language learning outcomes. Fluency-focused activities encourage learners to engage in spontaneous speech, fostering an environment where students feel comfortable expressing themselves without the fear of making mistakes. This approach not only builds confidence but also minimises hesitation, a common barrier to effective communication. Conversely, activities emphasising accuracy help learners grasp the correct use of grammar and vocabulary, ensuring clarity and precision in their communication.

Incorporating both fluency and accuracy in speaking activities is crucial for developing comprehensive communicative competence. A balanced approach allows learners to express their ideas and thoughts naturally while ensuring they use language correctly. This dual focus prepares learners for real-life interactions, where both elements are essential. For instance, in real-world situations, speakers must convey their message fluently and accurately to be understood and engage effectively with others. Therefore, integrating activities that promote both fluency and accuracy into the language curriculum can create a more holistic and effective learning experience. This approach not only addresses the diverse needs of language learners but also equips them with the necessary skills to communicate accurately in various contexts.

Both fluency and accuracy are key outcomes of CLT, as emphasised by Leong and Ahmadi (2017) who advocates for activities that enhance learners' communicative competence within a collaborative framework, focusing on practical language use in real-world contexts. A key element of speaking skills is vocabulary knowledge, which serves as the foundation of effective communication. Having a rich vocabulary allows speakers to express their thoughts and ideas with precision, making conversations more meaningful and engaging. However, the significance of vocabulary knowledge in CLT should be understood in contrast to the grammatical knowledge emphasised in the GTM. While GTM prioritises the mastery of grammatical rules and their application in sentence construction, CLT places a greater emphasis on the practical use of language. Vocabulary knowledge allows learners to choose appropriate words and phrases, facilitating fluid and contextually appropriate expression. Grammar, on the other hand, ensures that the language used is structurally correct. The key distinction between these approaches lies in their focus. GTM often concentrates on the accuracy of sentence construction through explicit grammar instruction and translation exercises. In contrast, CLT integrates grammatical accuracy with fluency and practical use, encouraging learners to engage in interactive activities that require both vocabulary and grammatical knowledge. This balanced method enables learners to build the skills needed for effective communication in diverse situations, where both accurate grammar and a broad vocabulary are essential.

In summary, while grammatical knowledge is crucial for constructing correct sentences, vocabulary knowledge is essential for expressing a wide range of ideas and participating in dynamic conversations. CLT's emphasis on practical language use incorporates both elements, preparing learners to communicate accurately in real-life situations. By addressing both vocabulary and grammar within communicative activities, educators can provide a comprehensive learning experience that meets the diverse needs of language learners.

3.3.1 Fluency

Fluency is a paramount aspect of speaking skills, representing a core objective for educators when teaching and developing speaking abilities. In other words, fluency encompasses the ability to maintain smooth verbal communication without disruptions, thereby sustaining the attention of listeners. Similarly, Hedge (2001) emphasises that fluency led to the ability to take turns in conversation, articulate words accurately, use appropriate expressions, and employ clear intonation and stress patterns.

Nearly every second language learner shares the common goal of improving their fluency, which entails achieving a sufficient grasp of grammar, structure, and vocabulary. However, learners also recognise the critical need for practical application and speaking practice to

enhance their language skills. Improving speech fluency is not a straightforward task and often requires substantial support from teachers. More specifically, teachers play a crucial role in implementing activities that create a conducive environment for learners to practice the language effectively. Relying solely on the acquisition of knowledge without practical application has been shown to be inadequate for learners to achieve fluent speech. This point is supported by Swain's output hypothesis (2005), which asserts that language production is essential for second language learning. According to Swain, engaging in meaningful language output, such as speaking, forces learners to process language more deeply, identify gaps in their knowledge, and develop fluency. Swain's research highlights that without opportunities to use language actively, learners may struggle to achieve the level of proficiency needed for effective communication. Thus, incorporating practical, communicative activities into language teaching is vital for fostering fluency and ensuring that learners can apply their knowledge in real-world contexts.

Moreover, even with a good grasp of vocabulary and grammar, students may still struggle with fluency in speaking. Fluency involves more than just knowing the rules; it requires the ability to use language smoothly and spontaneously in real-time communication. This gap underscores the need for practical speaking opportunities and interactive activities to help bridge the divide between theoretical knowledge and effective, fluent language use. It is often measured through proficiency tests, language assessments, and learner performance in communicative tasks. This knowledge pertains to linguistic elements such as vocabulary, grammar rules, and sentence structure, as well as sociolinguistic and pragmatic aspects of language use. Brown and Lee (2015) provide evidence of cases where learners, despite having robust grammatical and lexical knowledge, still face challenges in achieving fluency in spoken communication. They argue that strong theoretical knowledge does not always translate into effective, spontaneous use of language in real conversations. This disparity highlights a critical issue: while learners may understand grammar rules and have a wide vocabulary, they often struggle with the fluid, real-time application of this knowledge during actual communication. This observation emphasises the importance of integrating practical speaking activities into language instruction. For instance, creating opportunities for learners to practice speaking in real-life scenarios can help bridge the gap between knowledge and fluency.

Additionally, Ellis (2008) highlights that learners with substantial knowledge of language rules often encounter difficulties in spontaneous speech production because of the complexities involved in real-time language processing and interaction. Specifically, Ellis points out that even when learners have mastered grammatical rules and vocabulary, they may struggle with

the cognitive demands of quickly retrieving and using this knowledge during spontaneous conversations. Ellis's research shows that fluency in speech requires not only a strong grasp of language rules but also the ability to process and produce language fluidly under time constraints. He emphasises that spontaneous speech involves quick decision-making, automatic retrieval of linguistic forms, and effective management of conversation flow, which can be challenging even for knowledgeable learners. This insight underscores the need for language instruction to focus on developing these real-time processing and production skills alongside grammatical knowledge, to support learners in achieving fluency. In terms of seeking real gains in fluency, the results of Sakura's study (2001) indicate a modest improvement in participants' speaking fluency attributed to the implementation of activities based on the CLT approach. This observation aligns with Sakura's (2001, p. 117) assertion that the primary goal of the CLT approach is "the ability not only to communicate using rules of grammar, but also to use language appropriately in social contexts and to employ verbal and nonverbal strategies to overcome breakdowns in communication".

Fluency Measures

Fluency assessment can be conducted under various conditions, such as Words Per Minute (WPM) and hesitations per minute. These measures are widely accepted and employed by researchers, and educators, and in the field of language assessment as primary indicators of fluency. For example, De Jong and Perfetti (2011) utilised these measures in their work testing the efficacy of CLT in improving these measures. They show that CLT activities can reduce the number of hesitations per minute and increase the WPM in learners' speech and thus improve their speaking fluency. Similarly, Arevart and Nation (1991) employed the communicative language approach, specifically the 4/3/2 technique, in their study. This method, developed by Arevart and Nation (1991), involves students practicing speaking on a given topic for four minutes, then repeating the same speech for three minutes, and finally for two minutes. Each repetition aims to improve fluency, reduce hesitation, and increase confidence in speaking. The technique is designed to push learners to become more efficient in their use of language within progressively shorter time frames, thereby enhancing their ability to produce fluent speech under time pressure. Arevary and Nation (1991) found that participants gained opportunities to practice the language and deliver speech with higher fluency. Consequently, there was a notable improvement in speech rates, hesitations per minute, and WPM, indicating a significant enhancement in fluency.

The following sub-sections fully explore the various measures that I have chosen to quantify fluency with reference to key studies that have explored the effects of CLT-based instruction on them.

Words Per Minute (WPM)

Molina and Briesmaster (2017) conducted a study in the Chilean teaching context, where they implemented the CLT approach. They found that students at a technical university in Chile expressed interest in applying this approach in their classes, which stemmed from observing a slight improvement in their speech fluency. The participants' WPM was employed as a measure to assess their fluency. WPM refers to the average number of words spoken within a minute of continuous speech. It provides a measure of speech rate and fluency by assessing how many words are produced on average across an utterance. This measure helps evaluate how smoothly and rapidly a speaker can produce speech in each period, reflecting their overall fluency in spoken language, and it is a specific measure used to quantify speech output. The results indicated that the application of the 3/2/1 technique, where students list three things they learned, two things they found interesting, and one question they have, along with other CLT activities such as role-plays and group discussions, led to noticeable improvements in the students' speech fluency. There was an increase in their WPM and a reduction in the number of hesitations per minute, indicating a smoother and more continuous speech flow.

These results align with the findings of studies on language fluency, such as Derwing and Munro (2015) who emphasise that increased WPM and fewer hesitations are critical indicators of improved fluency. Additionally, Tavakoli and Skehan (2005) highlight the importance of these measures in evaluating the effectiveness of CLT techniques. Moreover, Gorsuch (2011) conducted a study in the U.S.A. aimed at improving the fluency of international teaching assistants who were L2 learners of English. In his study, he also utilised WPM as a measure of speech rate. Gorsuch's study participants demonstrated positive results as they successfully increased their speech rate in terms of WPM, leading to an improvement in their spoken fluency.

A study by Derwing and Munro (2015) has also demonstrated the effectiveness of using WPM as a measure of speech fluency in language learning contexts. These recent investigations employed advanced techniques for transcribing and analysing spoken language samples to accurately calculate WPM rates. Typically, researchers transcribe spoken language samples and then meticulously calculate WPM by dividing the total number of words spoken by the total duration of the speech segment in minutes. This measure serves as a quantitative indicator of the rate at which individuals produce speech during communication tasks. Understanding the

methodology behind WPM measurement allows researchers to assess speech fluency objectively and draw meaningful conclusions about language proficiency and performance.

While Words Per Minute (WPM) provides a quantifiable measure of speech rate, it presents a limited perspective on fluency, as it does not account for essential components such as pausing patterns, articulation rate, and repair fluency, all of which significantly influence the overall communicative effectiveness of speech (Bulté & Housen, 2012). Additionally, Kormos and Trebits (2012) caution that WPM alone does not reflect the cognitive processing demands involved in speech production. A speaker may produce words rapidly but experience significant hesitation, false starts, or coherence issues, which can ultimately undermine communicative efficiency. To achieve a more comprehensive evaluation of fluency, multiple linguistic and cognitive dimensions must be considered. Pausing patterns which include the frequency, duration, and placement of pauses play a crucial role in discourse coherence. While well-timed pauses enhance comprehension by providing natural segmentation, excessive or irregular pausing may indicate cognitive processing difficulties or hesitation, reducing perceived fluency (Bosker et al., 2013). Research has shown that an increased frequency and duration of pauses negatively impact listener judgments of fluency, suggesting that pause analysis should complement speech rate in fluency assessment (Tavakoli, 2016).

Articulation rate, in contrast, measures the speed at which syllables or phonemes are produced, excluding pauses. Unlike WPM, articulation rate offers a more refined measure of speech motor control and efficiency. Studies have demonstrated that lower articulation rates often correlate with higher occurrences of disfluencies, such as sound prolongations and repetitions, which negatively impact speech fluency (De Jong et al., 2013). Another critical factor is repairing fluency, which encompasses self-corrections, repetitions, and reformulations made during speech. While a moderate level of repair is natural in conversation, an excessive frequency of self-repairs may indicate difficulties in lexical retrieval or syntactic planning. Research suggests that repair frequency is a distinct component of fluency, and its impact on perceived fluency depends on both the context and the nature of the repairs used (Kormos, 2006). The interrelationships among these fluency measures are complex. A higher articulation rate is generally associated with improved fluency, but excessive pausing can offset these gains. Similarly, strategic pausing can reduce the need for repairs, whereas a lack of planning time may increase disfluencies (Segalowitz, 2010). Given these interactions, a multi-dimensional approach to fluency assessment one that incorporates WPM, articulation rate, pausing patterns, and repair fluency is essential to capturing the full complexity of spoken language proficiency.

Research further indicates that fluency should be assessed through a multidimensional framework, incorporating measures such as mean length of run (the number of words between pauses), phonation time ratio (percentage of time spent speaking without silent pauses), and breakdown fluency (frequency and length of pauses) (Lambert & Kormos, 2014). These considerations highlight the necessity of complementing WPM with additional metrics to ensure a more comprehensive and valid assessment of L2 speaking fluency. However, due to practical constraints and the specific objectives of this study, these additional fluency measures were not included in the analysis. The primary focus of this research is on global fluency improvements as measured through WPM. Furthermore, the inclusion of more complex fluency measures requires specialized software and detailed phonetic analysis, which were beyond the scope of this study. Nevertheless, the limitations of WPM as a sole measure are acknowledged, and future research should consider integrating a broader set of fluency measures to provide a more nuanced understanding of L2 speaking development

Similarly, Rakovska (2022) investigated the 4/3/2 method for enhancing oral fluency among English learners, using WPM as a primary measure. Rakovska's study aimed to explore whether increased WPM was associated with improvements in fluency. While the study's results indicated that increased WPM did not always correlate with improved fluency, it underscored the relevance of WPM as a measure for assessing speech performance. The study's finding that lower proficiency students benefited more from the intervention, despite the lack of significant overall correlation, reinforces the value of WPM in fluency research. Studies have raised concerns about the oversimplification of fluency measurement by WPM alone, suggesting that more comprehensive evaluations are necessary to capture the complexities of language proficiency. Thus, future research should consider these notes to develop a more accurate understanding of L2 fluency beyond just counting words per minute.

Hesitations

Calculating the number of hesitations serves as another measure employed in the current study to assess the performance of participants in their pre- and post-tests. A reduction in the average number of hesitations in speech is a significant indicator of increased fluency. Hesitations, including pauses, filler words, and repetitions, disrupt the flow of speech and make it more challenging for listeners to follow the speaker's message. For example, a language learner who frequently pauses to think of the next word or phrase may appear less fluent. As this learner becomes more proficient, the frequency and duration of these hesitations decrease, resulting in more continuous and coherent speech. This change is supported by research, such as De Jong and Perfetti (2011), which demonstrates a strong link between fewer hesitations and

higher speech fluency scores. Therefore, a reduction in hesitations reflects the speaker's ability to express thoughts more fluidly and confidently, contributing to overall improvements in speech fluency. The "average number of hesitations" refers to the mean frequency of hesitations that occur during a given speech segment. To calculate this, researchers first transcribe the speech and identify all instances of hesitations. These may include pauses, repeated words or phrases, and non-lexical utterances for instance, "um," "uh," or "like." Once identified, the total number of hesitations is counted, and this count is divided by the total duration of the speech (typically measured in minutes). This yields the average number of hesitations per minute, providing a quantifiable measure of how often the speaker hesitates while talking. This measure is used to evaluate a speaker's fluency, with fewer hesitations generally indicating more fluent speech. Speaking fluency can be enhanced by various factors, as mentioned by Richards (2005), such as the utilisation of communicative approaches, engagement in problem-solving tasks, and collaborative activities, including working in pairs, role-playing, negotiation, and discussing meaning.

According to the work of Kusumawardani and Mardiyani (2018), hesitation is considered a criterion in determining speaking fluency, with hesitations most commonly occurring at the beginning of speech. The distinction between natural hesitations and those reflecting a "lack of words or uncertainty" was not explicitly made in the cited literature or in this present study. Instead, hesitations were viewed as a natural part of spontaneous speech, encompassing various linguistic phenomena. Therefore, while hesitations may indicate areas for improvement in speaking fluency, they are also inherent to language acquisition and communication (Schmid and Fägersten, 2010).

In the investigation of speaking fluency, several studies have employed measures that closely align with those used in our research. Notably, De Jong and Perfetti (2011) focused on WPM and hesitations per minute as key indicators of fluency. Their study assessed the impact of speech repetition on fluency by recording participants' speeches of varying lengths and analysing the changes in WPM and hesitations. They found that fluency improved significantly for participants who repeated their speeches, as evidenced by increased WPM and reduced hesitations per minute. This demonstrated that these metrics are effective in capturing improvements in fluency and highlighted their importance in evaluating speech performance.

My study builds upon these findings by utilising WPM and hesitations per minute to evaluate the effectiveness of various interventions on speaking fluency. By aligning with the measures used in De Jong and Perfetti's research and considering the insights from Rakovska's study, I aim to provide a comprehensive analysis of how interventions impact fluency. This

approach not only supports the use of WPM and hesitations per minute as effective measures but also helps in understanding the nuanced effects of different fluency-enhancing techniques.

Clusters

Consonant clusters can significantly impact language learners' fluency, but it is essential to clarify the nature of this impact. Consonant clusters, groups of two or more consonants occurring together without intervening vowels, often pose challenges for learners. These challenges can lead to hesitations and disruptions in speech. The difficulty arises from the need for precise articulatory coordination, which can be unfamiliar to learners from languages that do not commonly feature such clusters. However, difficulties with consonant clusters do not necessarily imply that more fluent speakers inherently produce more of them. Instead, the presence of consonant clusters is just one of many factors that can affect speech fluency. The key argument is not that increased fluency results in more frequent production of consonant clusters, but rather that learners struggling with these clusters may exhibit more hesitations as they attempt to navigate complex phonological structures.

According to Thornbury (2005), mastering English language proficiency requires phonological instruction that focuses on the accurate production of the various sounds of the language. These instructions typically originate from language teachers who guide learners on the proper pronunciation of various sounds and articulations in English. They encompass phonetic elements such as vowel and consonant sounds, stress patterns, intonation, and rhythm. Thornbury (2005) emphasises the importance of mastering these phonological aspects for achieving proficiency in English language skills. Mastery of such clusters can potentially enhance learners' ability to speak English accurately and effectively. Moreover, learners may encounter scenarios where they insert vowel sounds to break the consonant clusters, indicating a need for focused practice and attention to pronunciation improvement. This difficulty aligns with Bouchhioua's (2019) assertion that longer consonant clusters are considered the most challenging for second language learners, particularly for those whose first language lacks such clusters in its phonotactic system, as seen in languages such as Japanese, Korean, Vietnamese, and Mandarin.

Clusters can appear in various parts of the syllable structure. In a cluster, there are various components. First is the onset, which is the initial consonant or consonant cluster that precedes the vowel in a syllable, as seen in the word 'spring', where /spr/ is the onset. The nucleus is typically the vowel or syllabic consonant in the middle of the syllable; clusters here are less common, as in "fire", where the diphthong /aɪ/ serves as the nucleus. The coda is the consonant or consonant cluster following the vowel, as in 'helped', where /lpt/ forms the coda. As Tran

and Nguyen (2022) note, not all languages resemble English, which is notably rich in consonant clusters. For example, in the word “street”, the cluster /str/ appears in the onset position, while in “asks”, the cluster /sks/ appears in the coda position. As evidenced by various linguistic studies, when learners begin acquiring a second language, they encounter certain features that prove challenging, while finding other aspects more manageable. Notably, learners may excel in aspects of their speech that correspond to elements present in their native language. Conversely, elements that deviate from their native language's system pose challenges for them in terms of adoption. This contrast aligns with the concept of linguistic transfer, where aspects of one's native language influence the learning of a second language and play a crucial role in language acquisition. For example, Ellis (2008) explores how linguistic transfer can either facilitate or hinder second language acquisition depending on the similarity or difference between the learner's first and second languages. Ellis's research highlights that learners often struggle with phonological and grammatical features absent in their native language, leading to greater difficulties in achieving fluency in these areas.

Epenthesis is another issue related to clusters. This is a phonological phenomenon which occurs when a speaker inserts a vowel between two consonants to deliberately break a consonant cluster. Various studies have shown that epenthesis plays a central role in reducing the number of clusters that occur in speech. Arab speakers commonly employ internal epenthesis, as demonstrated in words like “film”, where an additional vowel is introduced to break the consonant cluster, resulting in its pronunciation as /fɪlɪm/ This deliberate use of epenthesis reflects a phonological adaptation employed by speakers, highlighting the linguistic strategies utilised by individuals from different language backgrounds. Additionally, external epenthesis is evident, as in the word “sport” /ɪspɔ:t/.

Parker and Riley (2009) contribute to understanding epenthesis in the context of Arabic learners acquiring English. They explain that Arab learners tend to insert the vowel /i/ in words like “plane”. Instead of pronouncing it correctly as /pleɪn/, they introduce the vowel /i/, resulting in the pronunciation /ɪpleɪn/. This serves as a linguistic adaptation strategy, underscoring the dynamic nature of language acquisition. The English language permits the occurrence of two or more consonants within the same syllable, contrasting with the constraints of the Arabic language, where such consonant clustering within a syllable is not typical. This linguistic divergence becomes apparent in the speech patterns of second language learners, with the introduction of an additional vowel.

The phonological adaptation of L1 Arabic speakers to English consonant clusters is a complex process influenced by various linguistic factors. Al-Samawi (2014) conducted an

experimental study focusing on utilising short vowel diacritics to aid L1 Arabic speakers in learning English consonant cluster pronunciation. This study highlights the challenges Arabic speakers face due to the rigid syllable structure of their native language, which typically does not accommodate the consonant clusters found in English. By introducing vowel diacritics where there are no vowels in English, Al-Samawi's study demonstrates a method to help Arabic learners overcome these difficulties. This approach does not suggest inherent flexibility in the Arabic syllable structure; rather, it shows how an external aid, such as vowel diacritics, can be used to bridge the gap between the rigid structure of Arabic and the more complex syllable patterns of English. However, more recent reviews have raised questions about the long-term effectiveness of this method, suggesting that while it may provide initial support, it may not lead to permanent changes in learners' pronunciation patterns.

Broselow (2017) asserts that Arabic syllables predominantly follow a CV or CVC pattern, with V or VC syllables being uncommon. This implies a requirement for syllables to have onsets, disallowing the initiation of a syllable with a vowel. Further examining Arabic syllable structure, Elramli (2012) presents an analysis of the distribution of syllable structures specifically within the Libyan context, as well as other Arabic varieties like Moroccan and Tunisian Arabic. Elramli's analysis excludes syllables with a vowel onset, emphasising the prevalence of onset consonants in Arabic syllables. Additionally, examples from Qatari Arabic demonstrate complex consonant clusters in the onset position specific to Gulf Arabic. The relevance of these findings to Libyan Arabic, which is the focus of your study, lies in their illustration of the rigid syllable structures that Libyan speakers might navigate. This understanding is crucial for identifying specific challenges that Libyan Arabic speakers face when learning English consonant clusters, especially considering the similarities and differences in syllable structure across these Arabic dialects. Therefore, the challenges encountered by Libyan speakers in dealing with consonant clusters can be attributed to the disparities between the Arabic and English inventories of long consonant clusters and the techniques employed to produce them. since insertion a vowel to break down the extended consonant clusters, reflecting the influence of the Arabic language's preference for simpler syllables over longer and more complex ones. This linguistic distinction plays a crucial role in shaping the pronunciation strategies adopted by speakers, underscoring the impact of native language patterns on the challenges faced by learners acquiring a second language.

By incorporating these insights into this research, I aim to elucidate how Libyan Arabic-speaking learners navigate the complexities of English phonology, particularly in mastering consonant clusters. This understanding will inform the development of targeted instructional

strategies and interventions tailored to the specific needs and linguistic backgrounds of Arabic learners, ultimately facilitating their English language proficiency and fluency.

3.3.2 Phonological Analysis of Arabic and English: Implications for Libyan Arabic Learners

The differing phonological structures of Arabic and English pose unique challenges for Libyan Arabic learners, influencing their acquisition and proficiency development in English. It is vital to provide a detailed analysis of the phonological relationship between Arabic and English, focusing specifically on the phonological challenges faced by Libyan Arabic learners. By examining the phonological features of both languages and their impact on language acquisition, this research seeks to offer insights into effective language teaching methodologies tailored to the needs of Libyan Arabic speakers.

Libyan Arabic exhibits distinct phonological features that influence learners' pronunciation and fluency in English. Research by Elramli (2012) focuses on the phonological processes within Misrata Libyan Arabic, specifically examining assimilatory processes and the role of constraints. Although Elramli's study primarily addresses how consonant assimilation and the effects of guttural consonants influence the phonological system of Misrata Libyan Arabic, it also touches upon broader patterns such as the simplification of consonant clusters and the reduction of unstressed vowels. Elramli's research employs a constraint-based framework to analyse these phonological patterns. He uses data from spoken Misrata Libyan Arabic, including phonetic transcriptions and natural speech samples, to provide evidence of how these processes occur. The study demonstrates that, while the focus is on assimilation processes, the simplification of consonant clusters and the reduction of unstressed vowels are also observable in the phonological structure of Misrata Libyan Arabic. The simplification of consonant clusters and the reduction of unstressed vowels in Libyan Arabic reflect the influence of this native language and contribute to the challenges learners face when adapting to English phonology. The phonological differences between Arabic and English contribute to phonological transfer, wherein learners apply phonological patterns from their native language to the target language.

To address the phonological challenges faced by Libyan Arabic learners, language teaching methodologies should incorporate targeted instruction on English phonology. Phonological awareness activities, such as explicit instruction on consonant clusters and vowel sounds, can help learners develop phonological sensitivity and improve their pronunciation skills (Derwing and Munro, 2015). Additionally, integrating the CLT approach, as demonstrated by Molina and Briesmaster (2017), can provide valuable opportunities for

learners to practice phonological production within authentic speaking contexts. Molina and Briesmaster's study highlights that the CLT approach enhances speaking skills by engaging learners in interactive and communicative activities. Through methods such as task-based learning, role-plays, and real-life communication scenarios, learners can develop their pronunciation and fluency in contexts that mirror actual language use. This approach shifts the focus from traditional phonological drills to meaningful communication, thereby fostering more effective speaking skills and helping learners become more proficient speakers. Research by Al-Mahrooqi *et al.* (2015) emphasises the importance of phonological awareness in second language acquisition, highlighting its impact on learners' phonological adaptation and pronunciation strategies.

In summary, the phonological analysis of Arabic and English reveals significant differences that impact Libyan Arabic learners' acquisition and proficiency development in English. Understanding these phonological challenges is essential for developing effective language teaching methodologies that address the specific needs of Libyan Arabic speakers. By integrating CLT activities, especially role-plays and problem-solving tasks, educators can help Libyan Arabic learners achieve greater proficiency in English pronunciation and fluency. These CLT activities provide learners with opportunities to practice and apply their pronunciation skills in realistic contexts, enhancing their ability to produce and use English sounds accurately.

3.3.3 Accuracy

In this context, Ryczek (2013, p. 34) characterises accuracy as "speaking with correct grammar, sentence structure, and fluency". This highlights the multifaceted nature of accuracy, encompassing not only grammatical correctness but also fluency and adherence to linguistic norms. Therefore, achieving fluency must be balanced with maintaining accuracy to ensure effective communication in the target language. Leong and Ahmadi (2017) argue in their study that second language students should prioritise grammatical accuracy in acquiring and learning the target language. They emphasise that educators must focus on correcting grammatical errors in their teaching settings to help learners develop a more accurate and effective use of the language. During speaking production, careful attention should be given to language accuracy, including pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammatical rules. In addition, achieving accuracy in vocabulary usage entails selecting appropriate words for specific contexts. In some instances, learners may use similar words in different contexts without conveying the same meaning (Leong and Ahmadi, 2017). Therefore, learners should possess the capability to use words correctly.

Grammatical errors

Poor speaking skills often result in an increased frequency of grammar errors, a pattern commonly observed among second language learners in English language classes in Libya. The study conducted in Misurata specifically identifies anxiety, fear of making mistakes, lack of self-confidence, and insufficient motivation as significant barriers to speaking proficiency among Libyan secondary school students. These psychological and contextual factors contribute to poorer speaking skills, which, in turn, lead to more frequent grammar errors during speech. Addressing these issues is crucial for improving speaking skills and overall effectiveness in language instruction in the Libyan context (Ben Raba'a, 2023). It is natural for learners to make grammar errors as they initiate their efforts of speaking and practicing a second language.

Frequent grammatical inaccuracies can significantly hinder effective communication and diminish perceived fluency and proficiency in second language learners. This assertion is supported by empirical research that underscores the critical role of grammatical accuracy in communicative success and overall language proficiency. A study by Révész *et al*. (2016) investigated the impact of complexity, accuracy, and fluency on communicative adequacy in second language speech. Their research highlights that grammatical accuracy is a crucial component for achieving communicative effectiveness. The study found that frequent grammatical errors lead to an increased incidence of filled pauses and interruptions in speech that disrupt the flow of communication. These interruptions are a manifestation of breakdown fluency and are strongly linked to reduced communicative adequacy. This means that errors in grammar not only interfere with the smoothness of speech but also affect how well the speaker's message is conveyed, ultimately impacting the effectiveness of communication. By creating more pauses and disruptions, grammatical inaccuracies compromise both the clarity and coherence of speech, leading to diminished perceived fluency and proficiency (Révész *et al*., 2016).

Supporting this, Suzuki and Kormos (2020) explored the language factors influencing clarity and the perception of fluency in argumentative discourse by L2 speakers. Their findings demonstrated a notable correlation between correct grammar usage and both speech clarity and perceived fluency. The research demonstrated that grammatical errors negatively impact comprehensibility and are closely linked to reduced perceptions of fluency. Native listeners were found to be more critical of fluency, highlighting that grammatical inaccuracies lead to perceptions of reduced language proficiency. Errors in grammar can disrupt the flow of speech, leading to pauses and difficulties in understanding, which in turn affect how fluent and

proficient the speaker appears to be. This research underscores that grammatical errors not only reflect deficiencies in language knowledge but also actively interfere with the effectiveness of communication and the listener's perception of fluency (Suzuki and Kormos, 2020).

Together, these studies provide a comprehensive understanding of how grammatical inaccuracies impact communication. They illustrate that frequent errors in grammar disrupt the flow of speech, create pauses, and negatively affect both the clarity of the message and the listener's perception of the speaker's fluency and proficiency. Addressing grammatical inaccuracies is therefore crucial for improving both the effectiveness of communication and the overall perception of language proficiency.

The influence of grammatical errors on speaking proficiency

The current study aims to enhance the speaking skills of second language learners by applying activities from the CLT approach. Specifically, it seeks to improve various aspects of speaking proficiency, such as WPM, consonant clusters, and lexical accuracy. In addition to focusing on these speaking skills, the study also addresses grammatical accuracy, particularly in areas like subject-verb agreement and verb tense, which are commonly problematic for language learners. Previous research has shown that errors in these grammatical areas can significantly disrupt communication and affect learners' overall performance. Kontogeorgou and Zafiri (2016) highlight how inaccuracies in subject-verb agreement and verb tense not only compromise grammatical correctness but also negatively impact learners' confidence and fluency. Their findings suggest that such errors contribute to increased anxiety and self-consciousness, which further hinder learners' willingness to engage in conversation. This heightened anxiety can create a negative feedback loop, where learners become more hesitant to speak, leading to even more frequent grammatical errors and further obstructing their progress.

Understanding specific grammatical errors, such as subject-verb agreement and verb tense inaccuracies, is crucial for developing effective language teaching strategies tailored to learners' needs. For example, errors in subject-verb agreement (e.g., using "they goes" instead of "they go") and verb tense inaccuracies (e.g., mixing past and present tenses) can significantly hinder communication and clarity. Applying CLT activities that focus on authentic communication while directly addressing these grammatical issues can help learners reduce these errors and improve their overall speaking proficiency. CLT activities, such as role-plays and problem-solving tasks, can be designed to specifically target and practice these grammatical structures in context. By integrating these activities with focused feedback on errors, learners can gain a better understanding of correct usage and apply it more effectively in their speech.

By targeting specific grammatical errors through tailored CLT activities, the study aims to improve both accuracy and fluency in Libyan second language learners. This approach integrates the reduction of errors with authentic communicative practice, creating a supportive and effective learning environment. Additionally, by focusing on grammatical issues within real-life contexts, educators can enhance speaking skills. This strategy not only fosters a natural flow of speech but also contributes to improved overall language proficiency and communication skills.

Justification for measuring grammatical errors.

It is natural for learners to start speaking with grammatical errors as they initiate to speak and practice a second language. This matches with what are commonly seen in the Libyan English language classrooms. In this context, it is indeed the morpheme {-s}. The third person singular present tense suffix {-s} is a morpheme because it conveys grammatical information (third person singular) and can be realised phonetically in different ways (as /s/, /z/, or /ɪz/ depending on the phonological environment). A descriptive example of this occurs with the third person singular present tense, where speakers omit the morpheme {-s}, as in the case of "my dad go" instead of "my dad goes" {/go/ vs. /goʊz/}. This omission, a common occurrence among language learners, underscores the challenges associated with mastering grammatical structures and highlights a specific area where learners may exhibit errors in their speech production.

3.3.4 Vocabulary

Vocabulary plays a vital role in speaking skills because it is considered fundamental to language proficiency. This is because possessing a wide vocabulary allows speakers to express their thoughts more accurately and clearly, and it also helps them understand what others are saying. Research by Schmitt (2010), particularly in his influential book, "Vocabulary in Language Teaching," emphasises the critical role that vocabulary knowledge plays in effective communication and overall language proficiency. Schmitt explores the various dimensions of vocabulary acquisition and its impact on language learning. His work research offers an in-depth analysis of the theories and methods related to vocabulary instruction. In his research, Schmitt discusses the importance of both the breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge. Breadth refers to the number of words a learner knows, while depth involves understanding the nuances of these words, including their meanings, uses, and associations. Schmitt examines several studies that demonstrate a clear link between a large vocabulary and enhanced language skills, indicating that learners with a rich vocabulary tend to communicate more efficiently. Schmitt also examines different methods of vocabulary instruction, such as explicit teaching

and incidental learning, and their effectiveness in enhancing learners' vocabulary. The research highlights that a robust vocabulary is essential for various language skills, including reading comprehension, listening, speaking, and writing. Overall, Schmitt's research underscores the significant role of vocabulary in achieving language proficiency and effective communication, providing a solid foundation for vocabulary instruction in language education.

In fact, research consistently demonstrates a strong correlation between participants' vocabulary size and their overall language proficiency, particularly in speaking skills. For instance, a study by Milton (2013) found that vocabulary knowledge is a significant predictor of language proficiency, including speaking abilities. In his study, Milton conducted a comprehensive analysis involving second language learners from various proficiency levels. The research involved assessing learners' vocabulary size and measuring their language proficiency through a range of tasks, including speaking tests and written assignments. The analysis revealed that learners with larger vocabularies demonstrated a greater ability to use a diverse range of expressions and words effectively, adapting their language to various contexts. These speakers were found to be more persuasive, engaging, and skilled at achieving their communication goals. In contrast, individuals with more limited vocabulary faced challenges in expressing themselves, often resulting in repetition, hesitation, or inconsistency in their communication.

In addition, vocabulary acquisition is a critical factor in predicting proficiency and language usage (Nation, 2001), and in contexts such as Libya, English proficiency is increasingly valued by employers (Alharthi, 2020). Indeed, learners often face challenges in expressing themselves due to vocabulary limitations (Nation, 2001), hindering effective communication. Research by Khan *et al.* (2018), for instance, found that both learners and teachers cited a deficiency in vocabulary as a primary obstacle to English speaking proficiency. Additionally, meaningful communication is more likely to result from acquiring a diverse vocabulary rather than solely focusing on grammar rules, aligning with CLT principles (Cook, 2016). That said, it has been found that while learners may comprehend new vocabulary during instruction, they often struggle to retain and use it in conversation (Khan *et al.*, 2018). Learners with a limited vocabulary may require more time to acquire new words, hindering their ability to engage in oral communication (August *et al.*, 2005). Hence, providing sufficient opportunities to expand vocabulary is essential for EFL learners (Khan *et al.*, 2018). Integrating vocabulary knowledge into second language learning and teaching is essential, as consistently highlighted by EFL researchers and educators. Nation and Nation (2001) emphasise that a

robust vocabulary significantly enhances speaking skills, making vocabulary acquisition a crucial component of language mastery.

3.4 Speaking Proficiency and Interactional Competence: Key Concepts and Measures

Speaking proficiency is no longer viewed solely as the ability to produce grammatically correct and fluent speech but as a broader construct that includes interactional and discourse management skills (Galaczi and Taylor, 2018). The conceptualization of speaking proficiency has evolved beyond a focus on grammatical accuracy and fluency to encompass broader competencies, including interactional and discourse management skills. Galaczi and Taylor (2018) argue that effective communication is not merely about linguistic accuracy but involves the ability to co-construct meaning through active engagement with interlocutors. Their research emphasizes that interactional competence consists of both cognitive and social dimensions, requiring speakers to manage turn-taking, negotiate meaning, and adapt their responses based on contextual cues. Similarly, Plough, Banerjee, and Iwashita (2018) highlight the limitations of traditional language assessments that prioritize structural accuracy while overlooking dynamic elements of interaction. Their findings demonstrate that successful communication is highly dependent on the speaker's ability to manage interactions fluidly, including initiating and sustaining conversations, responding appropriately to conversational shifts, and employing discourse strategies to maintain coherence. They emphasize that assessing these components is crucial for a more comprehensive evaluation of communicative competence.

These insights underscore the need for a multidimensional approach to language assessment, one that accounts for both linguistic accuracy and the pragmatic, discourse-level features of spoken interaction. This perspective is particularly relevant for communicative language teaching (CLT) methodologies, which aim to develop not just learners' grammatical competence but also their ability to engage in meaningful, real-world communication.

This shift reflects the growing recognition that communication is inherently interactive, and that effective speaking involves the ability to navigate conversational dynamics, manage turn-taking, and adapt language use based on context (Galaczi and Taylor, 2018). While Complexity, Accuracy, and Fluency (CAF) measures have been widely utilized to assess speaking proficiency, they predominantly focus on monologic speech production and may not fully account for the complexities of real-world, interactive communication. Research suggests that CAF measures primarily evaluate linguistic output at the individual level, such as syntactic complexity, grammatical accuracy, and speech rate, without adequately incorporating

interactive competencies like turn-taking, negotiation of meaning, and responsiveness to interlocutors. Housen and Kuiken (2009) argue that while CAF measures provide valuable insights into language proficiency, they often fail to capture the dynamic and co-constructed nature of spoken interaction, which is crucial for effective communication in authentic settings. Consequently, relying exclusively on CAF measures may present an incomplete assessment of a speaker's communicative competence, particularly in interactive discourse contexts

Roever and Kasper (2018) emphasize the necessity of assessments that evaluate both linguistic and interactional dimensions of speaking proficiency. They argue that successful communication relies not only on linguistic accuracy but also on the ability to manage interactional dynamics, including responding to conversational cues, negotiating meaning, and maintaining the flow of discourse. Similarly, Galaczi and Taylor (2018) advocate for the integration of interactional competence into language assessment; however, a critical challenge remains regarding its operationalization and measurement. Unlike CAF measures, which provide quantifiable linguistic indicators, interactional competence encompasses a range of discourse strategies that are inherently more complex to assess reliably. Furthermore, research on CAF measures highlights their limitations in capturing the dynamic and co-constructed nature of interactional proficiency, underscoring the need for more comprehensive assessment frameworks. Roever and Kasper (2018) demonstrate that certain features, such as hesitations can serve functional roles in discourse. These features are often viewed as indicators of reduced fluency, yet they play a crucial role in planning, facilitating turn-taking, and managing face-threatening situations. Consequently, a rigid application of fluency measures such as Words Per Minute (WPM) may misrepresent a speaker's actual communicative ability. Plough et al. (2018) similarly emphasize the need for a more integrated approach that combines traditional linguistic measures with interactional competence to ensure a more comprehensive evaluation of speaking proficiency.

Despite the advantages of incorporating interactional competence into speaking assessment, challenges remain in determining how best to balance linguistic accuracy, fluency, and interactional skills. While fluency has traditionally been measured in terms of speed and smoothness, interactional fluency requires consideration of conversational adaptability, appropriateness of responses, and the ability to manage dialogue structure. The integration of these elements raises methodological questions regarding how to score and interpret interactional features within standardized assessments. Additionally, while some studies highlight the importance of interactional competence, others caution that overemphasizing these aspects may come at the expense of grammatical and lexical accuracy, which remain

essential for effective communication. To address these concerns, this study adopts a multidimensional approach to speaking proficiency assessment, integrating both monologic and interactive components. Building on insights from Galaczi and Taylor (2018) and Plough et al. (2018), the study incorporates assessment tasks that evaluate language production. These tasks are designed to reflect authentic communicative contexts, ensuring that assessment captures both linguistic and interactional aspects of speaking proficiency. By incorporating these elements, the study aligns with current research advocating for a more holistic approach to language assessment, bridging the gap between traditional fluency measures and interactional competence.

While this approach enhances the validity of speaking proficiency assessment, it also highlights the need for further research into the weighting and operationalization of interactional competence within standardized language tests. The findings of Roever and Kasper (2018) suggest that interactional competence should not be viewed as separate from linguistic proficiency but as an integral component of communicative competence. By broadening the conceptualization of speaking proficiency, this study contributes to ongoing discussions on language assessment and underscores the importance of integrating both linguistic and interactional dimensions in evaluating communicative effectiveness.

3.5 Measures for Assessing Speaking Proficiency

This study employs a range of measures to assess speaking proficiency, focusing on fluency, accuracy, and vocabulary. Fluency is evaluated through Words Per Minute (WPM), hesitations per minute, and clusters per minute. WPM provides a straightforward measure of speech rate, capturing the speed at which learners produce language during communication tasks. Hesitations per minute are used to quantify interruptions in speech flow, such as pauses, filler words, or repetitions, which are critical indicators of real-time language processing and fluency development (De Jong & Perfetti, 2011). Clusters per minute measure the occurrence of fluent and cohesive speech segments, offering insights into the speaker's ability to maintain natural and continuous communication. Accuracy is measured by counting grammatical errors per minute, with a specific focus on errors in subject-verb agreement and tense usage. These errors are prioritized because they are fundamental to constructing grammatically correct sentences and maintaining effective communication. To measure vocabulary gain, this study employed two approaches. First, the number of nouns, verbs, and adjectives used per minute in participants' speech was counted, aligning with the measures for fluency and accuracy to ensure consistency. Second, as supplementary evidence, vocabulary use was analysed with reference to Philip's (2002) word list to identify less familiar vocabulary items. This dual approach

provided a balanced analysis, capturing both quantitative changes in lexical usage and qualitative shifts in the use of advanced or less familiar words. This multidimensional approach to assessing speaking proficiency ensures a comprehensive analysis of how fluency, accuracy, and lexical richness are developed through the interventions employed in this study. By integrating these measures, the research aims to provide nuanced insights into learners' progress and the effectiveness of the pedagogical approaches under investigation.

3.6 Factors Affecting Speaking Proficiency

Developing speaking skills in second language learners is influenced by various factors, especially within the CLT framework. One significant challenge learners encounter is the tendency to resort to their mother tongue during speaking tasks. When learners heavily rely on their native language, it hampers their ability to practice and improve their target language speaking skills. Research by Tuan and Mai (2015) explored the difficulties English language learners face when expressing themselves in English compared to their native language. The study involved 120 Vietnamese university students who were surveyed and tested on their ability to express ideas in both Vietnamese and English. Tuan and Mai used both quantitative measures (such as proficiency tests and vocabulary assessments) and qualitative methods (including interviews and written responses) to evaluate students' expressive capabilities in each language. Their findings revealed that students generally experienced greater ease and fluency when expressing themselves in Vietnamese, their native language, as opposed to English.

This discrepancy was attributed to limitations in vocabulary and linguistic proficiency in English, highlighting that while students are often more articulate and confident in their mother tongue, they struggle with complexities and nuances when using a second language. The study underscores the significant role that vocabulary and overall language proficiency play in effective self-expression. Therefore, educators need to implement strategies within CLT classrooms to encourage learners to use the target language more consistently during speaking activities.

Recent research by Derwing and Munro (2015) highlights the importance of providing learners with structured opportunities to develop their vocabulary and grammatical proficiency within the context of speaking activities, and by incorporating vocabulary-building exercises and language practice drills into CLT lessons, educators can help learners overcome these challenges and improve their speaking skills. Exposure to an English language environment is also vital for developing speaking skills among second language learners. Interaction with native speakers and regular engagement with the language provide valuable opportunities for

learners to practice and enhance their oral communication abilities. Therefore, educators should incorporate activities that promote real-life interaction and communication in English within CLT classrooms to facilitate speaking skill development.

In contexts where English language exposure is limited, learners may struggle to enhance their speaking skills due to a lack of opportunities for practice. Zhang (2009) conducted research on second language acquisition, specifically examining the role of input, interaction, and output in developing oral fluency within EFL (English as a Foreign Language) settings. This study utilised two main instruments: tests of oral fluency and face-to-face interviews. Zhang's research highlighted that effective input, interaction, and output are crucial for achieving non-native oral fluency. The study identified key factors contributing to the challenges faced by Chinese English learners, such as insufficient effective input and output, a lack of real interaction needs, and an overemphasis on language forms and written tests. These findings underscore the necessity for innovative approaches to provide learners with meaningful opportunities for oral communication and interaction in English.

Previous studies conducted in Libya have identified low proficiency in spoken English among learners, attributed to factors such as low motivation, and limited exposure to English language environments. Recent research by Shabani, (2013) reinforces this finding, emphasising the need for targeted interventions to address these challenges and enhance speaking proficiency among Libyan learners. Therefore, English language teachers in Libya should explore strategies within the CLT framework to create engaging and interactive speaking activities that motivate learners and provide them with opportunities to practice and improve their speaking skills effectively.

To sum up, it is essential to synthesize the discussions presented throughout this chapter and earlier sections on the conceptualization of "speaking proficiency" and the evaluation of CLT interventions. Speaking proficiency should be defined as a multifaceted construct that goes beyond the traditional measures of fluency, accuracy, and vocabulary (CAF). It should encompass not only linguistic elements but also the ability to manage interactions, negotiate meaning, and engage in meaningful communication within diverse social contexts. This broader view aligns with the principles of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), which emphasizes the development of communicative competence, including interactional competence. Therefore, the assessment of speaking proficiency in CLT interventions should not solely rely on CAF measures but should also incorporate tasks and evaluations that assess the learners' ability to manage interactions, respond appropriately, and maintain discourse coherence. By doing so, we ensure that assessments reflect the real-world language use that

CLT aims to promote, offering a more holistic and accurate picture of a learner's speaking ability. This approach highlights the importance of moving beyond traditional metrics to better align assessments with the dynamic and interactive nature of communication.

3.7 Summary

This chapter has provided a detailed review of literature concerning the various components of speaking skills as they pertain to the English language classroom. Characteristics of speaking skills, including fluency, accuracy, and vocabulary, as well as the activities that can be employed to enhance these skills have been explored. Clearly speaking skills are paramount for second language learners and should be concentrated on by teachers in the English language classroom. A focus on speaking skills enables learners to effectively communicate in real-world scenarios, which is essential for language proficiency. Furthermore, by prioritizing speaking activities, teachers can foster greater student engagement and interaction, both critical components of language acquisition. As studies have shown strong evidence that activities aligned with the CLT approach can significantly improving speaking skills, including fluency, accuracy, and vocabulary acquisition, it is the intention of this present study to explore its efficacy in the Libyan context. This, in the following chapter, the methodology proposed for this research is presented.

Chapter 4: Experimental Study

4.1 Introduction

The relevant literature concerning the effectiveness of both GTM and CLT on speaking skills has been thoroughly researched and presented in preceding chapters. This chapter outlines the methodology employed in the current study. It comprises six primary sections. The initial section delves into the study's participants, offering a comprehensive overview of their roles and involvement. Following this, the second section reveals and provides justifications behind the chosen experimental research methodology. The following section presents the methodological approach, including the instruments and intervention utilised, such as the lesson plan. Additionally, this section outlines the weekly topics and associated activities. The fourth section details the procedure of the study, with the following section outlining the data collection process. Section five interprets the methodology employed for data analysis, encompassing recording, transcribing, and coding procedures. The chapter concludes with the presentation of the results from the pilot pre-test and a summary of the chapter's contents, encapsulating the key points presented throughout.

4.2 Participants

4.2.1 Sample of the Study

The current research focuses specifically on Libyan students at Elmergib University for several reasons. Firstly, there is a notable gap in the literature regarding the application of CLT for improving speaking skills in Libyan higher education, and this study aims to address that gap. Additionally, my personal connection to Elmergib University, where I completed my undergraduate studies and located in my city of residence, provides a deep understanding of the academic environment and student population, facilitating a more informed and practical research approach.

Secondly, English language instruction is compulsory in all Libyan primary and secondary schools. Therefore, students enrolled in the English department at Elmergib University are expected to possess at least basic speaking skills to effectively engage and participate in their classes. The significance of English language proficiency in Libyan institutions is underscored by the mandatory inclusion of English language subjects, which have recently been introduced from the first year of primary school. The participants within the experimental groups were determined to be at the intermediate level B1 based on an English

proficiency test administered by their English department. This test, designed and validated by the department, is regularly used to assess students' language skills and classify their proficiency levels. The B1 classification was further supported by their academic performance and teacher evaluations, ensuring the reliability of the assessment. Students at the intermediate level are likely to possess a sufficient knowledge of the English language to use and practice it in verbal form. Therefore, this level is ideal for the present study. Furthermore, all participants were full-time students who had graduated from secondary schools before enrolling in the English Department at Elmergib University.

All participants were second-year students in the English Department. They shared a common linguistic and ethnic background. Furthermore, the age range of the participants was between 20 and 23 years old. These participants had undergone a structured English language education, having studied English for five years at the primary school level, followed by three years at the secondary school level, and an additional year at university. The participants in this study were enrolled in university-level English courses, which were compulsory as part of their main discipline of study. These English classes serve as a core component of the university's curriculum, aiming to equip students with advanced language proficiency to meet both academic and professional demands. The focus and learning objectives of these classes emphasize developing the four key language skills: speaking, listening, reading, and writing. The curriculum is designed to align with the grammar translation method, which prioritizes a thorough understanding of grammar rules and vocabulary, often through translation exercises and written practice, with less emphasis on interactive or spoken language use. Typical classroom activities include translating texts between English and the students' native language, analysing grammatical structures, and memorizing vocabulary lists. Assessments in these classes often evaluate students' ability to apply grammatical rules accurately and demonstrate an extensive vocabulary. While speaking and listening activities may be included, they are secondary to the primary focus on written and grammatical accuracy.

To facilitate the research, significant effort was made to ensure that the classes were of equal size and possessed an identical spread of English language proficiency. All three classes were carefully balanced, with minimal differences observed in terms of learner age and duration of prior exposure to English language learning.

4.2.2 Participant Selection

The sample for this research comprised 45 students divided into three groups: a control group receiving traditional instruction, a CLT group engaging in role-play activities, and a CLT group engaging in problem-solving activities. Further details have been discussed in previous

chapters. Further clarification regarding the activities and materials utilised in the study will be provided in subsequent sections of this chapter.

Various factors were considered when selecting learners to participate in this study. these included the availability of participants during the experiment and their willingness to volunteer, a necessary element of any study involving participants in terms of adhering to ethical standards, as highlighted by Dörnyei (2007). Prior to engaging in activities such as collaborative problem-solving and role-playing, learners received an oral overview of the study's purpose and nature. They were also provided with a Participant Information Form [Appendix E] and Consent Form [Appendix D]. This procedure was similarly conducted with the control group. The study specifically targeted Libyan students at Elmergib University. To ensure consistency in participants' learning experiences, the results of second-year students were reviewed, and their first-year files were examined. It was confirmed that all participants had taken the same modules with the same teachers and had successfully completed their first year.

The division of students into groups was based on previous assessments and results. Participants were classified into three categories within the B1 level: those with grades between 40% and 59%, 60% and 79%, and 80% and above. Students scoring 40–59 are positioned at the lower end of B1, while those scoring 60–79 and 80+ demonstrate higher proficiency within the same level. Each category was then further divided into groups. For example, if there were nine participants in the highest category, they were divided evenly among the control group, experimental group one, and experimental group two. This ensured that no group had a superior advantage over the others in terms of English language proficiency, as each group consisted of participants with varying levels of grades. It is essential to note that in real educational settings, classes rarely consist entirely of students with identical proficiency levels. The decision to include participants with varying proficiency thus aimed to reflect this natural classroom diversity, thereby enhancing the study's external validity and applicability to authentic teaching environments.

4.3 Experimental Design

The process of designing the current experimental research underwent several stages. Initially, participants were divided into groups, followed by the administration of a pre-test before the commencement of the course. Subsequently, a post-test was conducted upon the course's completion to measure participants' performance. These stages are informed by established methodologies commonly used in experimental research. Examples of these studies

are presented below. These preceding studies aimed to investigate the efficacy of the CLT method on learners' speaking proficiency. Their findings consistently indicated a positive correlation between CLT implementation and enhanced speaking skills, with experimental groups exhibiting notable improvements compared to control groups. Such outcomes are also predicted in the present study. For instance, Nation's (1989) research, conducted at the English Language Institute, Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand, focused on the development of fluency among learners, particularly through the implementation of the 4/3/2 technique. This method required speakers to deliver the same speech to three different listeners within progressively decreasing time intervals. Nation assessed fluency by calculating the number of words spoken per minute.

Similarly, Arevart and Nation (1991) measured fluency by evaluating the number of words articulated per minute during the 4/3/2 activity. Their study demonstrated enhanced speaking performance among learners, as evidenced by reduced hesitations in subsequent retellings of the same story. In another study, Yang (2005) compared the efficacy of cooperative CL and traditional teaching methods on the English-speaking proficiency of Taiwanese college students. Over the course of eight weeks, Yang found that the CL approach positively impacted learners' speaking performance. To assess speaking skills, Yang administered both pre- and post-tests using the General English Proficiency Test (GEPT). These studies collectively contribute to the body of research supporting the effectiveness of CLT methods in fostering speaking proficiency among language learners, providing valuable insights for the design and implementation of the current experimental research.

According to Ning (2011)’s study, which implemented cooperative learning methods in a high school ELT class comprising 52 first-year students in China, the aim was to provide students with increased opportunities for language production, thus enhancing fluency and communication efficiency. Through the administration of pre-tests and post-tests, the study found that learners' English competence, particularly in speaking, listening, and reading, significantly improved following the application of cooperative learning techniques. In a later study by Yang (2014) he focused on participants in Chinese high schools, applying the 4/3/2 activity to investigate the trainability of speaking fluency through CLT. The participants, consisting of 35 EFL teachers and 302 students aged 16 to 18, were selected randomly from various senior high schools in mainland China. The study spanned three months and concluded that CLT effectively enhances speaking fluency. In similar research by Safitri (2015), conducted at SMPN 1 Semen Kediri, Indonesia, pre- and post-testing was used to assess the

impact of CLT on learners' speaking performance. The results indicated a notable improvement in speaking proficiency among learners following the implementation of the CLT approach.

Rahayu's (2016) experimental study, conducted at SMPN 2 in Yosowilangun Lumajang, Indonesia, focused on the effect of CLT, specifically using role-play techniques, on learners' speaking skills. The experimental CLT group demonstrated significantly greater improvement in speaking performance compared to the control group, highlighting the effectiveness of CLT in enhancing speaking skills. In a similar vein, Al-Garni and Almuhammadi (2019)'s study based in Saudi Arabia, focusing on the English language learning experiences of Saudi students. collected quantitative data from pre- and post-tests conducted with experimental and control groups. The experimental group taught using CLT activities such as role-play, problem-solving, and interviews, showed substantial improvement in speaking skills compared to the control group, which received traditional instruction. This suggests that CLT activities effectively enhance learners' speaking proficiency.

The studies by Al-Garni and Almuhammadi (2019), Ning (2011), Rahayu (2016), Safitri (2015), and Yang (2005; 2014) collectively contribute valuable insights into the effectiveness of various CLT activities in enhancing speaking skills among language learners. However, these studies primarily differ from the present research in terms of their methodologies and specific educational contexts. For example, Ning (2011) assessed the impact of cooperative learning on multiple language skills, including speaking, listening, and reading, in a high school setting over an extended period. In contrast, my study focuses exclusively on speaking skills among university students during a concise six-week period. The choice of a six-week timeframe was informed by pedagogical research, which suggests that targeted interventions within this period can lead to noticeable improvements in specific language skills. This duration is often sufficient to observe significant changes in speaking proficiency, especially when the instruction is intensive and focused, as in this study. While longer-term studies might offer deeper insights into sustained language development, the six-week period was chosen to balance the need for thorough investigation with practical constraints, ensuring that observable progress could be documented within a reasonable timeframe. This approach allows for a concentrated examination of the effects of the intervention on speaking skills, providing valuable insights that can be applied in similar educational settings.

Research supports the effectiveness of short-term intensive language programs in enhancing specific language skills. For example, Martinsen (2011) demonstrates that short-term study abroad experiences can significantly improve oral skills in learners. This study shows that even brief, intensive periods of language immersion are capable of leading to notable

advancements in speaking proficiency. Martinsen's research suggests that the duration of such programs, although relatively short, can still facilitate substantial improvements in language skills by providing focused and immersive language practice. This aligns with the rationale behind implementing a six-week course, which is designed to offer concentrated practice and exposure, thereby allowing for considerable gains in participants' speaking abilities.

Additionally, while studies such as Yang's (2005) employed a combination of CLT techniques across various contexts, this research utilises a controlled experimental design with a singular focus on speaking proficiency, applying pre-test and post-test evaluations. By critically examining these studies here and in previous chapters their strengths and limitations have been highlighted to inform the methodology and objectives of this present study. It is for this reason that there is here a focus on speaking skills within a university context, thereby contributing to the existing literature on CLT efficacy in tertiary education, underscore the efficacy of CLT methodologies in improving learners' speaking skills across diverse educational contexts, and hopefully providing valuable insights for educators seeking to enhance language acquisition and proficiency through innovative pedagogical approaches.

This study's intervention, which utilizes role-play and problem-solving tasks, is closely aligned with its outcome measures: fluency, grammatical accuracy, and vocabulary range. The choice of these interactive tasks is rooted in both theoretical and empirical foundations of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and the evolving conceptualization of speaking proficiency. As emphasized in recent research (Galaczi & Taylor, 2018; Plough et al., 2018; Roever & Kasper, 2018), speaking proficiency extends beyond linguistic accuracy and fluency to include interactional competence, which involves managing turn-taking, negotiating meaning, and maintaining discourse coherence. Given this broader perspective, role-play provides opportunities for learners to develop both monologic fluency and interactional skills by requiring them to sustain dialogue, respond to conversational cues, and adjust their speech based on situational demands. Similarly, problem-solving tasks engage learners in cognitively demanding exchanges that necessitate not only accurate language use but also flexibility in discourse strategies. These tasks align with findings that highlight the importance of interactive, task-based assessments in evaluating communicative effectiveness rather than isolated linguistic proficiency (Plough et al., 2018).

The alignment between the intervention and the measures of speaking proficiency in this study is further justified by the multidimensional approach to assessing fluency, accuracy, and vocabulary range. While traditional fluency measures such as Words Per Minute (WPM) capture speed, they do not account for interactional fluency pauses, hesitations, and discourse

markers which play functional roles in conversation (Roever & Kasper, 2018). This study addresses this gap by incorporating measures such as hesitations per minute and clusters per minute, ensuring that fluency assessment reflects both linguistic processing and conversational adaptability. Similarly, grammatical accuracy is assessed in the context of real-time interaction, where participants must construct grammatically coherent utterances while managing turn-taking and discourse flow (Galaczi & Taylor, 2018). The evaluation of vocabulary range is also designed to align with the communicative demands of role-play and problem-solving tasks, emphasizing learners' ability to use diverse and contextually appropriate lexical resources. By integrating these dimensions, the study ensures that its assessment framework aligns with contemporary perspectives on speaking proficiency, moving beyond traditional CAF measures to encompass the complexities of real-world communication.

Moving now to the experimental process, in the current study, participants underwent pre- and post-intervention assessments using identical tests. The main questions posed to participants during both the pre-test and post-test were carefully modified to ensure their relevance to the study's concepts. These questions aimed to prompt participants to engage in spoken discourse and were structured as follows:

- Could you please introduce yourself?
- What did you do last weekend?
- What are your plans for your holiday?

The design of these questions was intentional, aiming to facilitate participants' oral expression while maintaining simplicity and accessibility for learners to convey their thoughts in the target language. Furthermore, the questions were strategically crafted to encompass different verb tenses (present, past, future), thereby affording participants the opportunity to transition fluidly between tenses during their speech. Moreover, the lesson plans were intricately linked to these main questions, with each lesson centring around one of the designated questions. This approach ensured alignment between instructional content and assessment objectives, thereby reinforcing learners' proficiency in responding to the specific prompts.

Following the completion of both the pre-test and post-test assessments, data analysis involved comparing participants' performance across these two testing phases. This comparative analysis aimed to ascertain whether there were noticeable improvements in participants' speaking proficiency following the intervention period. By examining the participants' responses to the identical questions posed before and after the intervention, the

study sought to evaluate the efficiency of the intervention in enhancing participants' speaking skills.

4.4 Pre-Intervention Testing

4.4.1 Purpose and Procedure

Before initiating the intervention, it was essential to ensure that the groups were comparable to prevent any pre-existing differences from affecting the study's outcomes. To achieve this, a one-way ANOVA test was conducted on the pre-test results of all participants. This analysis aimed to identify any significant differences between the groups concerning their baseline performance on key measures: words per minute, clusters, hesitations, and grammar errors and vocabulary use.

4.4.2 Testing for Differences between Groups before Intervention

In the early stages of data analysis, a crucial step involved conducting a one-way ANOVA test on the pre-test results of all participants to identify any significant differences between the groups regarding the measures of speaking skills. This analysis was conducted using R programming to determine whether any statistically significant differences existed between the groups before the intervention began.

The following R code was used for the analysis:

```
# Running the one-way ANOVA for Words Per Minute

res.aov <- aov(words ~ condi, data = df)

# Viewing the summary of the ANOVA test

summary(res.aov)
```

In this code, “words” represents the WPM variable, “condi” represents the different groups, and “df” is the dataset used in the analysis. This code was applied to each of the key measures (WPM, Clusters, Hesitations, Grammar Errors, and Vocabulary use). The results confirmed that there were no significant differences between the groups at the pre-test stage, ensuring that any observed effects in the post-test phase could be attributed to the intervention rather than pre-existing differences.

Word count					
Condition	Df	Sum Sq	Mean Sq	F value	Pr(>F)
Between groups	2	30.8	15.38	1.569	0.22
Residuals	42	411.6	9.80		
Clusters					
Between groups	2	2.74	1.373	0.406	0.66
Residuals	42	141.9	3.379		
Hesitations					
Between groups	2	6.11	3.055	1.404	0.25
Residuals	42	91.39	2.176		
Grammatical errors					
Between groups	2	0.085	0.04267	0.163	0.85
Residuals	42	11.007	0.26208		
Nouns					
Between groups	2	1.18	0.59	0.598	0.554
Residuals	42	411.6	9.80		
Verbs					
Between groups	2	2.34	1.17	1.27	0.292
Residuals	42	38.63	0.92		
Adjectives					
Between groups	2	0.51	0.25	0.754	0.477
Residuals	42	13.83	0.33		

Table 4.1

One-Way ANOVA Test

Before data analysis, it is imperative to first establish the absence of significant differences between the groups at the outset. To achieve this, the one-way ANOVA test, a reliable tool for determining whether any statistically significant differences exist between groups prior to any interventions, was used. By examining the participants' pre-test results, this analysis helped shed light on any pre-existing differences between the control and experimental groups, specifically concerning the frequency of words, hesitations, clusters, the frequency of grammatical errors as well as the vocabulary use (Nouns, Verbs and Adjectives) per-minute.

Upon examination, the results of the one-way ANOVA test show that no statistically significant differences between the groups regarding their WPM within their speech during the pre-test stage. This declaration is strengthened by the reported P-value of 0.22 derived from the one-way ANOVA test, indicating a lack of significant differentiation among the groups during their pre-test phase. The primary focus was directed towards the participants' pre-test results, with the aim of assessing whether any noteworthy differences existed among the groups concerning the clusters that appeared in their speech. The results of the one-way ANOVA test

presented a p-value of 0.66, revealing the absence of a statistically significant differentiation between the groups in terms of cluster occurrence during the pre-test. The one-way ANOVA test produced an overall reported P-value of 0.25, proving of the absence of any statistically significant difference between the groups in their pre-test performance, particularly in relation to the number of hesitations present within their speech. There is also a lack of significant differentiation among the groups during their pre-test phase in terms of the frequency of grammar errors per minute, with a P-value of 0.85. The one-way ANOVA tests for vocabulary (nouns, verbs, and adjectives) during the pre-test revealed no significant differences between the groups. Specifically, the P-value for nouns was 0.554, for verbs it was 0.292, and for adjectives it was 0.477. These results indicate that the groups used nouns, verbs, and adjectives similarly during the pre-test phase.

4.5 Methodological Approach and Instruments

The experimental design of this study comprises pre- and post-tests to evaluate the speaking proficiency of second language learners. Following the administration of the pre-test, intervention was implemented for both the experimental and control groups, the intervention was conducted, and then the post-test was administered to assess any improvements in speaking skills resulting from the intervention.

The pre- and post-speaking tests were structured to last between five to seven minutes each. Prior to commencing the activities and regular instruction, all participants underwent the pre-test. "Regular instruction" refers to the structured lessons and teaching sessions designed to enhance participants' speaking skills. This instruction included targeted exercises, practice drills, and interactive activities aimed at improving various aspects of spoken English. The instruction was delivered according to a set curriculum that focused on specific language skills and strategies, ensuring that participants received comprehensive and consistent educational support throughout the study. Prior to commencing the intervention, all participants underwent a pre-test, which they repeated at the end of the six-week period. The use of the same test for both assessments, along with participants' familiarity with the test format and content, potentially had positive effects on the results.

Familiarity with the test could have contributed to improved performance on the post-test, as students may have become more comfortable and confident with the test format and tasks. This increased comfort might have reduced test anxiety and allowed participants to demonstrate their true speaking abilities more effectively. Additionally, prior exposure to the test could have helped students better understand the types of questions and tasks they would

face, potentially leading to more accurate and reflective measurements of their speaking skills. This enhanced performance may thus provide a clearer indication of the intervention's impact on improving speaking proficiency, as students could apply their newly acquired skills more effectively in the context of a familiar assessment formal. Before initiating the tests, participants received a comprehensive overview and instructions regarding the test's format and nature. This included an explanation of the various sections comprising the speaking test, followed by guidance on the expected time duration for completion. This preparatory briefing ensured that participants were adequately informed and prepared for the assessment process.

4.5.1 Teacher Training

In the control group, the teacher adhered to conventional instructional practices, implementing the planning and instruction methods for which they were trained. Within this framework, the teacher assumed the role of controller and primary instructor while learners adopted a passive role, primarily listening to the teacher's instructions. The teacher dominated most of the speaking time in class, rarely asking for input from the students who remained seated for most of the lesson. The primary responsibility of the teacher in the control group was to identify and correct errors made by students. This correction-centric approach often involved the translation of grammatical rules, vocabulary, and expressions from the TL into the learners' L1. Consequently, participants were tasked with memorising translated material. The instructional focus predominantly revolved around the acquisition of grammatical rules, reading comprehension, and translation exercises.

In contrast to the control group, the experimental groups underwent a clearly different instructional approach characterised by an intensified emphasis on fluency and accuracy in English language speaking skills. The teacher's primary objective was to foster meaningful engagement among learners in actively using and practicing the language. Learners were afforded sufficient time to express their views and suggestions, with an emphasis on communicative fluency over linguistic form. As learners attempted to communicate effectively, the teacher adopted an accepting attitude towards errors, recognising them as a natural side effect of the language acquisition process. This approach aligns with the declaration of Larsen-Freeman (2000) that effective communication can go beyond linguistic limitations. Within this framework, the teacher assumed a more facilitative role, acting as a counsellor and advisor rather than the primary source of instruction. Learners took on a leading role in the learning process, with the teacher providing guidance and support as needed. During classroom activities, the teacher actively monitored learners' performance, making note of errors to address later in collaboration with the learners.

In sum, the instructional design involves using experimental groups engaged in active modes of learning, such as group problem-solving activities, aimed at maximising learner engagement and promoting negotiation of meaning. Techniques advocated by Savignon (2002), such as group work and pair activities, were employed to facilitate active participation and spontaneous language use. Learners were encouraged to creatively utilise English in problem-solving tasks, despite occasional errors in speech. The teacher provided opportunities for learners to self-correct errors before offering feedback and explanations, fostering a supportive learning environment conducive to effective communication. Throughout the instructional process, the teacher actively facilitated communication, creating conditions that promoted learner engagement and interaction. By assuming responsibility for establishing suitable learning conditions and topics, the teacher sought to encourage learners to communicate effectively and meaningfully.

4.5.2 Topics Covered Each Week

Table 4.2 provides a complete summary of the curriculum followed over the course of the six weeks of the study. Details include the length of the lesson, the overarching lesson topic, the language features focused on, and the linguistic functions that the students were to practise.

Week	Lenth of lesson (hr)	Topic	Feature	Functions and Situations
One	2:00	Greeting and introducing the language	Present simple: How do you do. Hi, nice to meet you. Pleased to meet you.	Real life: learners introducing each other.
Two	2:00	Daily routines	Present simple 1- verb to be: am, is, and are. 2- main verb (do, does) Frequency adverbs: always, often, sometimes, etc…	Real life: learners talking to each other about their daily routines.
Three	2:00	Interesting story of your life in the past	Past simple: regular and irregular verbs.	Real life: telling real story to others.
Four	2:00	Lost patience	Past simple: Getting impatient Lose my temper.	Real life: talking to others about real situation.
Five	2:00	Holiday and Travelling	Future simple: planning; I will	Real life: planning for holiday.
Six	2:00	What it is your future plan	Future simple: I want to be.	Real life: talking with others about future job

Table 4.2

Summary of Curriculum for the Intervention

4.6 Intervention

As previously stated, the experiment spanned six weeks, from Sunday, 18th July 2021, until Sunday, 29th August 2021, with participants engaging in a single two-hour speaking session per week. Each of the two experimental groups was assigned a specific activity type:

either collaborative problem-solving or role-playing. In contrast, the control group adhered to traditional instructional procedures, including translation, drilling, and memorisation, which are commonly employed in their classroom settings. Throughout the six-week duration, participants in the experimental groups actively participated in either collaborative problem-solving or role-playing activities during their weekly sessions. These activities were designed to promote active engagement, fluency, and meaningful communication in English. Conversely, participants in the control group followed conventional teaching methods, focusing primarily on translation exercises, repetitive drills, and rote memorisation of vocabulary and grammar rules.

4.6.1 Overall Teaching Context

The conditions across all three groups remained consistent throughout the study, encompassing factors such as class frequency, duration, size, and the identity of the classroom teacher. The sole difference among the groups lay in the instructional activities implemented within the English language classrooms. Therefore, any differences in outcomes observed at the conclusion of the experiment can logically be attributed to the utilisation of CLT activities, specifically role-play and problem-solving, as opposed to the activities associated with traditional teaching methods. These traditional methodologies, exemplified by GTM, rely on translation from the target language to the native language, as well as drilling and memorisation techniques.

4.6.2 Teacher Training and Experimental Groups Activities

After consultations with the head of the English Language Department and subsequent negotiations with teachers, the weekly topics, lesson plans and materials [Appendix G] were meticulously designed to be accessible and straightforward for learners. With a focus on fostering fluency, the chosen topics revolved around common conversational themes that encouraged discussion and the exchange of viewpoints. To address grammatical accuracy, the topics were structured around simple tenses (present, past, future), allowing for the identification and correction of grammar errors during speech. Finally, to enhance vocabulary acquisition, the topics incorporated both new and commonly used vocabulary relevant to daily life.

All classes were taught by the regular classroom teacher, with no direct involvement from the researcher. The researcher and head of the department provided guidance to the teacher on the conceptual differences between GTM and CLT methods over three meetings. Following this training, the same teacher, who was responsible for all classes, expressed confidence in

implementing the appropriate activities with each group. This consistency in instruction, across all three types of activities, ensured a controlled variable in the study, contributing to the reliability of the intervention outcomes. To ensure readiness and accuracy in execution, a pilot study was conducted in which I observed the implementation of the activities and provided constructive feedback. This pilot phase allowed for adjustments of the activities, ensuring their effectiveness in the main study. Each two-hour lesson followed a structured format. The initial fifteen minutes were dedicated to introductions, presenting the topic, and outlining the lesson plan. Subsequently, the teacher spent 15 minutes introducing relevant expressions and vocabulary related to the week's topic. The following 30 minutes allowed learners to prepare, discuss, and negotiate around the topic, with the teacher actively engaging with them. A fifteen-minute break ensued before learners spent the next half-hour practicing their tasks under the teacher's supervision. The final fifteen minutes were reserved for open discussion, idea exchange, and feedback on the lesson.

4.6.3 Control Group

During instruction in the control group, the classroom teacher adhered to the Grammar Translation method. The regular teacher delivered the classes, with a typical format consisting of forty minutes of instruction in English, supplemented by Arabic translation, reading, and repetition. Grammar points were highlighted, and learners were tasked with memorising vocabulary, expressions, and grammatical rules. As a result, the English language classes at Elmergib University primarily focused on translating English content into Arabic, followed by repetitive reading and memorisation exercises. Learners were tasked with memorising vocabulary, expressions, and grammar rules as part of their language acquisition process.

The teacher followed the lesson plans and materials, which outlined the topics covered each week [Appendix H]. The lesson plan incorporated elements of traditional methods, such as grammar instruction and vocabulary practice. The typical two-hour lesson involved the teacher presenting concepts predominantly in English, with simultaneous translation into Arabic. Learners then repeated after the teacher, with a focus on grammatical points highlighted throughout the lesson. Overall, instruction in the control group centred on traditional teaching methodologies, emphasising translation, drilling, and memorisation to facilitate language learning. The teacher utilised the provided lesson plan while integrating customary activities aligned with traditional teaching practices.

4.6.4 Techniques Used in Teaching EFL

In the control group, the teacher employed various techniques influenced by Larsen-Freeman (2000). To facilitate translation, the teacher selected a text and meticulously translated it word by word into Arabic, prompting learners to identify grammatical rules and new vocabulary. For instance, in the initial weeks, learners were tasked with memorising the grammatical rules of the present simple tense and associated vocabulary, subsequently applying them in different linguistic contexts. The teacher adopted a deductive approach to grammar instruction, presenting rules followed by illustrative examples, and prompting learners to practice and apply these rules independently.

For reading comprehension, the teacher posed questions about the text, readily providing translations into Arabic if learners encountered comprehension difficulties. Learners responded to questions using both the source and target languages, reinforcing understanding through bilingual engagement. Another instructional technique involved gap-fill exercises, wherein learners were prompted to utilise appropriate vocabulary or grammar items to complete sentences. Additionally, learners were provided with vocabulary lists for memorisation, with a predominant focus on grammatical rules and translation.

An illustrative example of instructional repetition occurred in week five, wherein the teacher read a dialogue about travel aloud, with learners subsequently repeating the dialogue directly. The teacher then presented expressions on the board alongside their Arabic translations, directing learners to memorise them. Although the emphasis remained on grammar and translation, communication-based activities were occasionally introduced following rule clarification. Furthermore, the teacher incorporated the "learning by doing" technique, fostering communication and interaction among students and with the teacher. Through active participation and engagement, learners naturally acquired grammar, vocabulary, and new expressions. This approach aimed to facilitate language acquisition through practical application and meaningful communication within the classroom setting.

Grammar instruction in the experimental groups was provided. The teacher utilised an inductive approach, introducing examples and prompting learners to identify the underlying rules themselves. The teacher utilised an inductive approach to present grammar rules, initially introducing examples and prompting learners to identify the underlying rules. Subsequently, learners engaged in practicing these rules and applying them in various contexts. For instance, in weeks three and four, the teacher introduced the past simple tense, elucidating its usage through examples and clarifying the rules governing negative and interrogative sentences,

including the use of the word “did”. Key vocabulary associated with the past simple tense, such as “yesterday”, “last week”, and “last month”, was also presented.

Reading comprehension activities involved the teacher posing questions related to the text, with learners responding in English. Composition tasks encouraged learners to construct sentences using previously acquired vocabulary and grammar, allowing them to express their thoughts on topics of personal interest in the target language. Vocabulary instruction took a backseat, as prioritising it would disrupt the natural flow of communication during speaking activities. In week five, learners discussed their holiday plans, incorporating newly acquired language structures such as future tense expressions.

To foster dynamic learning environments and facilitate increased engagement, the teacher implemented activities recommended by Ross-Feldman (2003), encouraging learners to interact, collaborate in pairs and groups, and move around the classroom. In the role-play group (experimental group 1), the teacher utilised line dialogues, prompting learners to engage in repeated interactions, such as introducing themselves. Conversely, in the problem-solving group (experimental group 2), learners participated in authentic, cooperative debates using conversation grids. During these sessions, learners discussed topics related to introducing people to each other, practiced language structures, asked questions, listened to each other, and recorded information on the grids, thus enhancing their language proficiency through active participation and collaboration.

4.6.5 Justification and Acknowledgment of Intervention Task Demands

The problem-solving tasks designed for Experimental Group 2 were intentionally more cognitively demanding and abstract compared to the role-play tasks assigned to Experimental Group 1. This differentiation aimed to align with the study’s objective of exploring the impact of task complexity on the development of speaking proficiency, particularly in fluency, grammatical accuracy, and vocabulary range. These tasks encouraged learners to engage with abstract concepts, articulate opinions, and reason critically skills integral to advanced communication and reflective of real-world interactions.

For example, tasks such as open debates (week 3), discussions about factors leading to someone losing their patience (week 4), and reflections on feelings of pessimism about future careers (week 6) required learners to engage in abstract reasoning, articulate nuanced perspectives, and negotiate meaning. These tasks, involving less familiar discourse types and functions such as hypothesizing and reasoning, were designed to push learners toward using a broader range of vocabulary and more complex grammatical constructions. This approach

aligns with prior research indicating that tasks with higher cognitive complexity can lead to significant linguistic gains, particularly in vocabulary and syntactic development.

However, it is acknowledged that the abstract nature of these problem-solving tasks may have posed challenges for learners at a B1 proficiency level. These tasks, by design, required learners to produce language at the edge of their abilities, potentially resulting in frustration or reduced participation for some. Excessive cognitive load, particularly for less proficient learners, may have hindered speech flow and impacted outcomes related to fluency. To address these limitations, future studies could implement scaffolding strategies, such as providing additional linguistic support or sequencing tasks to gradually increase in complexity, thereby maintaining an appropriate level of challenge without overwhelming learners.

In contrast, the role-play tasks for Experimental Group 1 were designed to mirror concrete and contextually grounded scenarios, such as everyday interactions or situational problem-solving. These tasks aligned more closely with typical communicative contexts encountered by B1 learners, making them more accessible and engaging. The difference in task genres and discourse functions between the two groups is acknowledged as a factor that may contribute to variations in learning outcomes. This distinction is considered in the interpretation of the study's results, ensuring a nuanced understanding of how task complexity impacts speaking proficiency development. By including tasks of varying complexity and genres, this study aimed to investigate the interplay between task demands and language proficiency development, providing insights into how different types of interventions foster linguistic gains. The findings will contribute to the broader understanding of task-based language teaching and its effectiveness in developing fluency, accuracy, and vocabulary range.

4.7 Procedure

An experimental study was meticulously conducted to gather data, with the overarching goal of enhancing learners' speaking skills. This study involved a comparative analysis between the performance of students in the control group, which followed a traditional approach system, and those in the role-play and problem-solving groups. The latter two groups' instructional framework was rooted in the CLT approach. Ethical clearance for this study was obtained from both Newcastle University [Appendix A] and Elmergib University [Appendix B].

To ensure clarity and compliance with ethical standards, consent forms and information sheets were distributed for the participants in their groups. Close coordination with the department facilitated continuous communication with the learners. The presence of the researcher during the preparatory phase ensured clarity and addressed any concerns from all

participants. On the designated commencement date, which was Sunday, July 11th 2021, all logistical arrangements were in place. A total of 45 students affirmed their participation by signing and returning the consent forms. Multiple consultations with the teacher clarified the core objectives of the experiment and clarified the instructional materials and topics, and thorough discussions with the classroom teacher ensured that learners were well-informed about their respective groups, schedules, and session locations. Additionally, the teacher provided comprehensive guidance to all three groups regarding the timing and procedures for the ensuing tests. This meticulous preparation and communication laid a solid foundation for the successful accomplishment of the study.

Collaborating closely with the head of the English Department, we assigned an experienced teacher to lead the instructional sessions for the experimental and control groups. Prior to commencing the intervention, an extensive training was provided to the teacher on implementing activities aligned with the CLT approach for the experimental groups. In contrast, the control group adhered to the GTM typically employed at Elmergib University, emphasising translation, drilling, and memorisation. The initial phase of the research involved conducting a pre-test to assess the speaking skills of Libyan learners in the English language. This pre-test was administered to all three groups concurrently on July 13th, 2021, at 1 pm. Subsequently, the post-test was conducted on August 29th, 2021, also at 1 pm, using identical questions and procedures as the pre-test. The questions were carefully designed to facilitate conversational exchanges and were tailored to ensure clarity and understanding for each learner, fostering unrestricted participation and interaction. Participants were informed that their responses would be recorded, to which all consented.

The experiment spanned six weeks, with both experimental and control groups attending weekly sessions lasting two hours each. Each instructional session followed a consistent structure, with classes of equal duration and frequency. The two-hour lessons were organised as follows:

- The initial fifteen minutes were dedicated to welcoming the learners and outlining the day's topic, followed by a presentation of the lesson plan.
- The subsequent fifteen minutes were allocated to introducing expressions and vocabulary relevant to the week's topic.
- A thirty-minute period was provided for learners to prepare, ask questions, and engage in discussions under the guidance of the teacher.

- A fifteen-minute break allowed for a brief break before resuming with thirty minutes devoted to practical tasks, during which the teacher monitored the learners' progress.
- The final fifteen minutes were designated for open discussion, encouraging the exchange of ideas and feedback on the lesson.

The topics and materials utilised in the experiment were carefully chosen to reflect real-life situations, incorporating themes such as social media, family dynamics, friendships, and university life. This thematic approach aimed to foster relevance and engagement among participants. All participants underwent identical pre- and post-tests to ensure consistency and reliability in assessment. In the experimental groups, participants were strategically seated facing each other, facilitating interaction and collaboration. The teacher prepared their students by equipping them with relevant resources and guiding their preparation with targeted inquiries. A variety of techniques encouraging to oral communication activities were employed throughout the experiment, with particular emphasis on cooperative learning. This approach encouraged spontaneous and confident English language practice among learners, fostering oral communication skills. Teacher actively promoted the use of English during classroom interactions and aided as needed.

4.8 Ethical Considerations

Participants were apprised that their involvement in the study was entirely voluntary, and they retained the independence to withdraw from the study at any point if they so desired. This foundational aspect of informed consent was rigorously upheld. To further safeguard participant rights and ensure ethical conduct, additional measures were implemented. Initially, formal notification was provided to the head of the English Department at Elmergib University, thereby establishing institutional awareness and endorsement of the study. Subsequently, each individual student was explicitly informed that their academic grades would remain unaffected by their performance in the pre- and post-tests, assuaging any concerns regarding potential repercussions on their academic standing. Furthermore, participants were briefed on the observation and evaluation process conducted by the researcher to assess their performance during the experiment and tests. Prior to the commencement of performance evaluation, participants were informed about the recording procedures, maintaining transparency and integrity throughout the research process.

4.9 Measures Taken in the Study

The study incorporates five distinct measures to assess various aspects of speaking fluency and language proficiency. Initially, two measures focused on evaluating fluency by

quantifying the rate of speech and identifying hesitations. These methodologies align with established procedures outlined in previous studies, as detailed in Chapter Two. However, the subsequent measures were uniquely designed for this study, offering original insights. To assess grammatical accuracy, a minute-by-minute count of errors was conducted, with particular attention paid to the relationship between error frequency and speech rate. This approach considers the tendency for faster speech to coincide with increased errors, contrasting with slower speech characterised by fewer mistakes. Analysing the relationship between grammatical error frequency and speech rate is crucial for understanding and enhancing speaking skills in L2 learners. In the context of speaking proficiency, speech rate is a key indicator of fluency, reflecting the speed and smoothness with which a speaker can articulate their thoughts. A higher speech rate typically suggests greater fluency, but it may also lead to an increased frequency of grammatical errors as learners may prioritise speed over accuracy. This balance between fluency and accuracy is central to improving speaking skills, as learners must develop the ability to communicate both quickly and correctly.

The study by Suzuki and Kormos (2020) highlights the complex interplay between speech rate and grammatical error frequency in L2 speech production. Their findings suggest that faster speech rates often correlate with a higher incidence of grammatical errors, especially among learners who have not yet fully developed automaticity in their language use. This relationship is particularly relevant for educators and researchers focused on speaking skills, as it underscores the need to address both speed and accuracy in language instruction. By examining these two factors together, the study provides valuable insights into how learners' speaking skills develop and where they may require additional support. Incorporating both speech rate and grammatical error frequency into the analysis of speaking skills offers a more comprehensive view of L2 proficiency. It recognises that fluency and accuracy are not separate aspects of language competence but are closely connected. Understanding how these elements interact can help educators tailor their teaching strategies to better support learners in achieving a balance that enhances their overall speaking ability. This approach, as demonstrated by Suzuki and Kormos (2020), aligns with current methodologies in applied linguistics and offers a robust framework for assessing and improving speaking skills in L2 learners. Consequently, focusing on the relationship between speech rate and grammatical error frequency is not only appropriate but essential for a thorough evaluation of speaking proficiency in language learners.

The analysis also includes the examination of speech clusters. Similar to previous measures, clusters were evaluated on a per-minute basis, providing valuable insights into speech organisation and coherence. Analysing consonant clusters is crucial for evaluating speaking

skills in second language learners. Consonant clusters, which are groups of two or more consonants occurring together without intervening vowels, provide important insights into the phonological aspects of speech production. Evaluating consonant clusters on a per-minute basis offers a detailed understanding of how learners manage complex phonological elements while speaking. Difficulties with consonant clusters can impact the clarity and fluency of speech, making them a key area of focus in assessing speaking skills. Incorporating consonant clusters into the assessment provides valuable information about how learners produce complex sounds and manage the flow of their speech. This measure complements other aspects of speaking skills, such as speech rate and grammatical accuracy, offering a comprehensive view of a learner's ability to produce coherent and fluent speech. Therefore, the analysis of consonant clusters is essential for a detailed evaluation of speaking skills. It highlights specific areas of phonological difficulty and enhances our understanding of learners' performance in real-life speaking contexts. This focus ensures that the assessment captures critical elements of effective speech production and supports targeted improvements in speaking skills. The measure of consonant clusters was utilized to operationalize fluency in this study. Specifically, it aimed to quantify the frequency of fluent and cohesive speech patterns during the speaking tasks. Consonant clusters were assessed by counting the number of clusters produced per minute in participants' speech. This measure was chosen because it reflects the speaker's ability to produce connected and natural speech, which is a key indicator of fluency development. By focusing on the clusters' frequency within a time frame, this measure provides insight into how smoothly participants articulate sequences of consonants in spontaneous language production.

Additionally, vocabulary richness was assessed due to its pivotal role in enhancing speaking proficiency among participants. This measure involves noting the presence of less familiar vocabulary within participants' speech groups. According to McCarthy and Jarvis, (2010), vocabulary richness refers to the diversity of vocabulary within a text. It quantifies the number of unique words used among the total tokens, reflecting the variety and extent of vocabulary employed in written or spoken language. By employing these diverse measures, the study aims to comprehensively evaluate speaking proficiency while shedding light on the nuanced dynamics of fluency, accuracy, and vocabulary usage. Following this, measuring the performance of the student was based on the criteria in Table 4.3.

Fluency			**Accuracy**	**Vocabulary**		
Words	Hesitations	Clusters	Grammatical errors	Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives

Table 4.3

Criteria for Assessing Speaking Proficiency

4.10 Data Collection

Data collection for this study occurred during the academic year spanning 2020 to 2021, within the framework of English-language lessons. Collaboration with the head of the English language department at Elmergib University facilitated the design and implementation of classes dedicated to data collection. Over a period of six weeks, learners were offered supplementary classes in addition to their regular coursework, providing sufficient opportunity for data acquisition.

All three groups received instruction from the same teacher, who possessed qualifications from Libyan institutions without an overseas qualification in English. Each group allocated two hours of instruction per week, totalling 12 hours of engagement. Collaboration with the teacher and the head of the English language department facilitated the scheduling of classes, ensuring alignment with the approved methodology. Class scheduling was meticulously organised to optimise teacher preparation and lesson delivery. Control group sessions were held on Sundays from 2 pm to 4 pm, while the problem-solving treatment group convened on Tuesdays within the same timeframe. The third group met on Thursdays, also from 2 pm to 4 pm. This rationale for the scheduling was to afford the teacher adequate time to prepare and conduct lessons effectively. Importantly, no additional English lessons were administered by the teacher during this period, ensuring focus on the designated study sessions. The study was conducted under the strict supervision and organisation of the English department. A formal agreement was established between the department and the participating teacher, stipulating that no additional English lessons or tutoring sessions would be administered during the intervention period. This agreement was crucial in ensuring that the intervention's effects could be attributed exclusively to the planned study sessions.

A critical aspect of class organisation involved ensuring equitable class sizes and homogeneous distribution of proficiency among participants. Furthermore, all classes adhered to uniform lesson lengths and frequency, minimising discrepancies in learner age and prior exposure to English language learning. At the onset of each session, the teacher introduced the lesson plan and topic, providing context and objectives to the learners. The purpose and tactics of the speaking session were elucidated, addressing learner inquiries, and delivering a list of keywords relevant to the discussion, thereby setting clear expectations, and encouraging engagement. As part of the study's methodology, a contingency plan was prepared for potential disruptions caused by the Covid-19 pandemic. This was developed with the department head to transition to a virtual format if necessary, using Zoom as the primary platform. Approval and documentation for this adaptation can be found in [Appendix C]. Students were informed via

email and provided logistical details. They received training on Zoom usage and consented to session recordings. Despite the plan for remote execution, in-person classes continued at Elmergib University with minimal disruption.

4.10.1 Testing and Assessment

The primary focus of the assessment tool, as illustrated in Table 4.2, was to undergo modifications that would ensure its alignment with the specific concepts and objectives of the present study. The key questions employed during both the pre-test and post-test phases encompassed the following inquiries:

- Could you please introduce yourself?
- What did you do last weekend?
- What are your plans for your holiday?

These questions were deliberately produced to prompt participant speech and facilitate verbal expression. Additionally, their simplicity and straightforwardness were intended to make it easier for learners to articulate their thoughts in the target language. By incorporating these questions, participants were provided with a structured framework to engage in spoken communication. Furthermore, the design of these questions encompassed a strategic integration of various verb tenses, including present, past, and future. This deliberate inclusion aimed to afford participants the opportunity to more easily transition between different tenses when speaking. By encompassing a range of temporal contexts, participants were encouraged to demonstrate their proficiency in expressing themselves across different time frames. The design of the pre- and post-test questions intentionally integrated various verb tenses, present, past, and future to align with the study's focus on grammatical accuracy as a key component of speaking proficiency. This approach ensures that the tests evaluate the participants' ability to apply tense usage appropriately across different communicative contexts. By doing so, the tests provide a comprehensive assessment of one of the study’s main areas of focus: improving accuracy in subject-verb agreement and tense consistency, which are fundamental for effective spoken communication.

All participants underwent a standardised pre-test, administered on the same day, where they were presented with identical questions. Each student was allocated approximately seven minutes between preparation and test completion. Moreover, accurate care was taken to record and preserve all test sessions for subsequent transcription and analysis. This approach not only facilitated accurate documentation of participants' responses but also laid the groundwork for

comprehensive analysis and interpretation of the collected data during the subsequent analytical phase.

As previously highlighted, both the pre-test and post-test utilised identical sets of questions to facilitate direct comparison and assessment of learners' performance across the study period. This uniformity in question content allowed the researcher to discern any obvious improvements in learners' speaking skills between the two testing phases. Additionally, this method allows for a high degree of control over extraneous variables, as having both a pre- and a post-test helps control for individual differences that might influence the results, isolating the effect of the intervention. The primary point of differentiation between the pre-test and post-test lay solely in the timing of administration; all other testing conditions remained consistent. The post-test was conducted during the final week of the experiment immediately following the conclusion of the two-hour lecture.

Following completion of the post-tests, precise documentation ensured that all test sessions were recorded and stored for subsequent transcription and analysis, facilitating the thorough examination of participant responses. Additionally, each student received a debriefing form [Appendix I], providing them with appropriate information and insights regarding the study's objectives and outcomes. This comprehensive approach not only ensured the reliability of the data collected but also fostered participant engagement throughout the testing process.

4.11 Vocabulary Categorisation Using a Pre-Existing Resource

To measure vocabulary gain, this study employed two complementary approaches. First, the number of nouns, verbs, and adjectives used per minute in participants' speech was counted to provide a general measure of lexical growth. This approach was chosen to align with the measures for fluency and accuracy, ensuring methodological consistency in assessing changes over time. Counting lexical items per minute allows for a standardized comparison of vocabulary use across pre- and post-tests while reflecting participants' active lexical retrieval during spontaneous speech.

Second, as supplementary evidence, vocabulary use was analysed in relation to Phillips' (2002) word list. This word list served as a reference for identifying less familiar vocabulary items, enabling an evaluation of whether participants expanded their use of advanced or less commonly used words throughout the intervention. By incorporating this analysis, the study added a qualitative dimension, capturing shifts in the complexity and sophistication of participants' vocabulary use. Together, these measures offered a comprehensive framework for

assessing vocabulary gain, combining quantitative data on lexical frequency with qualitative insights into the richness and range of vocabulary development.

Criteria for Vocabulary Categorisation

To evaluate the use of less familiar vocabulary in participants' speeches, it is crucial to outline the criteria used for identifying these words. The categorisation was guided by the vocabulary list from Phillips' (2002) book, "English for Libya", detailed in [Appendix O]. This resource was chosen because it aligns with the curriculum that students were expected to follow, making it a suitable basis for evaluating vocabulary familiarity.

Less familiar vocabulary items were selected from Phillips' list with the specific goal of acquisition over the academic year. These terms are less commonly encountered in daily language and are introduced through targeted instructional activities, representing new vocabulary students are expected to learn as part of their educational objectives. The use of Phillips' (2002) vocabulary list is justified by its relevance to the participants' curriculum. The list is integral to the instructional materials provided to learners and aligns closely with their language learning objectives. The categorisation framework reflects the curriculum's specific learning goals: "less familiar" words aim to extend learners' vocabulary beyond their current base. Applying Phillips' categorisation method is particularly useful for this study because it aligns with the participants' instructional practices. The vocabulary list is embedded in the curriculum and directly measures the vocabulary exposure during lessons, making it an effective tool for assessing vocabulary acquisition within this educational context.

In practice, words categorised as "less familiar" are intentionally integrated into teaching activities designed to enhance learners' familiarity with and usage of these terms. The study evaluates the effectiveness of different instructional techniques, applied across control and experimental groups, in promoting the acquisition of these "less familiar" vocabulary items. This approach helps determine whether specific instructional practices significantly impact learners' vocabulary growth as outlined in their curriculum.

4.12 Data Analysis

4.12.1 Recording

Throughout the pre-test period, accurate documentation of each learner's performance was conducted across all three groups. Utilising the resources provided by Newcastle University, all student data was securely stored on the university's OneDrive platform. Each student was assigned a unique code for privacy and confidentiality purposes, ensuring that personal information remained protected throughout the study. This coding system, devoid of

student names but containing a specific identifier, was uniformly implemented across all assessment tools.

For example, for the first student in the control group, in the pre-test assessment tool, the student's name was recorded along with the date, alongside their assigned code, indicated as "/S1/". Subsequently, to maintain consistency and clarity, the student's performance during the pre-test was recorded using a designated recording device and saved under the corresponding code, in this case, "/S1/ PRE". Similarly, during the post-test phase, the same coding system was employed. However, to differentiate between pre-test and post-test recordings, a distinct code was assigned. Continuing with our example, the student's performance in the post-test was recorded and saved under the code "/S1/ POST". To further facilitate organisation and categorisation, students were divided into respective groups based on their assigned codes. For instance, students numbered from 1 to 15 belonged to the control group, students numbered from 16 to 30 comprised the experimental group engaged in role-play activities, and students numbered from 31 to 45 constituted the second experimental group, involved in problem-solving activities.

4.12.2 Transcription

Once all students had successfully recorded both their pre-test and post-test performances, the subsequent stage of data analysis was transcription. This phase proved to be time-consuming due to the considerable volume of recordings – ninety in total – that required transcription. Each recording necessitated careful listening and analysis, a process that involved four careful steps. Initially, listening and transcription was done simultaneously. This allowed for the immediate capture of spoken content. Each recording was listened to twice, and on the second listening hesitations were identified and marked. To denote instances of hesitation, the symbol "[:]" was used. The third step involved repeating each recording twice more, with a dedicated focus on reviewing and ensuring the accuracy and completeness of the transcriptions. This thorough approach was essential to minimise the risk of overlooking relevant details.

To ensure the confidentiality of participants and clarity in the presentation of data, specific details from student responses are excluded and replaced with "X", while hesitations are denoted by "[:]". The following examples illustrate these conventions in the analysis of Student 5's (S5) pre-test performance.

Example 1:

During the pre-test interview:

T: OK, do you live near to the college or far away from here?

S: near to the college.

T: how do you come to the college?

S: it don’t always the same sometimes I [:] walking when it does not raining and [:] sometimes my X and [:] X by his car.

Analysis:

- **Grammatical Errors:**
  - "It don’t always the same" should be corrected to "It’s not always the same."
  - "Sometimes I [:] walking" should be "Sometimes I walk."
  - "When it does not raining" should be corrected to "When it is not raining."
- **Hesitations:**
  - The notation “[:]” indicates moments of hesitation. For example, “Sometimes I [:] walking” shows that the speaker paused while searching for the correct word, resulting in an incomplete thought.
- **Anonymisation:**
  - The term "my X and [:] X by his car" represents specific details about the mode of transportation or the person involved, which are replaced with “X” to maintain confidentiality.

Example 2:

Further into the interview:

T: could you present your family?

S: my family [:] not big not small my X work as X and [:] my X don’t work most of the time [:] X [:] is busy and X [:] not.

Analysis:

- **Grammatical Errors:**
  - "My family [:] not big not small" should be revised to "My family is neither big nor small."
  - "My X work as X" should be "My [X] works as [X]."
  - "My X don’t work most of the time" should be corrected to "My [X] does not work most of the time."

- "X [:] is busy and X [:] not" might be clearer as "X is busy, and X is not."

- **Hesitations:**
  - The notation “[:]” marks hesitations in the speech, such as “My family [:] not big not small”, indicating hesitation while constructing the sentence.

- **Anonymisation:**
  - Specific details about family members are replaced with “X” to maintain confidentiality. For instance, "my X work as X" anonymises the job and the person involved.

Example 3:

Regarding the student's weekend activities:

T: “could you please tell us about your weekend, what did you do last weekend?

S: I went [:] to [:] Aldroob Company for because [:] I am studying to exam.”

Analysis:

- **Grammatical Errors:**
  - "I went [:] to [:] Aldroob Company for because [:] I am studying to exam" should be corrected to "I went to Aldroob Company because I am studying for an exam."

- **Hesitations:**
  - The notation “[:]” indicates hesitations, such as “I went [:] to [:] Aldroob Company”, showing hesitation while the speaker formulated the response.

- **Anonymisation:**
  - The name “Aldroob Company” is not anonymised in this context, as it is a proper noun. The term “[:]”, however, marks the hesitations in speech.

Example 4:

Discussing exam preparation:

T: OK, so you prepare yourself to your exam.

S: Yes, I study well for my exam I was with my X She X it was [:] the last one and [:] the questions are not [:] easy not only me X all the students say the same that the questions not [:] not easy but at the end [:] we did [:] what we can do.

Analysis:

- **Grammatical Errors:**
    - "Yes I study well for my exam I was with my X She X it was [:] the last one" should be revised to "Yes, I studied well for my exam. I was with my [X]. She [X]. It was the last one."
    - "The questions are not [:] easy not only me X all the students say the same that the questions not [:] not easy" should be corrected to "The questions were not easy; not only me, but all the students said the same—that the questions were difficult."
    - "But at the end [:] we did [:] what we can do" can be revised to "But in the end, we did what we could."
- **Hesitations:**
    - Hesitations are indicated with “[:]”, such as in “It was [:] the last one,” showing moments where the speaker hesitated or needed time to think.
- **Anonymisation:**
    - The term "my X She X" anonymises the specific details about the person and their role. The placeholder “X” is used to protect the identities involved.

Upon completion of transcription, the transcribed data was meticulously organised and inserted into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet, as illustrated in [Appendix J]. Excel was chosen for its accessibility and widespread use, ensuring compatibility and ease of analysis across different platforms. After consolidating all transcriptions into a single Excel file, the data was structured for subsequent analysis. following established guidelines for statistical analysis, the data was processed and analysed using R, a powerful programming language and software environment for statistical computing and graphics. The analysis was conducted in RStudio, which is specifically designed for working with R. The process included the application of specific statistical models and tests relevant to the study's objectives. For instance, various packages within R were utilised to conduct advanced analyses such as the two-way ANOVA test. Prior to conducting the ANOVA tests, the assumption of normality was assessed to ensure the validity of the analysis. Normality was evaluated through visual inspections of histograms and Q-Q plots, which suggested that the data for all measures approximated a normal distribution [Appendix K]. Given this, the assumption of normality was considered satisfied, and the use of ANOVA was deemed appropriate. The results from these visual assessments

were deemed sufficient to proceed with the ANOVA without the need for additional statistical tests for normality. Additionally, the study's sample size (15 participants per group) warrants consideration. A sample size of 15 participants per group is relatively small, which could reduce the statistical power of the analysis and increase the likelihood of Type II errors. While this sample size may limit the ability to detect small effect sizes, the analyses were conducted with caution, and the results should be interpreted with the understanding that the power to detect subtle differences may be limited.

4.12.3 Justification for the Use of Two-Way ANOVA

The primary objective of this study was to assess the differences in participant performance across multiple groups at two different time points: pre-test and post-test. A two-way ANOVA was chosen as the most appropriate statistical test to analyse the interaction between two independent variables time (pre-test and post-test) and group (control vs. experimental) on the dependent variable (e.g., speaking rate). The use of the two-way ANOVA was justified because it allows for the examination of both main effects and interaction effects. Specifically, it tested:

- The main effect of time: Whether the participants' performance improved from pre-test to post-test across all groups.
- The main effect of group: Whether the different groups (control and experimental) performed differently across the two phases.
- The interaction effect: Whether the change in performance over time (pre-test to post-test) varied across the groups, highlighting how the intervention influenced the groups differently.

By examining these effects simultaneously, the two-way ANOVA provided a comprehensive analysis of both between-subjects (group) and within-subjects (time) variables, thereby providing deeper insights into the effectiveness of the intervention. The inclusion of post-hoc tests (Tukey's HSD) further enabled identification of specific group differences following the significant ANOVA results. Given the structure of the study, the two-way ANOVA was essential in providing both an overall view of how time and group factors influenced performance, as well as more specific comparisons between groups after the intervention. This approach maximized the ability to detect meaningful differences and offered a robust framework for analysing the data. Moreover, the two-way ANOVA allowed for a nuanced understanding of how the intervention impacted groups differently, considering the

natural progression of performance from pre-test to post-test. It was the most efficient and informative approach, considering the research design and the study's objectives.

4.12.4 Procedure of Coding and Calculations

The procedure of coding the data in the Excel file is shown in Table 4.4 below.

Student Code	S1 is the code for student one and likewise for the other students, S2, S3, S4, S5, S6, S7, S8, S9, S10 ……. S45.
Pre or Post	Pre is for the learner's pre-test and Post for the learner's post-test.
Condition	CG, control group; RG, role-play group; PG, problem-solving group.
Speaker	Two speakers involved in these tests: the teacher and student
Utterance	Utterance here refers to the turn in the dialogue by a learner in seconds.
Start time	Starting time of an utterance.
End time	Ending time of the utterance.
Duration	Duration of a single utterance.
Grammar errors	Number of grammar errors occurring in a single utterance.
Clusters	Number of clusters arising in a single utterance.
Word count	Number of words in a single utterance.
Hesitation count	Number of hesitations in an utterance.
Noun count	Number of nouns in an utterance.
Verb count	Number of verbs appearing in an utterance.
Adjective count	Number of adjectives arising in each utterance.
EPM	Grammar errors per minute.
CPM	Clusters per minute.
HPM	Hesitations per minute.
WPM	Words per minute.
NPM	Nouns per minute.
VPM	Verbs per minute.
APM	Adjectives per minute.

Table 4.4

Data Coding Summary

In examining hesitations during speech, the symbol "[:]" was used to represent instances of hesitation observed in the speakers' performance. Additionally, grammar errors were tracked, focusing on tense and agreement discrepancies, which were manually coded in a dedicated column within the Excel file. Moreover, clusters evident in speech were tallied, including initial and final clusters of words, such as "street" (/strɪːt/) and "department" (/dɪˈpɑːtmənt/) respectively. These clusters were also manually coded in the Excel file to facilitate comprehensive analysis. To automate the computation of word and hesitation counts, as well as to identify parts of speech (POS) such as nouns, verbs, and adjectives, the Python

programming language was utilised. This implementation was guided and carried out by my supervisor.

In the final phase of analysis, calculations were conducted using the gathered data, where all measures were standardised per minute. This approach ensures consistency and comparability across different speech samples, as it accounts for variations in the length of speech. Standardising per minute allows for a more reliable and accurate analysis of the data, particularly when assessing aspects like fluency and error frequency, which can vary significantly depending on the duration of the speech sample. This method is widely recognised in the field, as evidenced by its application in studies such as De Jong *et al*. (2013), which underscores its value in ensuring accurate and comparable results across different contexts. Following transcription completion, the total number of words spoken by each participant was quantified. By using the start and end times, the duration of each utterance in seconds was determined. Subsequently, these durations were used to calculate the WPM for each utterance by dividing the word count by the duration and multiplying by 60 to standardise it per minute. For instance, consider the performance of S5, where the number of words uttered in his first utterance was recorded as 32. Dividing this by the duration of the utterance, which was measured at 21.55 seconds, yielded an estimated average WPM of [32 / 21.55 * 60 = 89.10]. This process was repeated for all S5's utterances, and the resulting WPM values were averaged to derive the overall average WPM, calculated to be 90.69. Similarly, all other measures were calculated using similar procedures, ensuring uniformity and consistency in the analysis. These calculations are comprehensively detailed in [Appendix L], offering transparency and clarity regarding the methodology employed in the systematic process.

4.13 Pilot Study

A primary objective of conducting a pilot study is to assess the reliability and validity of the research instrument. Additionally, pilot studies aim to relieve potential risks or challenges that may arise during the main study (Cohen *et al.*, 2002). In the present study, prior to finalising the study's procedures, an extensive review of literature regarding the implementation of CLT activities in second language classrooms was conducted. This review revealed obstacles hindering the effective implementation of such activities. To strengthen the authenticity of the study, an investigation into these obstacles was considered necessary. The main hindrances identified in Chapter Two of the literature review were examined to avoid their potential negative impact on the study. Subsequently, the proficiency of the teacher, the learners' speaking ability, and the educational system were selected as focal points for the pilot study.

The piloting process was conducted one week prior to the commencement of the main study. This strategic timing allowed for the thorough evaluation of the chosen research procedures and facilitated necessary alterations before the actual implementation of the study. For instance, during this evaluation phase, adjustments were made to the timing and sequence of the tests to ensure they aligned with the participants' schedules and enhanced their performance. Additionally, modifications were introduced in the instructions given to participants, as initial feedback indicated that certain directions were unclear, potentially leading to inconsistent results. These alterations were crucial in refining the study's methodology, ensuring that the research was both practicable and effective in achieving its objectives. Firstly, regarding the proficiency of the teacher, a prevalent issue in many EFL contexts is the insufficient proficiency of educators in the English language. Several studies, including those by Kalanzadeh *et al.* (2013) in Turkey, and Ozsevik (2010) in Iran, have underscored the challenges educators face in implementing communicative activities in their classrooms, particularly in speaking exercises, due to their limited familiarity with applying these techniques. To address this concern, a designed training program was developed, and the teacher was able to gain familiarity with the activities associated with the CLT approach and the exercises to be integrated into the classroom.

Secondly, regarding the learners and their speaking proficiency, numerous studies have highlighted the struggles learners face in practicing and speaking English. Research underscores the persistent challenges faced by learners in developing speaking proficiency, with studies highlighting similar issues across various educational contexts. For example, Altaieb (2013) and Aldarasi (2020) specifically focus on the Libyan context, demonstrating that speaking challenges are indeed relevant in Libya. Similarly, studies conducted in other countries, such as those by Kalanzadeh *et al*. (2013) in Iran, Alharbi (2015) in Saudi Arabia, Park and Oh (2019) in South Korea, and Alam *et al*. (2022) in Bangladesh, reflect analogous difficulties faced by learners in diverse settings. These recent studies collectively underscore that speaking proficiency issues are widespread and influenced by a range of contextual factors. The findings from these studies illustrate that challenges in speaking proficiency are not confined to a single region but are part of a broader, global pattern. This highlights the need for effective interventions tailored to enhance speaking skills, considering the specific cultural and educational contexts of learners. Understanding these challenges is crucial for developing strategies that address both linguistic and contextual factors, ultimately improving speaking proficiency across different settings. Recognising the pivotal role of learners' speaking

proficiency in the success of the study, efforts were made to ensure that participants possessed at least a basic command of English-speaking skills.

Consultations were conducted with the English department at Elmergib University prior to the experiment's initiation to confirm the suitability of second-year learners, who were deemed to possess the requisite foundational English skills acquired in preceding years of study. The department confirmed that these students possessed the requisite foundational English skills, which included a solid understanding of basic grammar, vocabulary, and sentence structure acquired during their first year of study. Additionally, students were expected to demonstrate proficiency in fundamental speaking and listening skills, such as the ability to engage in simple conversations, comprehend spoken English at an introductory level, and accurately produce basic sentence patterns. These skills were assessed through a review of their academic performance records and a primary language proficiency evaluation conducted by the department. This evaluation helped confirm that the participants had the necessary background to engage meaningfully in the study, ensuring that the research focused on learners with an appropriate level of English proficiency.

Thirdly, the educational system emerged as a significant consideration for the pilot study. In EFL classrooms, managing class sizes is crucial for creating an optimal learning environment that fosters effective participation and engagement. The challenge of large class sizes in ELT contexts has been highlighted in recent research. For instance, Arisandy (2023) discusses strategies for dealing with large classes, emphasising that such environments require tailored approaches to maintain effective teaching and student involvement. This research underscores the need for innovative solutions to address the challenges posed by large class sizes. Roshan *et al*. (2022) further explores the impact of large classes on English language teaching, revealing that larger class sizes can negatively affect both instructional quality and student engagement. Their study highlights practical difficulties faced by educators in large classes, including reduced opportunities for individual interaction and less effective implementation of communicative language teaching practices. To address these challenges, collaborative efforts with the head of department were undertaken to organise and limit class sizes to fifteen participants each. This adjustment aimed to facilitate the implementation of activities while ensuring sufficient opportunities for participant engagement and contribution. By critically examining these findings, it becomes clear that managing large classes requires a balanced approach, integrating both innovative pedagogical strategies and practical classroom management techniques. This understanding will guide the development of strategies aimed at enhancing classroom dynamics and improving student engagement in large EFL settings.

Consequently, the pilot study played a fundamental role in enhancing the research methodology for the main experiment. By the conclusion of the pilot study week, it can be asserted that significant progresses were made in overcoming potential obstacles that hindered the application of CLT activities, as identified in prior research. This strategic approach of conducting a pilot study proved instrumental in meticulously evaluating the research instrument and gaining valuable insights into the study's dynamics and the characteristics of the participants. By addressing potential challenges and improving the research procedures, the pilot study laid a solid foundation for the successful implementation of the main experiment.

4.14 Summary

In this chapter, a comprehensive introduction to the experimental study has been provided. It began with a description of the study's participants and the rationale behind their selection, followed by a detailed explanation for undertaking experimental research. Furthermore, the chapter explained the topics, materials, assessment tools, and teaching techniques employed during the intervention. Additionally, a thorough introduction to the procedures and measures undertaken in the current study was provided, followed by an explanation of the data collection process and subsequent data analysis procedures. These steps are crucial in ensuring the reliability and validity of the study's findings. Furthermore, the chapter highlighted the vital role played by the pilot study in laying the groundwork for the success of the current study by addressing potential challenges and refining research procedures. Having provided a clear overview of the experimental study, including its design, methodology, and data collection procedures, the chapter sets the stage for the presentation of the study's results in the following chapter.

Chapter 5: The Impact of Applying the Communicative Teaching Approach on the Speaking Skills of Second Language Learners in Libya

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents results that demonstrate whether implementing activities associated with the CLT approach influenced the speaking proficiency of second language learners, specifically focusing on their fluency. This chapter presents the results of the study, beginning with an analysis of speech rate, measured in WPM, and comparing participant performance between the pre-test and post-test phases. Next, the focus shifts to analysing hesitations in the participants' speech, providing insights into the frequency and impact of these hesitations. The chapter then examines the use of consonant clusters in participants' speech. Following this, the analysis of grammatical errors is presented, highlighting the impact of CLT activities on speech accuracy. The final section evaluates vocabulary size by analysing the use of familiar and less familiar vocabulary among the 45 participants.

5.2 Words Per minute (WPM)

WPM were calculated for each participant in the pre- and post-test, with results by group presented in Figure 5.1.

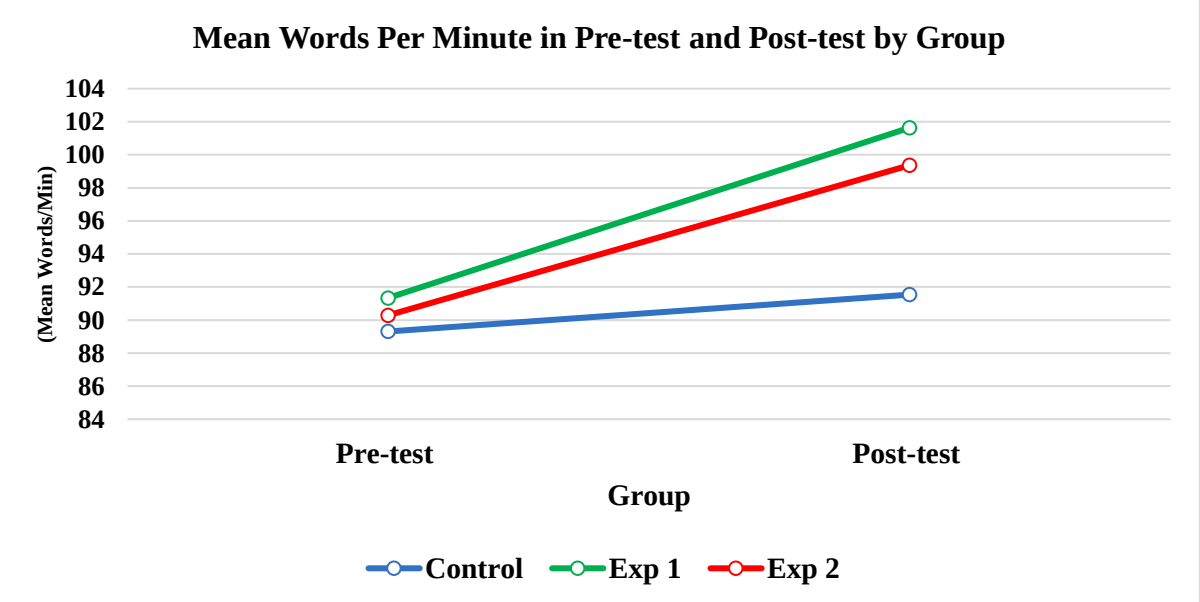

Figure 5.1 Mean Words Per Minute in Pre-Test and Post-Test by Group

Figure 5.1 visually compares the mean number of words spoken per minute before (pre-test) and after (post-test) an intervention across three groups: control group, experimental group 1, and experimental group 2. Each group is represented in a distinct colour: control group (blue), experimental group 1 (green), and experimental group 2 (red). The y-axis shows the mean words per minute during the pre-test and post-test phases. Connecting lines between pre-test and post-test points highlight changes in speaking rates within each group over time. Initially, all groups uttered similar mean words per minute during the pre-test phase, as depicted in the figure. There were no significant differences observed among the groups at this stage. However, following the completion of the six-week course and the post-test assessment, notable changes in mean words per minute became apparent. This shift suggests the positive impact of the intervention on participants' fluency.

The control group (blue) participants demonstrated a pre-test mean of 89.31 words per minute (SD = 3.09). Post-intervention, there was a slight increase in speaking rate, with the mean rising to 91.54 words per minute (SD = 3.44). These standard deviation values indicate a relatively consistent performance among participants, with a modest increase in variability following the intervention. This suggests some improvement in speaking fluency, although the change is not substantial. In contrast, experimental group 1 (green) showed significant improvements in speaking rate. Initially, the group had a pre-test mean of 91.34 words per minute (SD = 3.27). After completing the intervention, participants demonstrated substantial enhancement, with the post-test mean increasing to 101.64 words per minute (SD = 3.15). The slight decrease in standard deviation post-intervention indicates that not only did the group's overall speaking rate improve markedly, but the performances also became more consistent among participants. This notable increase underscores the effectiveness of the intervention, particularly in enhancing speaking fluency and increasing the number of words spoken per minute. Similarly, experimental group 2 (red) exhibited positive changes in speaking rate from pre-test to post-test. The group started with a pre-test mean of 90.29 words per minute (SD = 3.02). Following the intervention, participants showed improvement, with the mean increasing to 99.37 words per minute (SD = 1.88). The considerable reduction in standard deviation post-intervention suggests that the participants not only improved their speaking rates but also achieved more uniformity in their performance levels. This improvement reflects a successful application of the intervention, as evidenced by both the increased speaking rate and decreased variability among participants in experimental group 2.

Having presented the mean differences between groups in terms of WPM, the following sections present the remainder of findings aimed at testing this measure to undertake a complete

analysis of the differences between groups in terms of WPM to understand the effect of the intervention on participants' fluency.

5.2.1 Testing for Differences in Speaking Rate Between Groups After Intervention

The primary objective of this study is to ascertain the differences in the performances of the participants and to assess whether these differences are statistically significant. To achieve this, the p-value is examined. In this section, a particular examination of the detailed results obtained from the two-way ANOVA analysis are presented, with a specific emphasis on investigating the differences in the participants' performance between the pre-test and post-test phases. Additionally, post-hoc analyses, including pairwise comparisons, was employed to uncover specific degrees in performance across different groups.

Source	Df	Sum Sq	Mean Sq	F value	Pr(>F)	Partial η^2
Pre-test/Post-test	1	1167.9	1167.9	127.92	< 0.001 ***	0.604
Groups	2	588.5	294.2	32.23	< 0.001***	0.434
Interaction	2	283.9	141.9	15.55	< 0.001***	0.270
Residuals	84	766.8	9.1			

Table 5.1

Two-Way ANOVA Test of Speaking Rate (Words Per Minute)

The outcomes of the two-way ANOVA test presented in Table 5.1 reveal that all groups improved between pre-test and post-test. Furthermore, the identified differences among the three groups are statistically significant ($p < 0.001$). This underscores that the observed differences in performance are not random occurrences but revealing of actual differences among the groups. The initial one-way ANOVA results indicated that there were no significant differences between the groups in their speaking rates during the pre-test phase ($p > 0.05$). This suggested that the groups were similar in their baseline speaking performance before the intervention. However, the two-way ANOVA analysis, which compared the speaking rates between pre-test and post-test phases across the different groups, revealed significant differences ($p < 0.001$). This indicates that the intervention had a meaningful effect on the speaking rates, and the differences observed are statistically significant. The apparent contradiction arises from comparing pre-test to post-test results. The initial one-way ANOVA focused solely on baseline differences before the intervention, while the two-way ANOVA examined the changes over time and differences between groups after the intervention.

The effect size, as measured by partial eta squared (η^2), provides further insight into the magnitude of these differences. The results showed a large effect for the pre-test/post-test phases ($\eta^2 = 0.604$), indicating that 60.4% of the variance in speaking rates can be attributed to the difference between pre-test and post-test phases. A substantial effect was also observed for group differences ($\eta^2 = 0.434$), where 43.4% of the variance was due to the differences between groups. Finally, the interaction between phases and groups showed a moderate effect ($\eta^2 = 0.270$), indicating that 27.0% of the variance was explained by the combined influence of phases and groups.

In summary, the lack of significant pre-test differences implies that all groups started from a similar baseline. The significant post-intervention differences, as revealed by the two-way ANOVA, demonstrate that the intervention had a differential impact on the groups, resulting in varied improvements in speaking rates. This highlights the effectiveness of the intervention and underscores that the changes observed are due to the intervention rather than pre-existing group differences. The raw data underlying these analyses, including the words per minute for each participant during both the pre-test and post-test phases, are available in Appendix N.

5.2.2 Post-hoc Pairwise Comparisons

After conducting the ANOVA test, which revealed a statistically significant difference between the means of the groups after the intervention, a subsequent exploration was undertaken to ascertain which specific groups exhibited evidence of differing from one another. This prompted the utilisation of Tukey's HSD test, designed to pinpoint pairs of means that exhibit significant differences. The results of Tukey's post-hoc comparisons are summarised in table 5.2 below.

Comparison	Difference	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Adjusted p
Experimental group 1 - Control group	6.06	4.20	7.92	< 0.001***
Experimental group 2 - Control group	4.40	2.54	6.26	< 0.001***
Experimental group 2 - Experimental group 1	-1.66	-3.52	0.20	0.091

Table 5.2

Tukey's HSD Post-hoc Comparisons of Mean Speaking Rates (Words Per Minute)

Post-hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD test revealed the following significant differences between groups:

- **Experimental group 1 vs. control group:** Experimental group 1 demonstrated a significantly higher mean speaking rate (M = 101.64, SD = 3.15) compared to the control group (M = 91.54, SD = 3.44). This indicates that the intervention in experimental group 1 resulted in a meaningful improvement in speaking rate compared to the control group.
- **Experimental group 2 vs. control group:** Similarly, experimental group 2 also showed a significantly higher mean speaking rate (M = 99.37, SD = 1.88) compared to the control group. This result highlights that the intervention for experimental group 2 led to a notable increase in speaking rate relative to the control group.
- **Experimental group 2 vs. experimental group 1:** No significant difference was found between experimental group 1 and experimental group 2. This suggests that while both experimental interventions led to improvements over the control group, the degree of improvement between the two experimental groups was not significantly different.

With the completion of the presentation of the findings related to WPM measures, the following sections provide an in-depth discussion of these findings.

5.3 Frequency of Hesitations

The pre-test and post-test performances of the groups in terms of frequency of hesitations is depicted in Figure 5.2, which illustrates the mean hesitations per minute in pre-test and post-test by group.

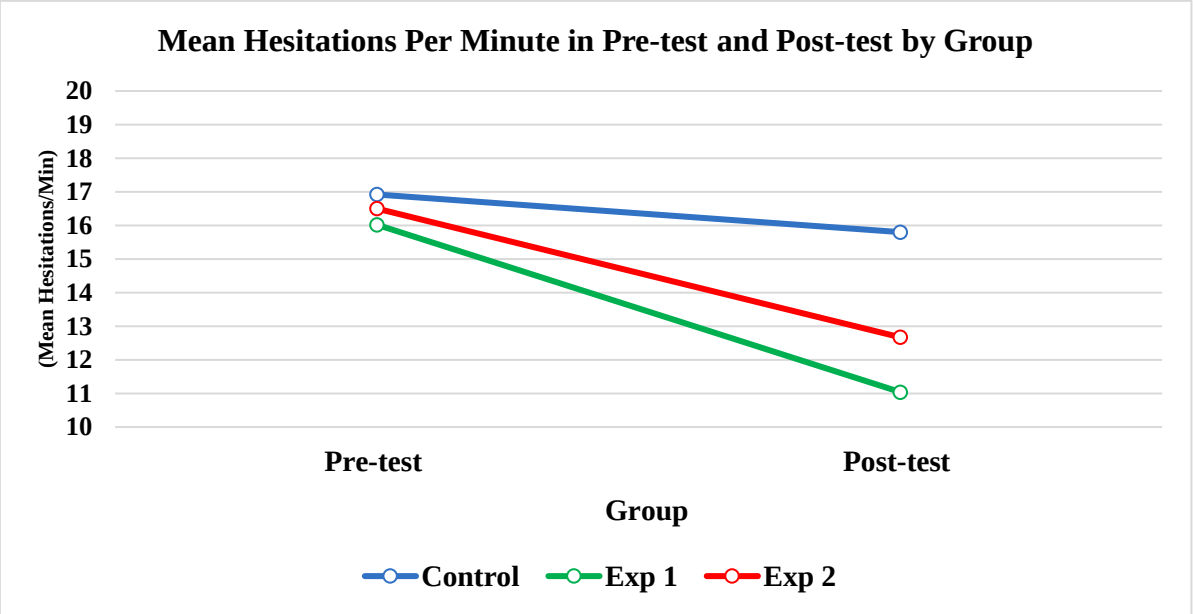

Figure 5.2 Mean Hesitations Per Minute in Pre-Test and Post-Test by Group

Figure 5.2 visually compares the mean hesitations per minute before (pre-test) and after (post-test) an intervention across three groups: control group, experimental group 1, and experimental group 2. Each group is represented by a distinct colour: control group (blue), experimental group 1 (green), and experimental group 2 (red). The y-axis shows the mean hesitations per minute during the pre-test and post-test phases. Connecting lines between pre-test and post-test points highlight changes in hesitation frequency within each group over time.

Initially, all groups exhibited similar mean hesitation rates during the pre-test phase, as shown in the figure. There were no significant differences among the groups at this stage. However, after the six-week course and the post-test assessment, notable changes in mean hesitations per minute became evident, suggesting the intervention's impact on participants' fluency. The control group (blue) participants had a pre-test mean of 16.92 hesitations per minute (SD = 1.70). Post-intervention, there was a slight decrease in hesitation frequency, with the mean lowering to 15.80 hesitations per minute (SD = 2.17). These standard deviation values indicate consistent performance among participants, with a modest increase in variability following the intervention. This suggests some improvement in reducing hesitations, although the change is not substantial.

In contrast, experimental group 1 (green) showed significant reductions in hesitation rates. Initially, the group had a pre-test mean of 16.02 hesitations per minute (SD = 1.56). After the intervention, participants demonstrated substantial improvement, with the post-test mean decreasing to 11.04 hesitations per minute (SD = 1.27). The slight reduction in standard deviation post-intervention indicates that not only did the group's hesitation rates improve markedly, but performances also became more consistent among participants. This notable decrease underscores the effectiveness of the intervention, particularly in reducing speech hesitations and fostering more fluent speech.

Similarly, experimental group 2 (red) exhibited positive changes in hesitation rates from pre-test to post-test. The group started with a pre-test mean of 16.50 hesitations per minute (SD = 1.08). Following the intervention, participants showed improvement, with the mean lowering to 12.67 hesitations per minute (SD = 1.67). The reduction in standard deviation post-intervention suggests that participants not only reduced their hesitation rates but also achieved more uniformity in their performance levels. This improvement reflects the successful application of the intervention, as evidenced by both the reduced hesitation rate and decreased variability among participants in experimental group 2.

5.3.1 Testing for Differences between Groups after Intervention

A detailed analysis of the results derived from the two-way ANOVA analysis for frequency of hesitations is presented in Table 5.2. This reveals any differences in participant performance during both the pre-test and post-test phases.

Source	Df	Sum Sq	Mean Sq	F value	Pr(>F)	Partial η^2
Pre-test/Post-test	1	246.7	246.7	94.36	< 0.001***	0.529
Groups	2	122.4	61.2	23.4	< 0.001***	0.357
Interaction	2	58.6	29.3	11.21	< 0.001***	0.211
Residuals	84	219.6	2.6			

Table 5.3

Two-Way ANOVA Test of Hesitations Per Minute

Table 5.3 illustrates the outcomes of the two-way ANOVA analysis, which examined the impact of the intervention on the mean hesitations per minute across three groups: the control group, experimental group 1, and experimental group 2. Initially, during the pre-test phase, the one-way ANOVA indicated that there were no statistically significant differences in hesitation rates among the groups ($p > 0.05$). This finding suggests that the groups were relatively similar in their baseline levels of speech hesitations, establishing a consistent starting point for the intervention.

Following the six-week intervention, the two-way ANOVA revealed significant differences in hesitation rates between the pre-test and post-test phases across the different groups ($p < 0.001$). This result highlights that the intervention had a substantial impact on reducing speech hesitations, with the differences in post-test hesitation rates being statistically significant. The decrease in hesitations observed in the post-test phase was not due to random variation but rather reflected real differences in how the intervention influenced the groups. The effect size, measured using partial eta squared (η^2), provides additional insight into the magnitude of the differences observed in the study. For the pre-test/post-test comparison, a large effect size was found ($\eta^2 = 0.529$), indicating that 52.9% of the variance in hesitations was due to the difference between pre-test and post-test phases. A moderate effect was observed for the differences between groups ($\eta^2 = 0.357$), suggesting that 35.7% of the variance in hesitations can be attributed to group differences. Additionally, the interaction between phases and groups showed a smaller but still meaningful effect ($\eta^2 = 0.211$), indicating that 21.1% of the variance in hesitation rates was explained by the combined influence of both factors.

Notably, while all groups showed some level of improvement, the level of change varied significantly between them, indicating that the intervention had a differential effect. This suggests that the intervention's design, likely through the specific communicative activities employed, played a crucial role in reducing speech hesitations more effectively in some groups than in others. The raw data supporting these findings, including the mean hesitations per minute for each participant during the pre-test and post-test phases, can be found in Appendix N.

5.3.2 Post-hoc Pairwise Comparisons (Hesitations Per Minute)

Post-hoc Following the ANOVA test, which revealed a significant difference in the reduction of hesitations per minute across the groups after the intervention, further analysis was conducted to identify specific group pairs with notable differences. Tukey's HSD test was utilised for this purpose, allowing for a detailed examination of which pairs of groups demonstrated significant changes in their post-test hesitation rates. The results of Tukey's HSD post-hoc comparisons are summarized in Table 5.4 below.

Comparison	Difference	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Adjusted p
Experimental group 1 - Control group	-2.82	-3.84	-1.80	< 0.001***
Experimental group 2 - Control group	-1.77	-2.79	-0.75	< 0.001***
Experimental group 2 - Experimental group 1	1.05	0.02	2.07	0.042

Table 5.4

Tukey's HSD Post-hoc Comparisons of Hesitations Per Minute

Post-hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD test revealed the following differences between groups:

- **Experimental group 1 vs. control group:** Experimental group 1 exhibited a substantially lower mean hesitation rate (M = 11.04, SD = 1.27) compared to the control group (M = 15.80, SD = 2.17). This suggests that the intervention applied to experimental group 1 was particularly effective in reducing speech hesitations relative to the control group.
- **Experimental group 2 vs. control group:** Similarly, experimental group 2 also demonstrated a significantly lower mean hesitation rate (M = 12.67, SD = 1.67) compared to the control group. This indicates that the intervention in experimental group 2 led to a meaningful decrease in hesitations per minute, reflecting a significant improvement compared to the control group.

- **Experimental group 1 vs. experimental group 2:** While both Experimental group 1 and experimental group 2 showed considerable reductions in hesitations, the difference between them was not as pronounced as the difference each had with the control group. The two experimental groups exhibited similar levels of improvement, with experimental group 1 showing slightly better results, but both were much closer to each other than to the control group.

5.4 Clusters

Figure 5.3 depicts the changes in consonant cluster performance within each group from pre-test to post-test, illustrating the differences observed before and after the intervention.

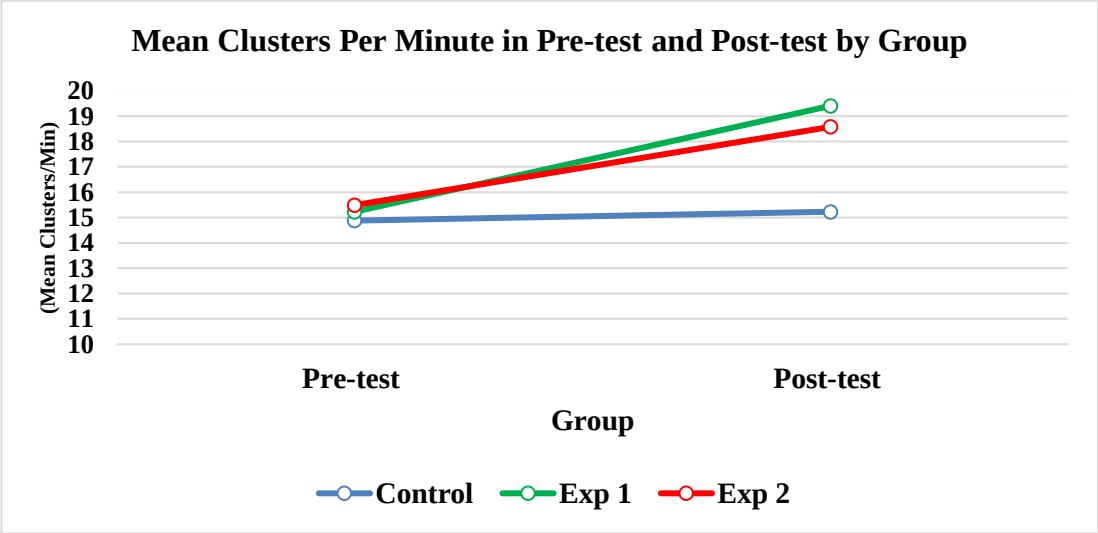

Figure 5.3 Mean Clusters Per Minute in Pre-Test and Post-Test by Group

Figure 5.3 provides a visual comparison of the mean number of consonant clusters per minute before (pre-test) and after (post-test) an intervention across three groups: the control group, experimental group 1, and experimental group 2. Each group is represented by a distinct color: control group (blue), experimental group 1 (green), and experimental group 2 (red). The y-axis represents the mean consonant clusters per minute during both phases. Connecting lines illustrate the changes in performance over time.

Initially, all groups had similar mean rates of consonant clusters per minute in the pre-test phase. However, significant changes were observed after the six-week intervention, indicating the impact of the intervention on pronunciation patterns. The control group (blue) showed a pre-test mean of 14.88 consonant clusters per minute (SD = 2.22). Post-intervention, this mean slightly increased to 15.23 consonant clusters per minute (SD = 1.92), suggesting modest improvement with minimal change in variability. Experimental group 1 (green) started with a pre-test mean of 15.23 consonant clusters per minute (SD = 1.65) and improved

significantly, with the post-test mean rising to 19.41 consonant clusters per minute (SD = 1.41). Experimental group 2 (red) began with a pre-test mean of 15.49 consonant clusters per minute (SD = 1.57) and showed improvement, with the mean increasing to 18.58 consonant clusters per minute (SD = 1.20). The reduced standard deviation post-intervention reflects improved consistency among participants.

5.4.1 Testing for Differences between Groups after Intervention

One of the objectives of this study was to ascertain discrepancies in the performances of participants and assess the statistical significance of these variations in terms of the number of clusters that appeared in their speech. With the purpose of achieving this objective, a comprehensive examination of outcomes was obtained through a two-way ANOVA test. The primary emphasis was directed towards examining distinctions in participant performance during both the pre-test and post-test phases, with a concurrent exploration of interaction effects.

Source	Df	Sum Sq	Mean Sq	F value	Pr(>F)	Partial η^2
Pre-test/Post-test	1	144.9	144.9	46.5	<0.001 ***	0.356
Groups	2	91.07	45.54	14.6	<0.001 ***	0.258
Interaction	2	58.40	29.20	9.3	0.0002***	0.182
Residuals	84	261.35	3.11			

Table 5.5

Two-Way ANOVA Test of Clusters Per Minute

Table 5.5 presents the results of the two-way ANOVA analysis, which assessed the impact of the intervention on the mean number of consonant clusters per minute across three groups. During the pre-test phase, a one-way ANOVA indicated no significant differences in consonant cluster rates among the groups ($p > 0.05$), suggesting that the groups were similar in their initial consonant cluster usage. This provided a consistent baseline for evaluating the intervention's effects. Following the six-week intervention, the two-way ANOVA revealed significant differences in consonant cluster rates between the pre-test and post-test phases across the groups ($p < 0.001$). The effect size, as indicated by partial eta squared (η^2), provides additional insight into the magnitude of the differences observed in consonant cluster rates. For the pre-test/post-test comparison, a large effect size was found ($\eta^2 = 0.356$), suggesting that 35.6% of the variance in consonant cluster rates can be attributed to the differences between the pre-test and post-test phases. The analysis also showed a moderate effect for group differences ($\eta^2 = 0.258$), indicating that 25.8% of the variance in consonant clusters was due to

differences between the groups. Finally, the interaction between phases and groups had a moderate effect ($\eta^2 = 0.182$), suggesting that 18.2% of the variance in consonant cluster rates was explained by the combined influence of both factors.

Although all groups showed some improvement, the degree of change varied significantly, indicating that the intervention was more effective in certain groups. This variability likely stems from the specific communicative activities employed during the intervention, which played a key role in enhancing pronunciation skills. The detailed data supporting these findings, including the mean number of consonant clusters per minute for each participant during the pre-test and post-test phases, can be found in Appendix N.

5.4.2 Post-hoc Pairwise Comparisons

Following the ANOVA test, which confirmed a statistically significant difference in mean consonant cluster rates among the groups after the intervention, a post-hoc analysis was conducted to determine which specific group pairs exhibited significant differences. This analysis used Tukey's HSD test; a method effective in identifying meaningful distinctions between pairs of group means. The results of Tukey's HSD post-hoc comparisons are summarized in Table 5.6 below.

Comparison	Difference	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Adjusted p
Experimental group 1 - Control group	2.26	1.17	3.35	< 0.001***
Experimental group 2 - Control group	1.97	0.88	3.06	< 0.001***
Experimental group 2 - Experimental group 1	-0.29	-1.37	0.79	0.7994

Table 5.6

Tukey's HSD Post-hoc Comparisons of clusters Per Minute

The results from the post-hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD test are detailed as follows:

- **Experimental group 1 vs. control group:** Experimental group 1 showed a significantly higher mean rate of consonant clusters per minute (M = 19.41, SD = 1.19) compared to the control group (M = 15.23, SD = 1.92). This indicates that the intervention applied to experimental group 1 led to a substantial improvement in consonant cluster management relative to the control group.

- **Experimental group 2 vs. control group:** Similarly, experimental group 2 demonstrated a significantly higher mean rate of consonant clusters per minute (M = 18.58, SD = 1.20) compared to the control group.
- **Experimental group 1 vs. experimental group 2:** No significant difference was observed between experimental group 1 and experimental group 2. This suggests that while both experimental interventions were effective in increasing consonant cluster rates compared to the control group, the extent of improvement was not significantly different between the two experimental groups.

With the completion of the presentation of results for the third measurement, the next sub-section presents a discussion and analysis of these results.

5.4.3 Discussion of Improvement in Fluency

Discussion and Analysis of Results for WPM

The results of the analysis highlighted significant improvements in speaking rate across the experimental groups compared to the control group. This section explores the implications of these findings in greater detail and examines how the interventions influenced fluency.

The primary objective of this study is to understand whether CLT activities enhance participants' fluency when speaking using the English language compared to GTM, and to assess whether role-play or problem-solving activities are more effective in this regard. Nearly every participant in this study shares the common goal of improving their fluency, recognising sufficient knowledge of grammar, structure, and vocabulary. That said, improving speech fluency is not a straightforward task without sufficient support from teachers, who play a crucial role in implementing activities that create a conducive environment for learners to practice the language. Depending only on acquisition of knowledge without practical application proves insufficient. To highlight this point, recent research indicates that relying solely on the acquisition of knowledge without practical application is insufficient for effective learning. For instance, a study by Lombardi (2007) emphasises the importance of authentic learning experiences that connect theoretical knowledge to real-world contexts, enhancing students' critical thinking and problem-solving skills. Additionally, Freeman *et al.* (2014) found that active learning strategies, which involve practical application of knowledge, significantly improve student performance and understanding in education. Some participants from this study, despite identifying a satisfactory amount of knowledge, still they struggle to produce fluent speech This challenge may arise from the common practice among educators to dominate classroom discussions, leaving limited opportunities for learners to actively practice and speak

the target language (Wang, 2014). In this present study, both experimental groups are thus provided these opportunities to ascertain their efficacy in improving spoken fluency.

Overall, the results of the current study indicate that participants in the experimental groups successfully increased the number of words in their speech. Consequently, a modest improvement in their speaking fluency is evident, attributable to the implementation of activities based on the CLT approach. The assessment of fluency can be done under various conditions; however, in the present study, WPM and hesitations per minute were used as the primary indicators of fluency.

The findings of the current study reveal that, upon the implementation of CLT activities (role-play and problem-solving) in the English language classroom, a considerable enhancement in the speech of participants in the experimental groups was observed in terms of WPM. In contrast, participants in the control group did not demonstrate the same level of improvement observed in the experimental groups. Drawing upon the findings presented in the previous sections, it is evident that after the administration of the post-test for all participants, a majority of those in the experimental groups found the techniques used in their classes to be effective for improving their fluency. This improvement can be attributed to the opportunities that provided to participants in their classes, where they engaged in language practice, discussions, and negotiations with their teacher. In contrast, the increase in WPM in the speech of participants in the control group was less pronounced than that observed in the experimental groups. This inconsistency can be attributed to the lack of opportunities for language practice in the classes for the control group participants.

Similarly, Molina and Briesmaster (2017) demonstrated in their research conducted within the Chilean teaching context that after the adoption of the Communicative Language Teaching approach, there were notable improvements to WPM. Students at the technical university in Chile expressed interest in applying this approach in their classes. This interest was driven by an observed improvement in their speech fluency, particularly in terms of WPM. In addition, Gorsuch (2011) conducted a study in the U.S.A. aimed at improving the fluency of international teaching assistants. In his study, speech rate was measured using WPM as an indicator. Comparable to the participants in the current study (participants in the experimental groups), Gorsuch's study participants showed positive results as they successfully increased their speech rate in terms of WPM, evidencing an improvement in their spoken fluency. However, it should be noted that despite the techniques and methods in Gorsuch's study, which involved repeated reading (RR) sessions where participants read along with audio recordings of texts, being different from those used in the current study (role-play activities and problem-

solving tasks), the focus on interactive and communicative practices was a common factor contributing to the enhancement of fluency in both studies.

In summary, the implementation of the CLT approach, specifically through role-play and problem-solving activities, resulted in enhancements in WPM of the participants throughout the six-week course. With the completion of the presentation of the first measurement, the next section introduces the findings and discussion related to the measurement of frequency of hesitations that occurred in the participants' speech.

Interpretation and Analysis of Results (Frequency of Hesitations)

The section focuses on assessing the results related to frequency of hesitations for both pre- and post-tests. This measurement method allowed for a further examination of participants' fluency levels before and after the intervention.

The results of the experimental groups in the post-test, as presented in this chapter, demonstrate a significant improvement not only in speech rate measured in WPM but also in the reduction of hesitations per minute. It can be inferred that the combination of role-play and problem-solving activities provided participants with sufficient opportunities to communicate in English with a fluency level higher than the ordinary during their performance in the post-test. This improvement is observable in the performance of participants in experimental group 1, who successfully decreased the average number of hesitations in their post-test, particularly after engaging in the role-play activity in their classroom. Likewise, participants in experimental group 2 excelled in their post-test, managing to reduce the number of hesitations in their speech following the implementation of the problem-solving activity in their classroom. Improvements in this regard for the experimental groups were markedly better than those for the control group.

These findings are similar to those of Arevart and Nation (1991), who employed the technique 4/3/2 (CLT) in their study. They found that participants evidenced a notable improvement in speech rate, hesitations per minute, and WPM, indicating a significant enhancement in fluency. In addition, De Jong and Perfetti (2011) utilised these measures in their work assessing the efficacy of CLT activities in improving fluency and noted similar results. Thus, it is apparent that the incorporation of such activities in the classroom can contribute to learners speaking more fluently with fewer hesitations. Subsequently, speaking fluency can be enhanced by various factors, as mentioned by Richards (2005), such as the utilisation of communication approaches, interaction in problem-solving tasks, and collaborative activities, including taking on roles.

According to the work of Lee (2008), the phenomenon of hesitation is considered as a criterion in determining speaking fluency, with hesitations tending to occur frequently at the start of utterances or speaking turns for learner of a second (or other) language. This is evident in the performance of participants in the control group during their post-test, where hesitations appeared frequently at the start of their speech. However, considering the reality that very few participants as well as native speakers can speak completely fluently without any hesitation, even the participants in the experimental groups, who performed well in their post-tests, still showed hesitations in their speech.

Interpretation and Analysis of Results (Clusters)

In this section, the manner in which participants' speaking skills improved in terms of production of consonant clusters. This analysis examines the effects of these phonetic structures on spoken language proficiency, shedding light on the challenges posed by consonant clusters and their impact on fluency.

Consonant clusters, which occur when two or more consonant sounds are combined consecutively within a word, require precise articulation such as the "/spl/" sound in the word "split". As noted by Tran and Nguyen (2022), English is notably rich in consonant clusters, a feature not shared by all languages worldwide. Consonant clusters can be apparent in three noticeable positions: within a syllable: syllable-initial (at the beginning of a syllable) exemplified by the beginning sounds in words (e.g., "**br**eakdown", "**str**eet"), syllable-middle (within the body of a syllable), as seen in the word "cre**at**ion", and syllable-final (at the end of a syllable) such as the final "s" third person singular, as in the verb "asks".

Mastering linguistic clusters often represents a significant challenge for second language learners, especially when the linguistic clusters present in the target language do not exist in their native language. Indeed, differences in phonological systems between Arabic and English present a notable challenge for Arabic speakers when acquiring English proficiency (Al-Samawi, 2014). Specifically, Arabic lacks certain consonantal phonemes prevalent in English, such as the voiceless plosive /p/ and voiced fricative /v/. Consequently, Arabic speakers may encounter difficulties in accurately producing and distinguishing these sounds. This is evident in the speech of the participants in the current study during their pre-test. In certain instances, in both pre- and post-test phases, insertion of vowel sounds to break the consonant clusters was evident, a phenomenon also observed in Arabic (the participants' L1). More specifically, in the participants' speech, difficulties with longer consonant clusters, such as in the case of "sometimes" /sʌmtaɪmz/, were evident. They inserted a vowel sound /ɪ/ to break the cluster resulting in pronunciation as /sʌmtaɪmɪz/. In addition, many participants encountered

difficulties with three-consonant clusters, specifically in CCCV syllables, during their pre-test. These instances, often referred to as English syllable-final consonant clusters, were particularly challenging due to the incorporation of sounds such as /-d/ or /-t/ for the past simple tense and /-s/ or /-z/ for plurals. These sounds were frequently omitted in their speech during the pre-test. However, notable improvements were observed in the post-test performances of participants in the experimental groups. The insertion of these previously missing sounds in their speech during the post-test indicates a significant enhancement, forming consonant clusters and showcasing progress in their pronunciation skills.

Throughout the study, it was observed that participants frequently omitted final clusters, which mark grammatical functions such as tense or plural. These omissions were counted both as cluster omissions and as grammatical errors when the omission impacted the grammatical correctness of the sentence, such as in subject-verb agreement or plural marking. However, it is important to acknowledge that this dual categorization introduces a potential limitation. Specifically, it is difficult to determine whether the omission of a final cluster, such as in the example “She *walk to school every day,” reflects a grammatical error (i.e., an issue with subject-verb agreement) or a phonological difficulty in producing the final cluster /lks/. This distinction between grammatical knowledge gaps and phonological challenges was not fully addressed in the current study. Consequently, while the counting of cluster omissions as grammatical errors provides useful insights, it may also obscure the true nature of the participants’ grammatical competence. To address this limitation, future research should aim to explore methods for disentangling phonological omissions from actual grammatical errors, which would allow for a clearer interpretation of participants' underlying grammatical knowledge.

Epenthesis, a phonological phenomenon, occurs when a speaker inserts a vowel between two consonants to deliberately break a consonant cluster. In the context of the current study, it can be argued that epenthesis played a central role in reducing the number of clusters observed in the speech of participants during both their pre-test. Several instances were observed in the speech of participants from the control group during their post-test assessment. For instance, in participant 22's pre-test, in the word “fact”, the vowel sound /i/ was inserted between the consonants /k/ and /t/ to break the consonant cluster, resulting in its pronunciation as /fækɪt/.

Arab speakers commonly employ internal epenthesis, notably demonstrated in words such as “film”, where an additional vowel is introduced to break the consonant cluster, resulting in its pronunciation as /fɪlɪm/. This deliberate use of epenthesis reflects a phonological adaptation employed by speakers, shedding light on the nature of linguistic strategies utilised

by individuals from different language backgrounds. Additionally, external epenthesis is evident, as exemplified in the word “sport” /ɪspɔːt/. This phenomenon is illustrated in the speech of participant 13, when he expresses his preference, stated, "I like watching Omar Almokhtar film”. Notably, the pronunciation of the word “film” follows the pattern mentioned earlier, pronounced as /fɪlɪm/.

Parker and Riley (2009) contribute to the understanding of epenthesis in the context of Arabic learners acquiring the English language. They explain that Arab learners frequently insert the vowel /i/ in words such as “plane”. Rather than pronouncing it correctly as /pleɪn/, they introduce the vowel /i/, resulting in the pronunciation /ɪpleɪn/. This serves as a linguistic adaptation strategy, underscoring the dynamic nature of language acquisition and pronunciation adjustments among learners from diverse linguistic backgrounds. It is evident from the participants' performances that they employ the strategy of inserting a short vowel to deliberately break down long consonant clusters. This linguistic phenomenon can be attributed to the influence of the Arabic language system, which inherently favours simpler syllables over more complex ones (Al-Samawi, 2014).

Consistent with Alkhuli (2009), the English language permits the occurrence of two or more consonants within the same syllable. A linguistic feature that contrasts with the constraints of the Arabic language, where such consonant clustering within a syllable is not typical (Elsaghayer, 2014). This linguistic divergence becomes apparent in the speech patterns of participants, as illustrated by a specific instance in the control group. For instance, one participant pronounced the word “first” with the introduction of an additional vowel, resulting in its pronunciation as /fɪrɪst/. In a study conducted by Al-Samawi (2014), a comparative analysis of syllable structures in English and Arabic was undertaken. Al-Samawi's research aligns with the assertion that the syllable structure in Arabic is adaptable, allowing for the initiation of a syllable with either a consonant or a vowel, and similarly, the possibility for a syllable to be ended with either a consonant or a vowel.

As a result, the challenges encountered by Libyan speakers in dealing with consonant clusters can be attributed to the disparities between the Arabic and English inventories of long consonant clusters and the techniques employed to produce them. The participants in this study often inserted a vowel to break down the extended consonant clusters, reflecting the influence of the Arabic language's preference for simpler syllables over longer and more complex ones. This linguistic distinction plays a crucial role in shaping the pronunciation strategies adopted by speakers, underscoring the impact of native language patterns on the challenges faced by learners acquiring a second language.

5.5 Grammatical Errors

5.5.1 Rate of grammatical Errors per Word

In this section, I analyse the rate of grammatical errors in participants' speech by normalising the number of grammatical errors to the total number of words spoken. This measure assesses how frequently grammatical errors occur relative to the number of words produced, providing a clearer understanding of error frequency in relation to overall speech output. For example, in the control group, S1 participant spoke a total of 224 words and made 17 grammatical errors in pre-test. The Rate of Grammatical Errors per Word is calculated as follows:

Rate of Grammatical Errors per Word = (17/224=0.0658)

This result indicates that approximately 0.0658 grammatical errors were made for every word spoken by this participant. By expressing the error rate in this normalised form, I can better assess grammatical accuracy independent of the total word count, allowing for a fair comparison between participants with varying amounts of speech. This method provides valuable insights into the participants' speech performance, highlighting patterns in grammatical accuracy both within and across different groups. The data show variability in grammatical error rates among participants in both the control and experimental groups. For instance, participants in the control group displayed a range of error rates from 0.0598 to 0.0834 in their pre-tests, while those in the experimental groups (EX1 and EX2) exhibited a similar range of error rates from 0.0598 to 0.0827. Notably, many participants demonstrated a reduction in their error rates from pre-test to post-test. For example, participant S1 in the control group had an error rate of 0.0759 per word in the pre-test, which decreased to 0.0658 in the post-test, suggesting an improvement in grammatical accuracy.

These findings imply that the intervention may have had varying levels of impact on grammatical accuracy, with some participants benefiting more than others. By normalising grammatical errors to the number of words spoken, this analysis provides a more precise and equitable assessment of grammatical accuracy across participants. The complete list of data, including word counts, grammatical error counts, and error rates per word for all participants, is presented in Appendix M.

5.5.2 Grammatical Errors in Subject-Verb Agreement: Analysis and Importance

Grammatical errors in speech production refer to inaccuracies in applying language rules that govern sentence structure during spoken communication. These errors occur when speakers incorrectly use grammatical rules, leading to mistakes that can affect the clarity and

effectiveness of their speech. In the context of subject-verb agreement, grammatical errors often involve incorrect verb forms in relation to their subjects, such as omitting the -s in "runs" for third-person singular subjects or misusing verb endings. Understanding and addressing these errors is crucial for improving speaking skills, as they can significantly hinder clear and effective communication. Proper use of grammar enhances the coherence and accuracy of speech, making interactions smoother and more comprehensible.

This study focuses on systematically analysing grammatical errors related to subject-verb agreement within participants' speech patterns. The research aims to identify instances where these errors disrupt the correct application of subject-verb agreement rules, which are essential for grammatical accuracy in speaking. Through detailed transcription and coding of speech samples, the study meticulously documented and categorised these grammatical inaccuracies. Supporting literature emphasises the importance of addressing grammatical errors to enhance speaking skills. Jenkins (2000) stresses that correct grammar usage is vital for clarity in spoken communication, especially in diverse linguistic settings. Similarly, Derwing and Munro (2005) highlight that targeted instruction in grammar can effectively reduce errors, thereby improving overall speaking proficiency.

By concentrating on grammatical errors, particularly those related to subject-verb agreement, this research aims to deepen the understanding of the challenges learners face in mastering grammatical accuracy in speech. Ultimately, the study seeks to contribute valuable insights into the effectiveness of CLT activities aimed at enhancing grammatical proficiency, thus leading to more accurate and fluent speaking skills among learners.

5.5.3 Coding of Grammatical Errors in Relation to Speaking Skills

In analysing participants' speaking skills, the study coded grammatical errors with a focus on tense and subject-verb agreement discrepancies. This focused approach was critical in assessing how grammatical accuracy impacts speaking proficiency. For tense errors, the coding process involved identifying when the tense used did not fit the context of the sentence. For instance, if a participant said, "He went to school every day" when the present tense "He goes to school every day" was appropriate, this was recorded as a tense error. The distinction was based on the context in which the action was described. The present tense was required to accurately convey a habitual action occurring regularly in the present, and using the past tense incorrectly alters the intended meaning.

Regarding subject-verb agreement, the focus was on instances where the verb did not properly align with its subject in terms of person or number. For example, the sentence "she

talk all the time" instead of "she talks all the time" was identified as a subject-verb agreement error. This type of grammatical discrepancy affects the structure of the sentence and its clarity. The error here is that the verb "talk" does not agree with the singular subject "she", which should be reflected by the verb form "talks".

This study concentrated on grammatical correctness. By focusing on these grammatical errors, the study aimed to capture how well participants adhered to rules of tense and agreement, which are crucial for constructing clear and grammatically accurate sentences. This approach ensured that errors affecting sentence structure and meaning were identified and analysed.

5.5.4 Frequency of Grammatical Errors

Figure 5.4 illustrates the changes in grammatical error performance within each group from pre-test to post-test, highlighting the differences observed before and after the intervention.

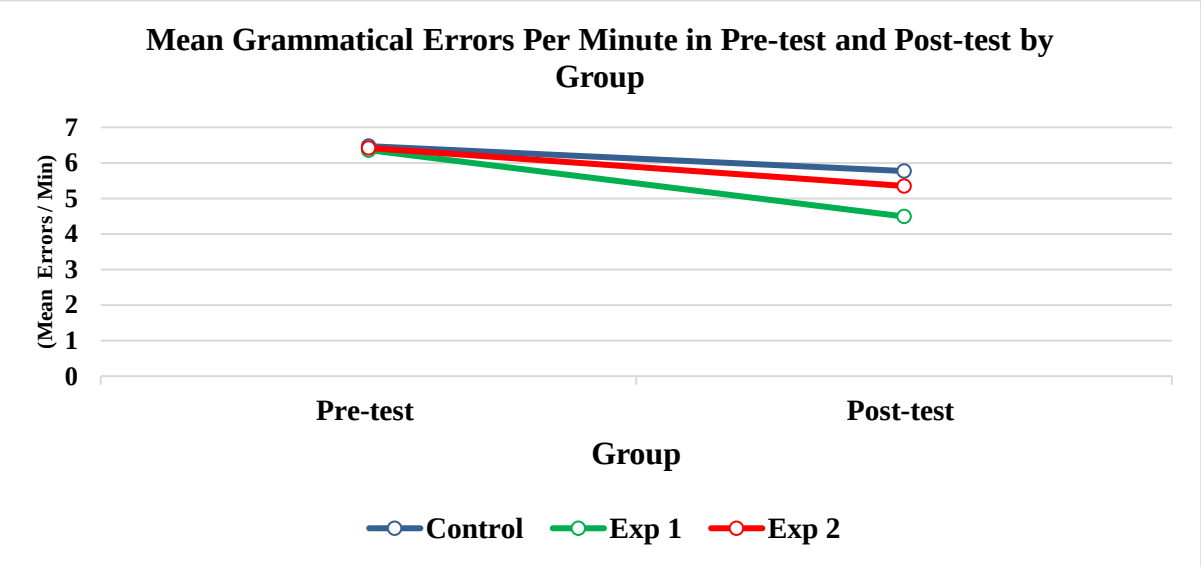

Figure 5.4 Mean Grammatical Errors Per Minute in Pre-Test and Post-Test by Group

Figure 5.4 provides a visual comparison of the mean number of grammatical errors per minute before (pre-test) and after (post-test) an intervention across three groups: the control group (blue), experimental group 1 (green), and experimental group 2 (red). The y-axis represents the mean number of grammatical errors per minute during both phases. Connecting lines illustrate the changes in performance over time.

Initially, all groups exhibited similar rates of grammatical errors per minute during the pre-test phase. However, significant changes were observed following the six-week intervention, highlighting the impact of the intervention on grammatical accuracy. The control group (blue) had a pre-test mean of 6.47 grammatical errors per minute (SD = 0.51). Post-

intervention, this mean slightly decreased to 5.77 grammatical errors per minute (SD = 0.59), suggesting a modest improvement with minimal change in variability. Experimental group 1 (green) started with a pre-test mean of 6.36 grammatical errors per minute (SD = 0.51) and showed significant improvement, with the post-test mean decreasing to 4.79 grammatical errors per minute (SD = 0.58). Experimental group 2 (red) began with a pre-test mean of 6.42 grammatical errors per minute (SD = 0.52) and also demonstrated improvement, with the mean decreasing to 5.35 grammatical errors per minute (SD = 0.51). The reduced standard deviation post-intervention indicates improved consistency among participants.

5.5.5 Testing for Differences between Groups after Intervention

To evaluate the statistical significance of variations of the data derived related to grammatical errors in speech, a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted. The primary focus was to examine the statistical significance of the disparities in participant performance during both the pre- and post-test phases.

Source	Df	Sum Sq	Mean Sq	F value	Pr(>F)	Partial η^2
Pre-test/Post-test	1	27.95	27.95	95.82	<0.001 ***	0.533
Groups	2	4.51	2.25	7.73	0.0008***	0.155
Interaction	2	2.93	1.46	5.02	0.0086**	0.106
Residuals	84	24.50	0.29			

Table 5.7

Two-Way ANOVA Test of Grammatical Errors Per Minute

Table 5.7 presents the results of the two-way ANOVA analysis, which evaluated the impact of the intervention on the mean number of grammatical errors per minute across three groups. In the pre-test phase, a one-way ANOVA showed no significant differences in grammatical error rates among the groups ($p > 0.05$), indicating that the groups were comparable in their initial levels of grammatical accuracy. This provided a reliable baseline for assessing the effects of the intervention. After the six-week intervention, the two-way ANOVA revealed significant differences in grammatical error rates between the pre-test and post-test phases across the groups ($p < 0.001$). The effect size, represented by partial eta squared (η^2), offers additional insight into the magnitude of the differences observed in grammatical errors. For the pre-test/post-test comparison, a substantial effect was found ($\eta^2 = 0.533$), meaning that over half (53.3%) of the variance in grammatical errors can be attributed to the differences between the pre-test and post-test phases. A moderate effect size was found for group differences ($\eta^2 = 0.155$), indicating that 15.5% of the variance in grammatical errors was due to

the differences between groups. Furthermore, the interaction between phases and groups showed a small to moderate effect ($\eta^2 = 0.106$), explaining 10.6% of the variance in grammatical errors. This suggests that the combination of phase and group factors contributed to a meaningful but smaller proportion of the overall variance in grammatical accuracy.

Although all groups exhibited some improvement, the extent of change varied significantly, suggesting that the intervention was more effective in certain groups. This variation likely reflects the specific instructional strategies used during the intervention, which played a crucial role in improving grammatical accuracy. The detailed data supporting these findings, including the mean number of grammatical errors per minute for each participant during the pre-test and post-test phases, can be found in Appendix N.

5.5.6 Post-hoc Pairwise Comparisons

After conducting the ANOVA test, which revealed a statistically significant difference between the means of the groups following the intervention, a detailed analysis was performed to identify which specific groups differed from each other. This analysis employed Tukey's HSD test, designed to highlight pairs of means that exhibit significant differences. The results of Tukey's HSD post-hoc comparisons are summarized in Table 5.8 below.

Comparison	Difference	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Adjusted p
Experimental group 1 - Control group	-0.54	-0.87	-0.21	0.0005*
Experimental group 2 - Control group	-0.23	-0.57	-0.09	0.2051
Experimental group 2 - Experimental group 1	-0.30	-0.02	0.64	0.0759

Table 5.8

Tukey's HSD Post-hoc Comparisons of grammatical errors Per Minute

The post-hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD test revealed the following:

- **Experimental group 1 vs. control group:** Experimental group 1 exhibited a significantly lower mean rate of grammatical errors per minute post-intervention (M = 4.79, SD = 0.58) compared to the control group (M = 5.77, SD = 0.59). This finding indicates that the intervention implemented in experimental group 1 was notably effective in reducing grammatical errors compared to the control group.
- **Experimental group 2 vs. control group:** No statistically significant difference was observed between experimental group 2 and the control group (M = 5.35, SD = 0.51 for experimental group 2 vs. M = 5.77, SD = 0.59 for the control group, Difference = -0.23,

p = 0.2051). This indicates that while there was a reduction in grammatical errors in experimental group 2, it was not significantly different from the reduction observed in the control group.

- **Experimental group 1 vs. experimental group 2:** No significant difference was observed between experimental group 1 and experimental group 2. This suggests that while both experimental interventions resulted in improvements over the control group, the extent of improvement was not significantly different between the two experimental groups.

These results align with the observations presented in Figure 5.4, where participants in Experimental Group 1 showed a more pronounced reduction in grammatical errors from pre-test to post-test. Overall, while both experimental groups exhibited improvements, the impact of the intervention was more substantial in experimental group 1. The control group also demonstrated a reduction in grammatical errors post-test, though this change was not statistically significant.

The following sub-section presents a detailed analysis and interpretation of these results related to the measurement of grammatical errors that occurred in the participants' speech.

5.5.7 Interpretation and Analysis of Results (Grammatical Errors)

According to Lumban *et al.* (2018), incorporating grammar instruction into lessons focused on speaking skills not only motivates students and enhances their speaking proficiency but also boosts their confidence. However, mastering spoken English presents numerous challenges for students, with grammatical errors being a prominent obstacle. In addition, some participants feel anxiety and fear of making mistakes in grammar rules, leading them to be self-conscious. Fluency is another feature of speaking skills that can be impacted negatively by grammatical errors since frequent errors likely disrupt the flow of communication. In this study, for example, a participant corrected himself mid-sentence to fix grammatical mistakes, hindering his ability to speak naturally and fluently.

Nayan and Jusoff (2009) identified similar types of subject-verb agreement errors in their study, conducted among students enrolled in an English for Academic Purposes course at a Malaysian university. As asserted in their study, subject-verb agreement errors frequently occur in both spoken and written English among learners and teachers, particularly in their speech. Flowerdew (2001) noted in his study that subject-verb agreement errors are common in papers submitted by non-native English writers. Various tense errors were identified in the oral pre- and post-test data of participants, encompassing subject-verb agreement issues, such as the

absence of the third person {-s} in the present simple tense. Additionally, instances were observed where the auxiliary verb was omitted, and there were occurrences of irregular mixing of present, past, and future tenses in various contexts within the dataset.

In another study assessing the same spoken language factor, Asih and Asrianto (2020) aimed to measure grammatical errors in the speech of graduated students at Ahmad Dahlan University, revealing that such errors were highly common. grammatical errors were identified as a common occurrence in the speech of students, emphasising their significance as a fundamental aspect for English learners, especially in the context of speaking. Participants in their groups demonstrated development in their speaking skills during the post-test, as evidenced by a reduction in the rate of grammatical errors. In yet another study, Helmanda *et al.* (2018) revealed that students were able enhance their speaking proficiency and produce accurate structural sentences in English by employing correct grammar due to the interventions employed. Their study analysed grammatical errors in the speech of undergraduate students from various educational levels and found that 50% of the errors were omission errors (Kontogeorgou and Zafiri 2016).

Comparing the performance of participants in the experimental groups in their pre-test and post-test reveals obvious changes in the number of grammatical errors relative to word count. This finding indicates an improvement in the grammatical accuracy of the participants' spoken English towards the conclusion of the course. When computing the ratio of grammatical error count to word count for each group, it was observed that the ratio for the control group is low, but it is lower for the experimental groups, with the lowest ratio recorded for experimental group 1. Even though participants in experimental group 1 spoke more in their post-test than those in the other groups, their grammatical errors were fewer in comparison to the others.

According to the results of the current study, participants in all groups showed an increase in grammatical accuracy in their spoken English by the end of the course. Effective communication depends on developing communicative competence, which involves both a deep understanding of language and the ability to apply that knowledge in real-life interactions (Canale, 2014). Types of subject-verb agreement errors were recorded in the current study. Some participants consistently employed the base form of verbs in their speech, disregarding singular subject-verb agreement. For instance, S6: "my dad drive me to the university" and "he work as teacher". In these examples, the participants omitted the final {-s} third person singular morpheme from the main verb in the present simple tense. Other examples include using a plural verb with a singular subject or a singular verb with a plural subject, such as S24: "we are seven student in the class" (student vs. students), S8: "me and my sister is students in the same

school" (is vs. are), S17: "I know some students walks to university every day" (walks vs. walk). In formal language learning settings, it is essential for teachers to draw attention to such examples encountered in classroom instruction. These examples may adhere strictly to formal language conventions, which students need to grasp for academic and professional contexts. However, it is important to note that such examples might not be commonly found in informal settings like on social media. Therefore, teachers should prioritise highlighting these instances in their classrooms to ensure comprehensive language proficiency among students.

In reflecting on the low overall count of tense and subject-verb agreement (S-V) errors observed in this study, as well as the relatively small differences between pre- and post-test results, it is worth considering whether the findings might have been more pronounced if the analysis of grammatical errors had extended beyond the two selected categories. The decision to focus solely on tense and S-V agreement may have limited the scope of error identification, potentially overlooking other grammatical areas that could have revealed more significant changes. Furthermore, given the potentially confounding nature of cluster omissions versus true tense/agreement errors, it could be argued that excluding final cluster omissions (which carry phonological but not grammatical functions) from the count of grammatical errors would lead to a more accurate reflection of participants' grammatical competence. This distinction between phonological and grammatical errors should be considered when interpreting the results, and it represents a limitation of the current study. Future research should consider expanding the error categories and separating phonological issues from grammatical errors to gain a more comprehensive understanding of language development in the participants.

Overall, the results indicate that participants encountered difficulties in achieving grammatical accuracy in their spoken English. An analysis of their performance in both pre-tests and post-tests reveals that despite their extended exposure to English language studies since primary school, participants consistently presented grammatical errors in their spoken communication. Notably though, in the post-test, participants managed to reduce grammatical errors compared to their performance in the pre-test. This improvement underscores their understanding that a significant understanding of grammar is crucial for proficient language use. Studying the performance of participants during their post-test, it is evident that they performed well in reducing grammatical errors in their speech. Additionally, participants in the control group also performed well in their post-test, successfully reducing grammatical errors in their speech.

5.6 Vocabulary

5.6.1 Rationale for Individual Analysis of Verbs, Nouns, and Adjectives

The focus of this study on analysing verbs, nouns, and adjectives separately aims to deepen our understanding of how participants use vocabulary in their speech, specifically concerning enhancing speaking skills. Although verbs, nouns, and adjectives are fundamental components of sentence construction, examining each part of speech individually provides insight into different aspects of speaking proficiency. Analysing verbs helps me understand how participants convey actions and tenses in their speech, which is crucial for effective communication. Variations or improvements in verb usage can significantly affect the clarity and fluency of spoken language. Examining the variety and frequency of nouns used by participants can reveal their ability to reference and describe entities accurately. This aspect of vocabulary use provides insights into the participants' vocabulary range and precision in speech. Studying the use of adjectives reveals how participants enrich their speech with descriptive elements, enhancing expressiveness and detail in communication.

The analysis of lexical categories helps pinpoint specific areas of strength and improvement in participants' speaking skills. For instance, a greater use of diverse vocabulary may indicate an enhancement in speaking skills. Conversely, limitations in the variety of vocabulary used could highlight areas needing further development. The focus on verbs, nouns, and adjectives is grounded in the understanding that these parts of speech serve distinct roles in language. This approach aligns with recent research emphasising the importance of vocabulary development in effective communication. For example, the study by Mugadza et al. (2024) underscores the significance of vocabulary acquisition and application across various language domains, including speaking.

5.6.2 Vocabulary Measures: Analysis of Nouns, Verbs, and Adjectives

The pre-test and post-test performances of the groups in terms of frequency of nouns, verbs, and adjectives are depicted in Figures 5.5, 5.6, and 5.7, respectively. These figures show the mean usage per minute for each part of speech during the pre-test and post-test phases, with connecting lines highlighting changes over time for each group.

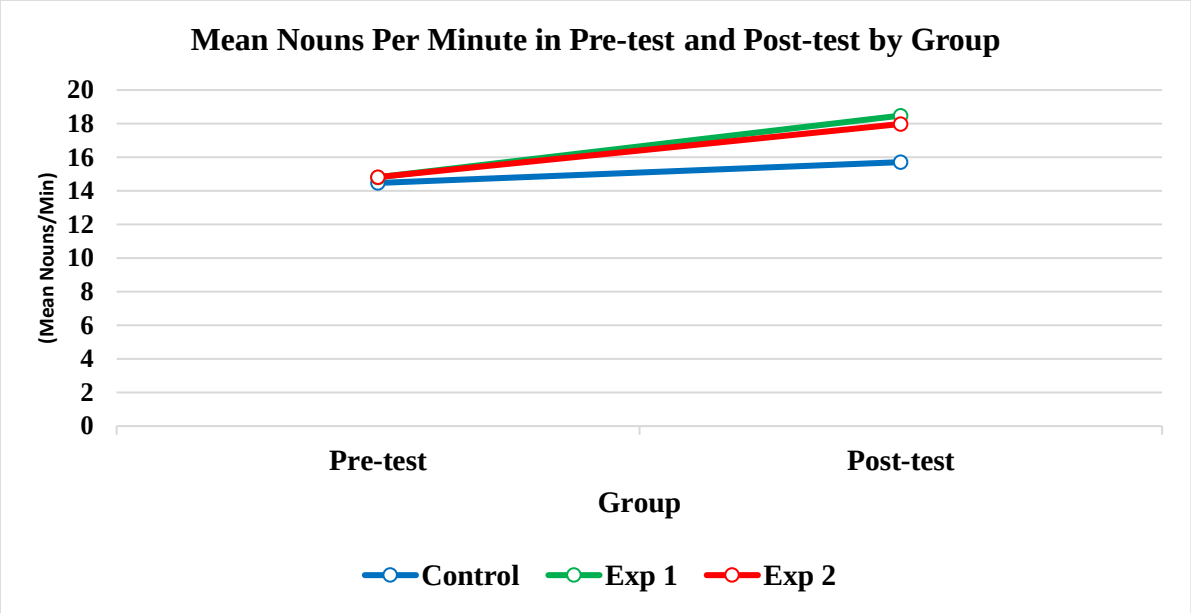

Figure 5.5 Mean Frequency of Nouns Per Minute in Pre-Test and Post-Test by Group

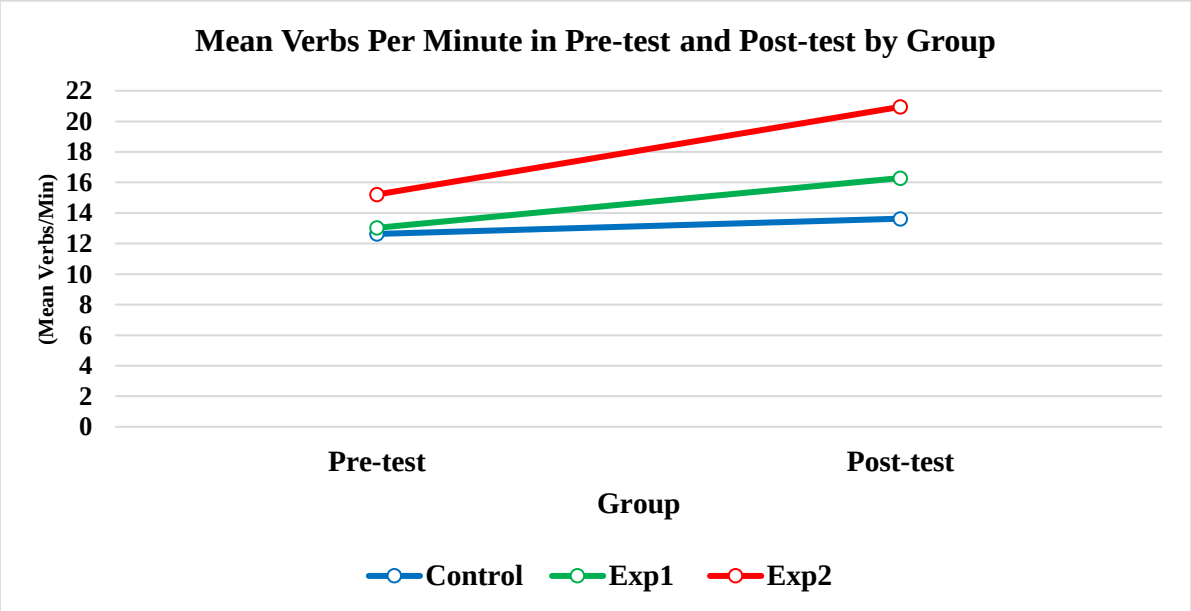

Figure 5.6 Mean Frequency of Verbs Per Minute in Pre-Test and Post-Test by Group

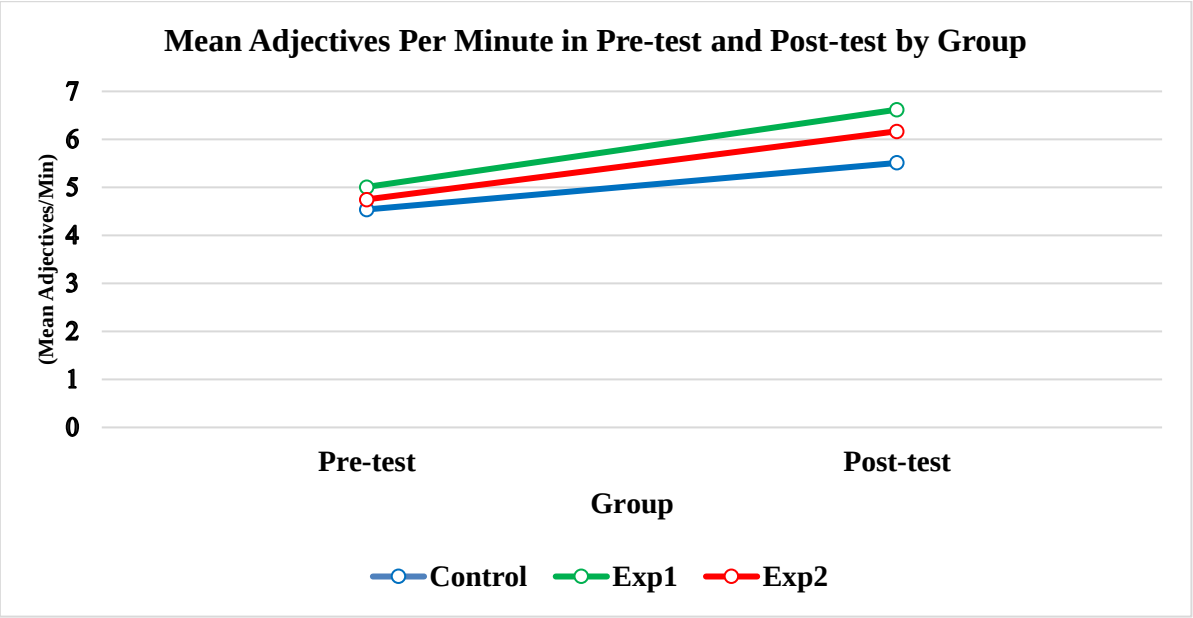

Figure 5.7 Mean Frequency of Adjectives Per Minute in Pre-Test and Post-Test by Group

To evaluate participants' vocabulary usage, the intervention's impact was assessed by examining three key parts of speech: nouns, verbs, and adjectives. The mean frequencies of these word types per minute were compared between the pre-test and post-test phases across three groups: control group, experimental group 1, and experimental group 2. Figures 5.5, 5.6, and 5.7 depict these comparisons for nouns, verbs, and adjectives, respectively, with each group represented by a distinct colour: control group (blue), experimental group 1 (green), and experimental group 2 (red). The y-axis in each figure displays the mean frequency of the respective part of speech per minute, and connecting lines highlight changes between pre-test and post-test phases within each group over time.

Nouns (Figure 5.5)

Initially, the mean noun usage rates were similar across all groups during the pre-test phase. Following the intervention, notable increases in noun usage were observed, particularly in the experimental groups. Control Group (blue): Participants showed a modest increase, with the mean nouns per minute rising from 14.47 in the pre-test to 15.71 in the post-test, reflecting a gain of 1.24 nouns per minute. Experimental Group 1 (green): This group demonstrated the largest improvement, with the mean increasing from 14.81 nouns per minute in the pre-test to 18.48 nouns per minute in the post-test, a difference of 3.67 nouns per minute. Experimental Group 2 (red): Participants exhibited a substantial gain, with the mean rising from 14.82 nouns per minute in the pre-test to 17.98 nouns per minute in the post-test, showing an improvement of 3.16 nouns per minute.

Verbs (Figure 5.6)

For verbs, similar trends were observed, with all groups showing improvements in their mean verb usage rates: Control Group (blue): Participants demonstrated a small increase, with the mean verbs per minute rising from 12.63 in the pre-test to 13.63 in the post-test, representing a gain of 1.00 verbs per minute. Experimental Group 1 (green): This group showed significant improvement, with the mean increasing from 13.03 verbs per minute in the pre-test to 16.29 verbs per minute in the post-test, a difference of 3.26 verbs per minute. Experimental Group 2 (red): Participants in this group experienced the largest increase, with the mean growing from 15.21 verbs per minute in the pre-test to 20.95 verbs per minute in the post-test, reflecting a substantial gain of 5.74 verbs per minute.

Adjectives (Figure 5.7)

The analysis of adjectives revealed positive changes in usage across all groups, with more pronounced improvements observed in the experimental groups. Control Group (blue): Participants showed a slight increase, with the mean adjectives per minute rising from 4.54 in the pre-test to 5.51 in the post-test, reflecting a gain of 0.97 adjectives per minute. Experimental Group 1 (green): This group demonstrated a notable improvement, with the mean increasing from 5.01 adjectives per minute in the pre-test to 6.62 adjectives per minute in the post-test, an increase of 1.61 adjectives per minute. Experimental Group 2 (red): Participants in this group achieved a comparable gain, with the mean rising from 4.75 adjectives per minute in the pre-test to 6.17 adjectives per minute in the post-test, reflecting an improvement of 1.42 adjectives per minute.

To sum up, across all three parts of speech, nouns, verbs, and adjectives the experimental groups exhibited more substantial improvements compared to the control group. These results indicate the intervention's effectiveness in enhancing participants' vocabulary usage, particularly in terms of their ability to incorporate a greater variety of nouns, verbs, and adjectives in their speech. The patterns observed align with the overall trend of increased lexical diversity and more sophisticated language use in the post-test phase for participants in experimental group 1 and experimental group 2.

5.6.3 ***Testing for Differences between Groups after Intervention***

A detailed analysis of the results derived from the two-way ANOVA for frequency of nouns**,** verbs**,** and adjectives is presented in the following sections. This analysis reveals any differences in participant performance during both the pre-test and post-test phases and is illustrated in the corresponding tables for each category.

Nouns						
Source	**Df**	**Sum Sq**	**Mean Sq**	**F value**	**Pr(>F)**	**Partial η²**
Pre-test/Post-test	1	162.89	162.89	159.11	< 0.001***	0.654
Groups	2	42.04	21.02	20.53	< 0.001***	0.328
Interaction	2	24.37	12.37	12.08	< 0.001***	0.223
Residuals	84	86.00	1.02			
Verbs						
Source	**Df**	**Sum Sq**	**Mean Sq**	**F value**	**Pr(>F)**	**Partial η²**
Pre-test/Post-test	1	5	4.64	0.030	0.863	0.0004
Groups	2	377	188.53	0.299	0.0283	0.0283
Interaction	2	332	166.16	0.345	0.0250	0.0250
Residuals	84	12933	153.96			
Adjectives						
Source	**Df**	**Sum Sq**	**Mean Sq**	**F value**	**Pr(>F)**	**Partial η²**
Pre-test/Post-test	1	39.99	39.99	77.476	< 0.001***	0.4786
Groups	2	9.50	4.75	9.199	< 0.001***	0.1816
Interaction	2	1.66	0.83	1.605	0.206	0.0364
Residuals	84	43.35	0.52			

Table 5.9

Two-Way ANOVA Test of Nouns, Verbs and Adjectives Per Minute

For nouns, the two-way ANOVA indicated significant differences across both the pre-test and post-test phases for all the factors: Pre-test/Post-test**,** Groups, and Interaction (Table 5.9). The Pre-test/Post-test factor revealed a large effect ($\eta^2 = 0.654$), indicating that the difference between the pre-test and post-test phases accounted for 65.4% of the variance in noun frequency. The Groups factor also had a moderate effect ($\eta^2 = 0.328$), suggesting that 32.8% of the variance in noun frequency was due to differences between the groups. The Interaction effect was smaller but still moderate ($\eta^2 = 0.223$), explaining 22.3% of the variance in noun

frequency. These findings suggest that the intervention had a significant impact on increasing noun frequency, with notable differences between groups and conditions.

For verbs, the results of the two-way ANOVA showed no significant differences across groups or conditions, with minimal effect sizes observed for all factors (Table 5.9). The Pre-test/Post-test factor had a negligible effect ($\eta^2 = 0.0004$), indicating that the difference between the pre-test and post-test phases did not meaningfully impact verb usage. Similarly, the Groups factor showed a very small effect ($\eta^2 = 0.0283$), suggesting that group differences accounted for only 2.83% of the variance in verb frequency. The Interaction effect was also minimal ($\eta^2 = 0.0250$), explaining just 2.5% of the variance. These results indicate that the intervention did not have a significant impact on verb frequency, and changes between the groups were minimal.

In the case of adjectives, significant differences were found for both the Pre-test/Post-test and Groups factors, with a smaller effect observed for the Interaction (Table 5.9). The Pre-test/Post-test factor showed a large effect ($\eta^2 = 0.4786$), explaining 47.86% of the variance in adjective frequency. This suggests that the difference between the pre-test and post-test phases had a substantial influence on adjective usage. The Groups factor also had a moderate effect ($\eta^2 = 0.1816$), indicating that 18.16% of the variance in adjective frequency was due to differences between the groups. However, the Interaction effect was not statistically significant ($p = 0.206$), with a small effect size ($\eta^2 = 0.0364$), suggesting limited influence of the interaction between groups and conditions.

5.6.4 Post-hoc Pairwise Comparisons

Following the significant findings from the two-way ANOVA, which identified substantial differences in the performance across groups after the intervention, further analysis was conducted to pinpoint specific group comparisons showing notable differences. Tukey's HSD test was used for these post-hoc comparisons, providing a deeper understanding of which specific group pairs exhibited significant changes in their post-test scores. The results of these analyses are summarized below for nouns**,** verbs**,** and adjectives**.**

Nouns				
Comparison	**Difference**	**Lower Bound**	**Upper Bound**	**Adjusted p**
Experimental group 1 - Control group	1.56	0.93	2.18	< 0.001***
Experimental group 2 - Control group	1.31	0.69	1.93	< 0.001***
Experimental group 2 - Experimental group 1	-0.25	-0.87	0.37	0.61
Verbs				
Comparison	**Difference**	**Lower Bound**	**Upper Bound**	**Adjusted p**
Experimental group 1 - Control group	1.462	-6.1820	9.106	0.8917
Experimental group 2 - Control group	4.884	-2.7597	12.52	0.2847
Experimental group 2 - Experimental group 1	3.422	-4.2217	11.06	0.5363
Adjectives				
Comparison	**Difference**	**Lower Bound**	**Upper Bound**	**Adjusted p**
Experimental group 1 - Control group	0.794	0.351	1.236	< 0.001***
Experimental group 2 - Control group	0.441	-0.001	0.883	0.0510
Experimental group 2 - Experimental group 1	-0.353	-0.795	0.089	0.1441

Table 5.10

Tukey's HSD Post-hoc Comparisons of Nouns, Verbs and Adjectives Per Minute

The Tukey's HSD test revealed the following significant pairwise comparisons for nouns per minute: Experimental group 1 vs. Control group: Experimental group 1 demonstrated a significantly higher noun frequency (mean difference = 1.56, adjusted $p < 0.001$) compared to the control group. Experimental group 2 vs. Control group: Experimental group 2 also showed a significantly higher noun frequency (mean difference = 1.31, adjusted $p < 0.001$) than the control group. Experimental group 2 vs. Experimental group 1: The difference between experimental group 2 and experimental group 1 was not statistically significant (mean difference = -0.25, adjusted $p = 0.61$), suggesting that both experimental groups had similar improvements in noun frequency.

Verbs

The post-hoc analysis for verbs per minute showed the following comparisons:

Experimental group 1 vs. Control group: No significant difference was found between experimental group 1 and the control group (mean difference = 1.462, adjusted $p = 0.8917$),

indicating that the intervention in experimental group 1 did not result in a substantial change compared to the control group. Experimental group 2 vs. Control group: Experimental group 2 showed a moderate difference in verb frequency (mean difference = 4.884), but this difference was not statistically significant (adjusted p = 0.2847), indicating that the intervention in experimental group 2 did not significantly reduce hesitations compared to the control group. Experimental group 2 vs. Experimental group 1: No significant difference was found between experimental group 2 and experimental group 1 (mean difference = 3.422, adjusted p = 0.5363), suggesting that the improvements in verb frequency were similar for both experimental groups.

Adjectives

For adjectives per minute, the Tukey's HSD test revealed the following:

Experimental group 1 vs. Control group: Experimental group 1 exhibited a significantly higher use of adjectives (mean difference = 0.794, adjusted $p < 0.001$) compared to the control group, indicating the effectiveness of the intervention in increasing adjective use. Experimental group 2 vs. Control group: Experimental group 2 showed a modest increase in adjective usage compared to the control group (mean difference = 0.441), though the difference was marginally significant (adjusted p = 0.0510), suggesting a trend but not a definitive effect. Experimental group 2 vs. Experimental group 1: No significant difference was observed between experimental group 2 and experimental group 1 (mean difference = -0.353, adjusted p = 0.1441), indicating that both experimental groups showed similar levels of improvement in adjective usage.

This detailed post-hoc analysis highlights that while both experimental groups showed improvements in nouns and adjectives compared to the control group, the interventions had a lesser or no significant effect on verbs across the groups. The findings indicate that the intervention had a stronger impact on some linguistic features (such as nouns and adjectives) but not on others (such as verbs).

5.6.5 Utilising Established Vocabulary Guidelines: Rationale and Justification

The decision to reference the vocabulary list from Phillips' (2002) book is justified by the practical framework it provides for vocabulary instruction, which aligns with general principles of structured learning. Phillips' approach emphasises systematic vocabulary introduction and reinforcement, practices grounded in established language teaching methodologies that underscore the importance of consistent and organised vocabulary exposure throughout a

course. In this study, the vocabulary list from Phillips' (2002) book was used to systematically assess participants' use of targeted vocabulary items in their speeches. This list was originally designed to categorize words that students were expected to master by the end of their course, typically within an academic year. However, in the context of this six-week study, the list served as a scale to evaluate the participants' acquisition and usage of these newly introduced vocabulary items. In this study, the term "familiarity" refers to whether the vocabulary items were newly introduced to the participants during the course. Words from Phillips' list that appeared in the participants' speeches were categorised as 'less familiar' based on the assumption that these were new terms the students were expected to learn during the course. This categorisation was based on the educational context provided by the curriculum, which introduced these words as part of the course objectives.

By using this list, the study aimed to assess how well participants had internalised and utilised these specific vocabulary items in their spoken language. Although frequency-based categorisation can be a valuable approach, due to the structured nature of the course and the limited timeframe of this study, the curriculum-based categorisation of 'familiarity' was chosen as a practical measure to evaluate the participants' speaking skills. To ensure transparency and allow for a thorough evaluation, the complete list of these targeted vocabulary items is provided in [Appendix O].

The use of established vocabulary guidelines promotes consistency and comparability in language proficiency assessment (Alderson, 2005). By adhering to the categorisation criteria outlined in Phillips' (2002) book, there is also clear point of reference for evaluating learners' familiarity with vocabulary items. This approach facilitates meaningful comparisons across learners and instructional contexts, enabling educators to track vocabulary acquisition progress over time and make informed instructional decisions. Categorical division based on familiarity enables a more straightforward interpretation of results, particularly in the context of language proficiency assessment. According to Barcroft (2015) categorical division also facilitates the identification of specific vocabulary items that learners are expected to acquire within a given instructional period, allowing for targeted assessment and instructional interventions.

5.6.6 Assessing Lexical Expansion through the Use of Less Familiar Words

In this study, lexical expansion is the final of the measures used to assess the effect of CLT activities on participants' speaking proficiency. This was done by identifying and analysing the use of less familiar words in their speech. This approach provides critical insights into the participants' ability to incorporate more complex vocabulary into their language use during speaking activities. By focusing on less familiar words, it is possible to attain a measure

of whether participants were moving beyond their existing lexical knowledge and incorporating new or relatively new words into their speech. The use of less familiar words is often correlated with higher language proficiency, indicating a broader and more comprehensive vocabulary. According to Schmitt (2010), vocabulary acquisition is a critical component of language proficiency, and the ability to use a wide range of vocabulary effectively is a marker of advanced language skills. In addition, research by Laufer and Nation (1995) supports the notion that an increase in lexical richness is a strong indicator of language proficiency.

Less familiar words were identified in the participants' speech based on a predefined vocabulary list from Phillips' (2002) book. This list categorises words that learners are expected to be familiar with by the end of an academic year. This methodology aligns with findings from prior studies that emphasise the importance of vocabulary diversity in language proficiency (Nation, 2013). The structured framework from Phillips (2002) ensured that the analysis contained here is grounded in a well-established educational context, supporting the validity of results. Less familiar words, specifically listed in Phillips' (2002) book and found in the [Appendix O], are less frequently encountered in everyday usage, necessitating deliberate study and practice. The identification of less familiar words is crucial for assessing vocabulary acquisition, as their inclusion in post-test speeches signifies successful vocabulary growth and an expansion of the participants' lexical repertoire.

By focusing on less familiar words, the study enables a targeted assessment of vocabulary growth. The integration of less familiar words in post-tests demonstrates participants' ability to assimilate new vocabulary, signalling enhanced language proficiency. This focus also facilitates a nuanced analysis of lexical development, offering insights into participants' progress in acquiring and employing new, complex vocabulary. Moreover, aligning the study with Phillips' (2002) educational vocabulary standards ensures a structured approach to vocabulary assessment. In practice, referring to Phillips' (2002) list for less familiar words facilitated a systematic classification of vocabulary items, enhancing the accuracy of lexical acquisition assessment. The significance of focusing on less familiar vocabulary is underscored by research in language acquisition. Studies emphasise that the incorporation of less familiar words into speech is indicative of language proficiency (Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 2010). This approach not only aligns with established methodologies but also bolsters the credibility of my findings by aligning them with proven educational practices.

Although less familiar words have their own meaning, many second language learners still prefer words which are easier to pronounce and recognise (Williams and Morris, 2004). Many would possibly agree that words such as “museum, leave, nice” are more familiar than

words such as “value, depart, enormous” based on factors such as frequency of usage in everyday language, exposure in educational settings, and cultural relevance. Additionally, the words “museum, leave, nice” are commonly encountered in various contexts, whereas “value, depart, enormous” may be less frequently encountered or have more specialised usage. Hence, in determining word familiarity, consideration was given to the likelihood of participants encountering and recognising these words in their everyday language usage and educational materials. Thus, as Tanaka-Ishii and Terada, (2011, p.96) stated that “the approximation will be better if collected from spoken language and daily content. Since most current corpora are collections of written text, our work also suggests that the construction of corpora consisting of typical spoken text (e.g., not university lectures) will be useful”. Therefore, vocabulary that involved greetings and words in daily use are more likely to be familiar for second language learners, whereas words which are unknown or infrequently used are likely to be less familiar.

5.6.7 Illustration of Vocabulary across Parts of Speech

This section presents an analysis of the less familiar nouns, verbs, and adjectives used by participants in their pre-test and post-test speeches. The analysis specifically focuses on instances where participants incorporated less familiar vocabulary items, providing a comprehensive examination of how these items were used before and after the intervention. Table 5.11 below highlights the use of less familiar vocabulary items across different parts of speech, demonstrating changes in participants' vocabulary usage as a result of the intervention. For example:

Parts of speech	Word	Pre-Test (Participants)	Post-Test (Participants)
Noun	Value	None	S17
Noun	Target	None	S29
Noun	Network	None	S33
Noun	Regret	None	S41
Verb	Approve	None	S19
Verb	Distribute	None	S25
Verb	Reserve	None	S30
Verb	Influence	None	S37
Adjective	Conflicting	None	S8
Adjective	Ancient	None	S20
Adjective	Keen	None	S25
Adjective	Enormous	None	S40

Table 5.11
Sample of Less Familiar Nouns, Verbs and Adjectives Used in the Speech of Participants

5.6.8 Interpretation and Analysis of Results (Vocabulary)

The analysis of nouns, verbs, and adjectives reveals a clear focus on less familiar vocabulary items used by participants in their speeches.

Nouns

The presence of less familiar nouns in the post-test speeches indicates an expansion of participants' lexical inventory following the instructional intervention. This suggests an enhanced linguistic competence and a greater engagement with diverse vocabulary. Notably, participants in Experimental Group 1 exhibited a higher frequency of less familiar noun usage in their post-test speeches, implying a stronger response to the instructional activities.

Verbs

The usage of less familiar verbs increased in the post-test speeches, particularly among participants in Experimental Group 1. This group demonstrated a greater integration of less familiar verbs into their speech compared to other groups, indicating significant improvement in their verb repertoire. The overall rise in the use of less familiar verbs across all groups highlights the dynamic nature of vocabulary acquisition and the effectiveness of the instructional intervention.

Adjectives

Participants used a wider range of adjectives, with a noticeable increase in less familiar adjectives in the post-test speeches of the experimental groups. Experimental Group 1 showed a particularly strong inclination toward integrating less familiar adjectives, reflecting enhanced lexical diversity and adaptability in their speech. This trend underscores the role of targeted instructional interventions in improving participants' linguistic proficiency.

By focusing on less familiar words, this study provides a targeted assessment of vocabulary growth. The increased use of less familiar words in post-test speeches indicates improved language proficiency and a deeper engagement with complex vocabulary. Aligning with Phillips' (2002) vocabulary list, the study ensured a structured and systematic approach to vocabulary assessment, enhancing the credibility of the findings.

Overall, the results demonstrate significant lexical development among participants, with experimental groups showing marked improvement in their use of less familiar vocabulary items. This analysis confirms the efficacy of the instructional intervention in fostering vocabulary acquisition and enhancing linguistic competence.

5.6.9 Clarifying the Link Between Vocabulary Acquisition and Speaking Skills

The relationship between vocabulary acquisition and overall language proficiency is a well-established premise in the field of language research. The findings of the current study emphasise the importance of prioritising learners' speaking skills, particularly within the context of Libyan EFL education, in line with the assertions made by Alharthi (2020). By implementing group discussions and role-play activities, teachers can effectively enhance learners' self-confidence in speaking and improve their oral communication skills. These activities offer valuable opportunities for learners to engage in authentic spoken interactions, thereby reinforcing their ability to express themselves verbally and effectively communicate in English. Consequently, this research underscores the significance of integrating such pedagogical approaches to foster speaking proficiency among EFL learners in Libya.

In line with the data analysis and reflected by the study by Khan *et al.* (2018), both learners and teachers feel that a lack of vocabulary is one of the main reasons why learners struggle to speak English. Khan *et al.* (2018, p. 406) also recommended that "the inclusion of mobile assisted language learning could be useful way of developing vocabulary for spoken proficiency of Saudi EFL learners". Similarly, Cook (2016) found that real communication is more likely to be a consequence of learning a suitable vocabulary than only learning the rules of grammar. In the same manner, Schmitt and Carter (2000) declared that one of the most important tasks of acquiring a foreign language is vocabulary learning. Thus, EFL learners should have the opportunity to gain a greater knowledge of vocabulary. In addition, Bailey (2006) recognised that learning vocabulary has an essential role in enhancing speaking skills, so it is vital for learners to consider and remain aware of this component.

Nation and Nation (2001) also that L2 learners often experience obstacles in expressing their intended meanings as they lack familiarity with the vocabulary or are not capable of fully using their knowledge of vocabulary in verbal communication. For this reason, in the present study, every participant was asked to talk about their personal experiences and plans. This approach helped them express familiar information in a natural context, simulating real-life speech scenarios. The focus on speaking tasks and less familiar vocabulary was aimed at providing sufficient and meaningful data to assess the participants' oral proficiency effectively.

The results of this study show that all participants expanded their use of less familiar vocabulary by the post-test. Notably, experimental group 1 demonstrated the greatest increase in using these less familiar words, which were identified based on the predefined vocabulary list from their curriculum. This finding suggests that the instructional intervention was particularly effective for this group. In contrast, participants in the control group showed

minimal use of the less familiar vocabulary from the list, indicating less growth in this area. The analysis confirms that targeted instruction can significantly enhance the acquisition and usage of new vocabulary items.

5.7 Summary

This chapter offers a comprehensive examination of the impact of CLT activities on the speaking skills of second language learners as compared to a control group taught using the GTM. It discusses findings related to word frequency, hesitations, consonant clusters, grammatical errors, and vocabulary size, highlighting their significant influence on speaking proficiency. The study underscores that factors such as the quantity of words produced and the presence of hesitations in speech can affect fluency. Moreover, the insertion of vowels to break consonant clusters, as observed in the study, plays a role in speech fluency. Furthermore, it emphasises that learners who prioritise communication tend to focus more on expressing viewpoints along with strictly adhering to grammatical rules. This observation reflects the dynamic nature of language acquisition where effective communication takes precedence. The chapter concludes by discussing the impact of these activities on vocabulary acquisition, noting substantial improvements in participants engaged in role-play activities compared to other groups. These findings underscore the importance of integrating vocabulary learning into language acquisition efforts to enhance speaking proficiency and facilitate effective communication in the target language. Having presented the findings in detail, the penultimate chapter comprises an in-depth and general discussion with reference to literature.

Chapter 6: General Discussion

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented the findings of the current study, which investigates the impact of CLT activities on the English-speaking skills of Libyan university students. Having done so, this present chapter discusses the results in relation to the linguistic factors analysed in this study. As previously noted, language proficiency and in particular, speaking proficiency is influenced by a number of variables, such as vocabulary size, rate of speech, hesitations, grammatical errors, and, particularly for Arabic speakers learning English as an L2, the handling of consonant clusters. Understanding how these elements interact and collectively contribute to language acquisition is essential to developing effective teaching methodologies. This chapter integrates the findings of the data analysis, combining empirical data with theoretical perspectives to offer valuable insights into the dynamics of language proficiency development and the effectiveness of CLT approaches in language education.

6.2 The Goals of Integration

By combining the findings for each individual factor, it is possible to illustrate the effect of CLT activities on speaking proficiency. However, it is important to recognise that this aggregation may overlook important differences across the variables, and these distinctions should be considered in the interpretation of the results. This approach highlights how vocabulary size, rate of speech, hesitations, consonant clusters, and grammatical errors interact and influence speaking proficiency. For instance, the findings demonstrated that a high frequency of hesitations significantly affected the rate of speech for participants in their pre-test. Conversely, in the post-test, participants who managed to reduce their rate of hesitations also exhibited an increased rate of words per minute in their speech. This indicates that reducing hesitation not only enhances fluency but also contributes to a more fluid and cohesive delivery. From a language acquisition perspective, this is important because increased fluency and smoother delivery are often associated with greater language proficiency. They allow speakers to convey their thoughts more clearly and confidently, thereby improving overall communication effectiveness. Such interdependencies are crucial for a detailed understanding of language proficiency and the dynamic interactions between various linguistic factors.

The literature supports the significance of these interactions. For instance, Nation and Nation (2001) emphasises that vocabulary size is a critical predictor of language proficiency, as it influences both comprehension and production skills. A larger vocabulary allows for more precise and varied expression, reducing the need for hesitation and thereby increasing the rate of speech. Furthermore, Thornbury (2005) suggests that the rate of speech is a key component of fluency, and frequent hesitations can disrupt the flow of communication, making speech appear less fluid and confident. Research by Segalowitz (2010) underscores the relationship between fluency and hesitation. He posits that fluent speakers exhibit fewer and shorter hesitations, which correlates with a higher rate of speech and better overall communicative efficiency. This aligns with the findings from the post-test, in which participants who reduced hesitations exhibited improved speech rates. Since hesitations typically involve pauses or filler sounds, reducing them naturally increases the number of words spoken within the same duration, thereby boosting the WPM rate. In other words, when hesitations are minimised, they are often replaced by actual words, leading to a more continuous flow of speech. When these insights from the literature are integrated with the empirical findings, they support the foundational premise that language proficiency is a multi-faceted construct, influenced by various interconnected factors.

6.3 Overall Insights

This study has investigated the extent to which specific CLT activities enhance the speaking skills of university students compared to traditional teaching methods. To address this research question, the study utilised a primary research approach, which involved the direct collection of original data from participants. This approach included conducting pre-tests and post-tests to assess speaking proficiency, as well as analysing vocabulary use through these assessments. The primary data collected involved the collection and analysis of data from 45 learners over a six-week period. This data was used to investigate the effects of CLT activities on speaking proficiency, providing direct insights into the impact of these activities on learners' speaking skills. This research investigates effective methods for enhancing speaking proficiency within the Libyan educational framework. CLT activities were designed to encourage interaction and communication among students, focusing on practical usage of language rather than theoretical knowledge. This approach contrasts with traditional methods that often prioritise grammatical accuracy and rote memorisation. The current study created a learning environment where students could practice speaking in realistic contexts, thereby improving their speaking skills.

The current study has made a notable contribution to the field of language education by focusing on enhancing speaking skills using role-play and problem-solving activities, which are core components of the CLT approach. The main contributions of the study are:

Practical (Educational) Outcomes: The use of role-play and problem-solving activities has directly improved students' speaking skills by providing opportunities for practice in realistic contexts. These activities create dynamic and interactive learning experiences, which lead to better language proficiency and increased confidence in speaking. This underscores the importance for educators to incorporate CLT-based activities into their teaching practices to achieve similar improvements in students' speaking skills.

Methodological Outcomes: The study refines established experimental methodologies by tailoring role-play and problem-solving activities to the Libyan educational context. These adaptations demonstrate the practical value of integrating CLT activities in a system where communicative approaches are not traditionally prioritized. While the methodologies employed in the study pre- and post-tests, role-play, and problem-solving are grounded in well-documented practices, the study contributes to the field by demonstrating how these methods can be customized to enhance speaking skills effectively in a region-specific context. This tailored application provides a replicable framework for similar educational environments that seek to bridge the gap between traditional and communicative teaching methods. Furthermore, the study highlights the value of combining interactive tasks with quantitative assessments to comprehensively evaluate speaking proficiency improvements. This nuanced approach serves as a guide for future research and pedagogical innovations.

Methodological Implications: This study's methodological approach is grounded in well-established practices, including the use of pre- and post-tests and CLT activities such as role-play and problem-solving. However, its contribution lies in the tailored application of these methods to the Libyan educational context, which is underrepresented in the literature. By customizing these activities for learners with limited exposure to communicative teaching methods. In addition to contextual adaptation, the study integrates multiple performance measures, such as fluency, grammatical accuracy, and lexical diversity, within a single experimental design. This comprehensive approach provides a nuanced understanding of the intervention's impact on speaking proficiency. Moreover, the analysis of interaction effects between intervention phases and group types extends the methodological scope, offering valuable insights for educators and researchers on the dynamics of CLT implementation.

While the study focused on the objective measurement of speaking proficiency through pre- and post-tests, the inclusion of additional data collection methods, such as questionnaires

or interviews, was considered but ultimately not employed. This decision was grounded in the study's primary goal of quantifying measurable improvements in speaking skills, such as fluency, grammatical accuracy, and lexical diversity. The claims of “increased confidence in speaking” and “objective analysis” are supported by observed improvements in speech rate and reduced errors in complex linguistic structures, as reflected in the experimental data. However, future research could complement these findings by incorporating qualitative methods to capture learners’ perceptions and experiences, thereby providing a more holistic understanding of the intervention’s impact. While the study does not claim to introduce novel methodologies, its emphasis on refinement and practical application serves as a replicable model for future research and pedagogical development in similar educational environments.

The findings of this study offer support for the theoretical foundations of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach. Specifically, the use of role-play and problem-solving activities led to measurable improvements in learners' speaking skills, including fluency, vocabulary range, and grammatical accuracy, as evidenced in the results presented in Chapter 5 (see relevant figures and tables). These results provide empirical evidence that interactive, real-world tasks emphasized in CLT can effectively enhance learners' language use, particularly when tailored to the context of the Libyan educational framework. In line with previous studies (e.g., Larsen-Freeman, 2000), this study reinforces the importance of engaging learners in contextually relevant communication, which enables them to not only practice language but also manage interactive and dynamic communicative situations. The observed improvements, especially in vocabulary range, are consistent with findings from similar studies that demonstrate the positive impact of task-based approaches on lexical acquisition (e.g., Schmitt, 2010). Therefore, this study contributes to the growing body of evidence supporting CLT’s efficacy in developing communicative competence in diverse educational settings.

In summary, the study underscores that role-play, and problem-solving activities are effective tools for enhancing speaking skills within the CLT framework. These activities offer significant practical benefits for educational settings, propose innovative methodological approaches, and provide valuable theoretical insights into the process of language acquisition.

This study utilised an experimental study approach through pre- and post-tests to evaluate changes in students' speaking skills. These tests were designed to measure and compare the students' speaking proficiency before and after the intervention. By analysing the numerical scores obtained from these tests, the study assessed the effectiveness of the role-play and problem-solving activities in enhancing students' speaking skills. The pre-tests established a

baseline for each student's initial proficiency, while the post-tests provided noticeable data on improvements resulting from the intervention. This experimental approach allowed for objective analysis of the intervention's impact on speaking skills, offering clear, data-driven insights into the effectiveness of the teaching methods employed. One of the findings from the study is that participants in the experimental groups significantly enhanced their speaking skills, particularly their fluency, by increasing their speech rate. This improvement was most notable in the role-play group, where the students demonstrated the greatest gains in their speaking proficiency. The interactive nature of the CLT activities contributed to a more engaging and supportive learning environment, which encouraged students to practice speaking more frequently and at a faster rate. As a result, the increased speech rate reflects an enhancement in fluency, indicating that the CLT activities effectively supported the development of smoother and more fluent speech patterns. Moreover, the study highlighted several specific improvements among the experimental participants.

Participants in the experimental groups also exhibited a noticeable decrease in subject-verb agreement errors.in their speech compared to the control group. A significant finding from the study is that participants in the experimental groups reduced their use of vowel insertions within complex consonant clusters. Prior to the intervention, students frequently inserted vowels to simplify the pronunciation of consonant clusters. After the intervention, there was a marked increase in the production of complex consonant clusters during the post-test performances. While this improvement primarily reflects gains in fluency, as students were able to produce speech more fluidly and naturally, it also suggests improvements in phonological accuracy. The reduction in vowel insertions can be interpreted as a sign of increased accuracy in pronunciation, as the students demonstrated a better ability to produce complex clusters without resorting to vowel insertions. This indicates not only smoother speech flow but also greater adherence to standard phonological norms. Therefore, the observed improvement in consonant cluster production serves as evidence that the intervention contributed to both fluency and accuracy, highlighting its impact on refining pronunciation alongside overall speech fluidity. Additionally, the experimental groups managed to present a wider range of less familiar words in their speech. This expansion of vocabulary indicates that CLT activities effectively encouraged students to explore and use new words, thereby enriching their lexical resources and enhancing their ability to communicate more precisely and expressively.

The control group, which continued with GTM, showed only modest improvements. This group's experience underscored the limitations of conventional language teaching approaches that do not emphasise interactive and communicative practices. The modest gains in the control

group highlight the necessity for adopting more dynamic and student-centred teaching methodologies to achieve significant improvements in language proficiency. Additionally, the study's six-week duration allowed for sufficient time to observe meaningful changes in the participants' speaking skills. This timeframe was critical in providing a balanced view of the short-term impacts of CLT activities.

6.4 Evidence and Theoretical Support

The findings of this study are consistent with established literature on CLT approach and its impact on speaking skills. According to Richards (2005), CLT approaches prioritise real-life communication and student interaction, focusing on the functional and communicative potential of language. my study supports Richards' assertion by demonstrating that the experimental groups engaged in CLT activities showed significant improvements in their speaking skills. This alignment with Richards' theory underscores the effectiveness of CLT in enhancing students' speaking abilities. Additionally, Brown and Lee (2015) highlight those interactive tasks in CLT, such as role-play and problem-solving activities, are crucial for promoting meaningful language use and practical competence. The results of my study corroborate this view, revealing that these types of activities were particularly beneficial in improving participants' speaking fluency. This supports the theoretical perspective that CLT's interactive nature contributes significantly to language development.

Incorporating recent research, Fatmawati (2024) provides quantitative evidence on the effectiveness of CLT. Her study, which involved a comparative analysis of students taught with CLT and those taught with GTM, found that the CLT approach significantly enhanced students' speaking abilities. Specifically, the experimental group using pair and group work achieved higher post-test scores ($M = 83.33$) compared to the control group ($M = 56.50$), with a significant statistical difference ($p = 0.000 < 0.005$). This empirical evidence reinforces the positive impact of CLT, aligning with our study's findings and supporting the practical benefits of CLT-based activities.

However, it is essential to address the criticisms of CLT highlighted in recent reviews. Qasserras (2023) offers a balanced perspective by identifying both the strengths and limitations of CLT. Though CLT is lauded for improving communication skills, language ability, and fostering learner independence, it faces criticism for its limited focus on direct grammar and vocabulary teaching, insufficient emphasis on formal writing preparation, and failure to address the unique needs of individual learners. Furthermore, the review notes that CLT may focus more on fluency than on linguistic accuracy. However, the findings of this study offer

counterpoints to these critiques, as participants in the experimental groups demonstrated improvements in grammatical accuracy, particularly through the reduction of subject-verb agreement errors and vowel insertions in consonant clusters. This indicates that the interactive and contextually relevant nature of CLT activities can support not only fluency but also accuracy, thereby mitigating some of the commonly noted limitations of the approach. These critiques and findings suggest that while CLT is effective in fostering fluency and confidence, it can be complemented with additional instructional strategies to further enhance grammatical accuracy and formal writing skills.

Considering these perspectives, this study supports the effectiveness of CLT activities, particularly role-plays and problem-solving tasks, in improving speaking skills. The integration of findings from both Fatmawati (2024) and Qasserras (2023) validates the positive outcomes of CLT while acknowledging its limitations. This balanced view suggests that a comprehensive approach to language teaching should include CLT activities along with strategies to enhance grammatical accuracy and formal writing skills. Future research should explore how to effectively blend these elements to achieve a more holistic approach to language development, addressing both fluency and accuracy. In this study, the role-play group outperformed the problem-solving group in terms of speaking proficiency, and several factors may explain this difference in performance. One reason could be the dynamic and interactive nature of role-play activities. These activities provided students with a more immersive, context-rich environment to practice speaking skills, allowing them to engage in realistic conversations while adopting various social roles. In contrast, problem-solving tasks, while engaging, may not have offered the same depth of verbal interaction or real-time communication practice as role-play.

This aligns with Larsen-Freeman (2000), who highlights that role-plays are a fundamental technique in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), enabling students to practice communication in diverse social contexts, thereby fostering fluency and accuracy. Research further supports this claim, emphasizing the pedagogical benefits of role-play in L2 learning. A growing body of empirical studies has demonstrated the effectiveness of role-play activities in enhancing speaking proficiency. Dwiyanti and Lolita (2023) conducted a quasi-experimental study with 68 junior high school students in Indonesia, finding that those who participated in role-play activities achieved higher speaking proficiency scores than those receiving traditional instruction. Similarly, Katemba and Grace (2023) implemented role-play techniques with eleventh-grade students in Bandung Barat, Indonesia, and observed significant post-intervention improvements in speaking skills. Moreover, Islam and Islam (2012) examined the impact of role-play in large classroom settings at the tertiary level, demonstrating that group-

based role-play activities foster greater confidence and communicative competence. Taken together, these findings reinforce the results of this study, suggesting that role-play enhances both fluency and grammatical accuracy by promoting spontaneous, real-time language use in socially meaningful contexts. Compared to problem-solving tasks, which require cognitive effort for reasoning and negotiation, role-play offers a more immersive, interactive, and contextualized approach to language learning. Given these advantages, role-play serves as a valuable instructional strategy within CLT frameworks, effectively preparing learners for authentic communication

By employing both control and experimental groups, and using pre- and post-tests, the research provides a clear comparison of different teaching approaches. The six-week duration allowed for a sufficient period to observe changes, and the study involved 45 participants. However, future research could benefit from a longer study period and a larger sample size to further validate these findings. In conclusion, this study demonstrates the efficacy of CLT activities in enhancing university students' speaking skills compared to traditional teaching methods. The results underscore the significance of interactive and communicative approaches in improving speaking skills, offering valuable insights for educators seeking to develop more effective language teaching strategies.

6.5 Interpretation of Findings

The findings from this study indicate that specific CLT activities have a positive impact on improving the speaking skills of university students. These results suggest that CLT, with its emphasis on interaction and communication, provides a more effective framework for developing oral proficiency in second language learners. Specifically, the study revealed that students in the experimental groups were able to present more words in their speech after participating in CLT activities. Additionally, the frequency of hesitations in their speech decreased, particularly following role-play and problem-solving activities. This finding aligns with Molina and Briesmaster (2017), who conducted a study in the Chilean teaching context and found that implementing CLT activities led to a noticeable enhancement in students' speech fluency. The increase in WPM observed among Chilean university students underscores the positive impact of communicative teaching approaches on oral proficiency. Kusumawardani and Mardiyani (2018) further support this by highlighting that hesitation is a criterion for determining speaking fluency. Hesitations, which often occur at the beginning of speech, were observed in this study to decrease after the application of CLT activities, though they were not eliminated. In this regard, Schmid and Fägersten (2010) note that hesitations are a natural part

of spontaneous speech and language acquisition, suggesting that while they indicate areas for improvement, they also reflect normal linguistic phenomena.

However, it is important to acknowledge that some scholars argue that frequent hesitations may hinder communication and be indicative of a lack of fluency. For instance, De Jong (2018) critiques the traditional language assessment models that often view disfluencies solely as deficits, which might undermine a speaker's perceived fluency. He suggests that fluency should be understood as the ability to communicate effectively, not just as the absence of hesitations or disfluencies. This perspective highlights the need for a balanced understanding of fluency, where hesitations are recognised as part of natural language use but must be managed to enhance overall communicative effectiveness. The findings of this study contribute to this ongoing debate by demonstrating that while hesitations were present, participants in the CLT-based interventions showed a marked improvement in their speaking fluency, suggesting that interactive and communicative approaches may help reduce unnecessary hesitations while supporting overall language competence.

Furthermore, the findings of this study reveal that after applying CLT activities, second language learners reduced the frequency of grammatical errors in their speech. This reduction in errors enhances the clarity and accuracy of communication, which is crucial for effective interaction. The improvement in grammatical accuracy aligns with the goals of CLT, which emphasises the use of language in real-life contexts, encouraging learners to focus on meaning rather than form alone. More specifically, the findings of the experimental groups in their post-test indicate a decrease in the insertion of vowels to break consonant clusters in learners' speech, which is a common issue for second language learners whose native languages do not have similar phonotactic constraints (Bouchhioua, 2019). This phonological difficulty requires focused practice and attention to pronunciation, which CLT activities provide through interactive and communicative exercises. A reduction in grammatical errors observed in the participants' post-test speech is a positive development that significantly contributed to the enhancement of their speaking skills. By minimising these errors, participants were able to produce more accurate speech, thereby facilitating better comprehension and interaction in communicative contexts.

Another meaningful finding of this study is the improvement in the use of vocabulary by participants in the experimental groups. After engaging in CLT activities, these participants were able to incorporate more less familiar words into their speech than those in the control group. This enhancement in vocabulary usage is crucial as it helps learners express themselves more precisely and effectively. According to Nation and Nation (2001), vocabulary acquisition

plays a crucial role in predicting proficiency and language usage. Therefore, fostering vocabulary knowledge is essential for enhancing verbal communication skills. However, learners of a second language often encounter challenges in expressing their intended meanings due to vocabulary limitations or difficulty fully utilising their vocabulary knowledge in verbal communication situations (Nation, 2001). These obstacles may stem from factors such as learners' proficiency level, their native language influence, or specific language needs, such as requesting directions (Milton, 2013).

The results of this study are consistent with findings from other research conducted in similar contexts. Bahumaid (2012) found that the adoption of communicative curricula in Gulf countries since the 1980s has led to significant improvements in English language proficiency. Similarly, the current study adds to this body of evidence by providing empirical data that demonstrates the effectiveness of CLT activities in enhancing speaking skills specifically among university students.

6.6 Summary

This analysis evaluates the impact of CLT activities, specifically role-play and problem-solving, on various measures of speaking proficiency, including vocabulary size, rate of speech, hesitations, consonant clusters, and grammatical errors. It underscores the importance of considering these factors collectively when assessing speaking skills. The study demonstrates that CLT activities significantly enhance speaking abilities, leading to improvements in fluency, grammatical accuracy, and vocabulary usage among participants.in fluency, grammatical accuracy, pronunciation, and vocabulary usage among participants.

Drawing on theoretical frameworks and empirical evidence, the research highlights the effectiveness of CLT methodologies in promoting speaking skills and communicative competence. Overall, the findings underscore the importance of continued research to optimise language teaching practices and enhance speaking proficiency in diverse educational settings.

Chapter 7: Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

Comprising four main sections, this chapter offers a comprehensive reflection on the study's outcomes and implications. The initial section presents a detailed summary of the key findings, highlighting their significance and relevance to the research questions. The second section underscores the significance of the study's contributions to the domain of second language teaching and learning, contextualising its broader implications within the scholarly discourse. The third section provides a critical consideration of the study's limitations, acknowledging inherent constraints and areas for potential improvement. Concluding this chapter, the final section delineates a series of recommendations aimed at informing future research attempts within the field. These recommendations are aimed at addressing the identified gaps, refining methodological approaches, and fostering continued advancements in the scholarship of second language acquisition and pedagogy.

7.2 Summary of the Study's Objectives and Approach

The primary objective of this study is to investigate the efficacy of implementing CLT activities, specifically role-play and problem-solving, in enhancing the speaking proficiency of second language learners within Libyan EFL classrooms. This experimental inquiry employed pre- and post-oral English-speaking assessments to garner deeper insights into the impact of CLT activities on participants' speaking skills following their implementation in classroom settings.

Preceding the commencement of the study, careful consideration was given to the obstacles and challenges encountered by teachers in the application of CLT activities within Libyan contexts, as highlighted in previous literature (Altaieb and Omar, 2015; Athawadi, 2019). A comprehensive plan was devised to address these challenges, as elucidated in the pilot study outlined in Chapter Four. This proactive approach distinguishes the current research from prior investigations in the Libyan context, such as those conducted by Alhmali (2007), Orafi and Borg (2009), and Shihiba (2011). The distinction is elaborated upon in detail in Section 1.6 of Chapter 1, where the methodological differences and the unique focus of this study are discussed. Specifically, while previous studies focused on teaching English in general, the current research uniquely concentrates on enhancing speaking skills, an area not extensively covered by earlier studies. Additionally, this study engages students in real participation with

CLT techniques, offering a practical and dynamic perspective that distinguishes it from works that merely seek to assess perspectives via questionnaires and surveys.

7.3 Significance of the Research

The current study contributes significantly to the field of linguistics by examining key aspects of CLT and its impact on speaking proficiency among Libyan English language learners. Foremost among these contributions is the successful implementation of CLT activities aimed at enhancing speaking proficiency among Libyan university students learning English. By systematically assessing the impact of CLT approaches on students' speaking skills within the Libyan context, this study provides empirical evidence on the effectiveness of CLT. Although the research is focused on Libya, it contributes valuable insights that can inform the application of CLT in similar linguistic and cultural settings. The findings underscore the positive influence of CLT on students' learning outcomes, particularly in terms of the development of speaking proficiency. Through the analysis and interpretation of results, the study validates the viability of CLT strategies in enhancing the speaking skills of second language learners. Moreover, the study's findings could inform pedagogical practices and curriculum design by providing insights into the benefits of adopting CLT methodologies. By demonstrating the positive impact of CLT on language-learning outcomes, the study addresses the gap between theoretical frameworks and practical implementation, thereby helping educators and curriculum developers optimise their approach to language instruction.

Significantly, within the Libyan context, this study contributes to the existing literature by providing insights into how students authentically engage in practical CLT environments. While experimental designs are common in research, this study uniquely contributes by applying this approach to specifically evaluate the impact of role-play and problem-solving activities within CLT frameworks. This focus offers new insights into how these CLT activities enhance speaking skills, distinguishing the study from others that may use similar methodologies. Within this design, students actively engaged in authentic CLT activities within the classroom environment.

Prior investigations in Libyan context, such as by Athawaidi (2019) and Shihiba (2011), have primarily focused on students' perceptions of English language learning in general, yet this study marks the first instance of Libyan students being evaluated based on their active participation in learning and teaching English speaking skills through CLT activities. An additional notable aspect of this study is its methodological framework, which employs an experimental design with pre- and post-tests to evaluate improvements in English-speaking

skills. While this approach is commonly used in L2 research, the focus on role-play and problem-solving activities within the CLT framework provides specific insights into their impact on speaking proficiency. In essence, this research acts as a resource in advancing the proficiency of speaking skills within the Libyan educational context.

Since enhancing speaking skills was a significant feature of the current study, the analysis began by examining potential differences in the performances of participants across three distinct groups: the control group (GTM), experimental group 1 (role-play), and experimental group 2 (problem-solving). The primary objective was to ascertain whether these observed differences were significant. The analysis revealed there is an improvement among all groups from the pre-test to the post-test. The outcomes of the analysis reveal that all groups improved between pre- and post-tests. The CLT role-play and CLT problem-solving groups showed greater improvements than the GTM control group, with the overall largest improvement observed in the CLT role-play group, across all measures of speaking skills studied in this research.

Overall, participants in experimental group 1 demonstrated significant improvements in several key aspects of speaking proficiency. These improvements included an increase in words per minute, reduced hesitation in their speech, fewer grammatical errors (subject verb agreement) and a broader vocabulary. These enhancements lend significant weight to the hypothesis that role-play activities effectively fostered better speaking performance among language learners. Similarly, participants in experimental group 2 also showed marked improvement. They not only surpassed their own pre-test performance but also outperformed the control group in both pre-test and post-test assessments. This indicates that problem-solving activities also contributed positively to improving speaking proficiency. In contrast, while the control group did show improvement from pre-test to post-test, the gains were less significant compared to those observed in the experimental groups. Despite this, it is notable that their grammatical accuracy was comparable to that of experimental group 2, suggesting that traditional methods might still be effective in teaching certain aspects of language proficiency, such as grammar.

The findings of this study demonstrate that CLT activities were more effective in enhancing the oral proficiency of second language learners compared to GTM. The experimental groups exhibited superior performance across various measures of speaking proficiency, particularly in fluency, grammatical accuracy, and vocabulary use. However, it is important to note that while CLT activities have been associated with fostering collaborative and cooperative skills in prior research, this study did not directly measure these outcomes

through specific assessments. The study focuses on how CLT methodologies specifically improved oral proficiency and fluency, with participants demonstrating greater speaking proficiency in task-based activities. These findings suggest that CLT activities contribute significantly to language development, but broader claims regarding real-world communication challenges would require further investigation using additional outcome measures.

7.4 Research Limitations

As with any scholarly inquiry, this study is not devoid of limitations, all of which warrant careful consideration. While the study aimed to be inclusive, the scope of participant involvement was limited, lacking significant diversity in terms of social characteristics such as gender. Initially, the assessment of pre/post English-speaking tests warrants analysis. While these assessments serve as valuable instruments for evaluating speaking proficiency, their efficacy may be limited by standardised testing methodologies, particularly because they may not account for socio-cultural factors that could influence participants' performance. Such assessments may not capture the full scope of students' linguistic abilities or adequately reflect the comprehensive nature of communicative competence. Therefore, while informative, these assessments should be complemented by supplementary measures to provide a more general evaluation of speaking proficiency.

(a) Limitations of the Measures in Relation to Sub-constructs:

The pre/post-tests in this study primarily focused on measuring fluency, accuracy, and vocabulary size as key sub-constructs of speaking proficiency. However, there are inherent limitations in these measures that need to be acknowledged. In terms of fluency, the tests relied on speech rate (e.g., words per minute) as the primary measure. While this is a common measure in fluency research (Ellis, 2003), it may not fully capture the multifaceted nature of fluency. Fluency is not solely defined by speech rate but also encompasses factors such as ease of expression, the ability to maintain a conversation, and smoothness in speech flow (Skehan, 2009). These aspects are challenging to quantify using a simple speech rate measure, which may not fully reflect a learner's communicative proficiency in natural, real-world settings. As such, a more holistic measure of fluency, potentially including aspects such as hesitation, repair strategies, and interactional flow, could provide a more accurate picture of a learner’s ability to communicate effectively.

Regarding accuracy, the pre/post-tests primarily focused on specific grammatical and phonological aspects, including subject-verb agreement and vowel insertion. While these areas are important markers of grammatical and phonological accuracy, they do not encompass the

full range of accuracy-related issues that can arise in spontaneous spoken language. For instance, word order, tense usage, and various subtle phonological errors such as mispronunciations or incorrect stress patterns are also central to a learner's accuracy in real-life communication (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). The limited scope of the accuracy measures in this study may therefore fail to reflect the full spectrum of learners' grammatical and phonological competence. A more comprehensive assessment would include additional dimensions of grammatical accuracy, such as the correct use of tense and aspect, and other aspects of pronunciation, to capture learners' abilities more thoroughly.

In addition to fluency and accuracy, vocabulary size was another key focus of the pre/post-tests. The measure of vocabulary size, however, has its own set of limitations. While Schmitt (2010) emphasizes the importance of measuring both the size and depth of vocabulary knowledge, the pre/post-test only considered the frequency of lexical items used during the tasks. This narrow approach overlooks aspects of vocabulary depth, such as the ability to use words appropriately in context, collocational knowledge, and the range of words across different contexts (Canale & Swain, 1980). Therefore, while vocabulary size is an important factor in assessing speaking proficiency, a more detailed measure would include the assessment of word depth and the learner's ability to adapt their vocabulary to varied communication scenarios.

(b) Limitations of the Measures in Assessing Interactional Competence:

A notable limitation of the pre/post-tests was their failure to assess interactional competence, a vital aspect of speaking proficiency. Interactional competence involves the ability to manage conversations, take turns, negotiate meaning, and respond appropriately to conversational cues. These skills are essential for effective communication but were not directly measured in the pre/post-test assessments, which focused more on isolated speech tasks. Since CLT emphasizes the development of communicative competence, including interactional skills, it would have been beneficial to include assessments that focused on real-time communication, such as role-plays or group discussions, where participants engage in dynamic and interactive exchanges. These types of assessments would have provided a more comprehensive understanding of participants' ability to navigate real-world communication challenges.

Another limitation in this study, while a two-way ANOVA was employed to analyse the data, it is important to acknowledge that this statistical test does not fully account for the within-subject correlations inherent in pre- and post-test designs. Since the same participants were measured at two time points, their responses at the pre-test and post-test stages are likely to be correlated, which can violate the assumption of independence in a two-way ANOVA. A

repeated measures ANOVA or a mixed-design ANOVA would have been more appropriate for this design, as both tests are specifically designed to handle the correlations between repeated measures on the same subjects. These approaches would more accurately capture the within-subject variability and provide a better understanding of how changes from pre-test to post-test occurred within each group.

Additionally, although the study highlighted the need for effective teacher training programs, it did not include an assessment of how teacher training levels impacted the implementation of CLT. Future research should examine the relationship between teacher training and the fidelity of CLT implementation, as well as its subsequent impact on student outcomes. The study also neglected to elicit the attitudes of teachers and policymakers towards CLT, which would have provided a deeper understanding of the factors influencing its adoption and effectiveness. Incorporating attitudinal surveys and interviews in future research would offer valuable insights into the perceptions and potential barriers to effective CLT implementation. Moreover, the approach taken here involved subjective elements in the selection of less familiar words, which may have introduced bias due to the reliance on predefined lists and researcher judgment. Additionally, future studies could enhance this approach by integrating quantitative measures, such as type-token ratio (TTR) or word frequency analysis, to provide a more comprehensive assessment of lexical growth and minimise potential biases.

In this study, I chose not to incorporate rater-mediated measures of "communicative effectiveness" or "interactive communication" primarily due to the scope and feasibility of the research design. While the CLT approach emphasizes interactive and communicative skills, the focus of this study was on measurable aspects of speaking proficiency, specifically fluency, accuracy, and vocabulary size. Including such measures would have introduced additional complexity and required a more extensive evaluation of dynamic interactional factors, which were beyond the scope of this study. Furthermore, assessing interactional competence through rater-mediated measures could have introduced subjectivity, as evaluating skills like turn-taking, negotiation of meaning, and discourse management is inherently difficult to quantify. These aspects, though central to CLT, typically require more qualitative methods of assessment, such as detailed observation or real-time interaction analysis, which were not feasible within the study’s parameters. However, this limitation represents a risk of construct under-representation, as the exclusion of interactional competence and communicative effectiveness may have overlooked important dimensions of real-world communication. Future studies

should consider integrating such measures to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the impact of CLT activities on communicative competence.

In sum, while this study constitutes a notable contribution to the domain of language education, it is essential to recognise and confront its inherent limitations. By acknowledging these constraints and providing insights into potential avenues for future research, this study attempts to enhance the speaking skills of second language learners. Furthermore, by highlighting areas for improvement and describing pathways for future investigation, this study aims to foster continued advancements in the field of language education, ultimately contributing to the enhancement and optimisation of language pedagogical practices.

7.4.1 Method: Pre-Test and Post-Test Experimental Study

One of the primary drawbacks of using a pre- and post-test experimental study is the testing effect, where participants' familiarity with the test can influence their performance. This effect can sometimes lead to an overestimation of the actual improvements in participants' abilities, as their enhanced performance may partially result from repeated exposure to the test format rather than true gains in proficiency. In this study, efforts were made to minimise this effect by ensuring that participants were unaware they would take the same test during the post-test phase. Nevertheless, it is essential to acknowledge this limitation when interpreting the results, as it might have influenced the observed outcomes.

. Critics argue that the use of repeated testing as an educational intervention can lead to inflated post-test scores, which may not accurately reflect the true effectiveness of the intervention on long-term learning. This concern is supported by the study conducted by Karpicke and Roediger (2008), which investigated how repeatedly retrieving information versus simply restudying it affects the retention of foreign language vocabulary. Their findings showed that repeated retrieval notably improved long-term memory compared to repeated study. Nonetheless, students' expectations about their performance often did not match their actual recall, indicating that better test results could be influenced more by frequent testing than by genuine learning. While the study demonstrated the benefits of retrieval practice, it also highlights that the apparent effectiveness of repeated testing could be influenced by the familiarity with test items. Therefore, inflated post-test scores may not always provide an accurate measure of educational effectiveness, as they could reflect improved performance due to increased test-taking practice rather than genuine learning gains. This underscores the importance of critically evaluating the impact of testing interventions and recognizing potential limitations in assessing true learning outcomes.

However, in this study, the use of identical pre-tests and post-tests was intentional. Having the same tests allowed for a direct comparison of participants' performance before and after the intervention, ensuring that any observed changes are attributable to the intervention itself. If the tests were different, it would be challenging to make a valid comparison of performance, as differences in test content could confound the results. The outcomes of my study demonstrate an improvement in participants' speaking skills, suggesting that the identical tests effectively measured the changes due to the intervention.

Several studies reviewed in Chapter 4 also employed pre- and post-tests using the same test tasks or items, contributing to a broader understanding of repeated testing in SLA and applied linguistics research. For instance, Yang (2005), Ning (2011), Yang (2014), Safitri (2015), Rahayu (2016), and Al-Garni and Almuhammadi (2019) all used pre- and post-tests to measure learners' speaking proficiency. These studies highlight the potential impact of repeated testing on intervention outcomes, as well as the importance of considering factors like test familiarity and practice effects. Re-referencing these studies in this chapter strengthens the discussion and provides a more comprehensive view of how repeated testing can influence the measurement of intervention gains.

Another significant drawback is selection bias, which can occur if participants are not randomly assigned to experimental and control groups. Selection bias arises when differences between groups affect the outcomes rather than the intervention itself, leading to misleading conclusions about the effectiveness of the intervention. Random assignment of participants to groups can help mitigate this issue, ensuring that all groups are comparable at the start of the experiment. Lastly, the maturation effect refers to the natural changes that occur in participants over time, which might affect the outcomes independently of the intervention. This can make it difficult to distinguish whether changes from pre-test to post-test are due to the intervention or just the passage of time. Including a control group that does not receive the intervention helps to account for maturation effects by providing a basis for comparison.

Despite these drawbacks, the pre- and post-test experimental study design is highly effective in measuring the change in outcomes directly attributable to the intervention. It provides a clear comparison of participants' states before and after the intervention, allowing for straightforward analysis of the intervention's impact. The pre-test and post-test design is also practical and feasible for many types of research, providing a structured framework that is straightforward to implement and analyse. Moreover, it allows for comprehensive data collection, capturing a baseline measure and the outcome after the intervention, which is crucial for assessing effectiveness.

In addition to repeated testing, there are alternative methods for assessing intervention gains that could help mitigate this potential bias. These methods, such as portfolio assessments, teacher ratings, or peer assessments, offer different ways of measuring speaking proficiency without relying on the same test items. For example, portfolio assessments provide a more comprehensive view of a learner's progress over time, while teacher and peer assessments allow for the evaluation of speaking skills in various contexts. However, these alternative measures also come with limitations. Portfolio assessments, for instance, can be subject to more subjective interpretations, and ratings from teachers or peers may introduce bias if not standardized across all participants. Additionally, such assessments can be time-consuming and difficult to implement consistently, making them challenging to use as the sole measure of progress. Despite these challenges, combining multiple assessment methods could provide a more holistic and accurate evaluation of students' language development and the effectiveness of the intervention.

7.5 Suggestions for Future Research

The findings of this study suggest several avenues for further research. Given the study's focus solely on participants at the university stage of education, it would be advantageous to explore the secondary stage, which serves as the foundation for university-level studies. Investigating the preparatory measures undertaken at the secondary level for English language education could enhance our understanding of students' readiness for subsequent educational stages. Additionally, the relatively brief duration of this study, spanning six weeks, encourages the need for longer-term longitudinal investigations covering entire courses to expose the impact of a CLT approach within the Libyan context. A more extended study duration would have facilitated a more comprehensive examination of the effects of CLT interventions on language learning outcomes, thereby providing a deeper understanding of its efficacy.

Additionally, since this study mainly assessed how well the CLT method improves students' English-speaking abilities at the university level, it did not concentrate on other language skills like reading, writing, and listening. Considering that language skills are interconnected, investigating the impact of the CLT approach on all aspects of language learning could provide a more thorough insight into students' overall English proficiency. By examining the general impact of CLT on various language competencies, researchers can gain more accurate illustration of the efficacy of CLT methodologies in language education. Moreover, while this study was conducted at a longstanding university in the northwestern region of Libya, the generalisability of the results may be limited to this specific locale. Despite universities across Libya employing diverse materials and curricula, variations in educational

practices and contexts across different regions and settings may warrant further investigation. Thus, conducting similar studies in the southern and eastern regions or more rural areas of the country could provide a broader perspective on the efficacy of CLT approaches in diverse educational settings across Libya. Such activities would contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of the applicability and effectiveness of CLT methodologies nationwide.

Another significant recommendation entails a review of current assessment procedures. Rather than relying solely on traditional grammar-oriented examinations, it is advocated that students' linguistic proficiency be evaluated through ongoing assessment throughout CLT activities. Within the focus on factors influencing students' speaking proficiency, it is advisable to consider a wider range of strategies to support their linguistic capabilities. Firstly, students should be provided with additional activities aimed at merging their language proficiency within an enjoyable setting. These activities would not only serve as supplementary avenues for language acquisition but also as platforms for fostering intrinsic motivation and enthusiasm towards language learning. Additionally, teachers play a critical role in providing a supportive learning atmosphere wherein students feel empowered to engage actively, and this should be ensured in future studies.

Since this study concentrated on comparing just three groups a control group and two experimental groups, future research could benefit from examining a broader range of situations. For example, a new study might involve one control group and three experimental groups, each engaged in a different CLT activity. For example, in addition to the role-play and problem-solving activities implemented in this study, an additional group could engage in a discussion activity. In future studies, incorporating a "discussion" group as an intervention task would introduce a different type of interaction compared to "problem-solving" tasks. While problem-solving tasks focus on addressing a specific challenge or finding a solution, typically with clear roles and outcomes, discussion tasks are more open-ended and focused on exchanging ideas, opinions, or information. Discussions often involve negotiating meaning, taking turns, and developing conversational skills in a less structured environment. Unlike problem-solving tasks, which can require a single answer or solution, discussions allow for multiple perspectives and promote critical thinking, encouraging participants to elaborate, ask follow-up questions, and engage in dialogue that fosters interactional competence. Exploring these different approaches allows researchers to gain a deeper insight into how effectively each CLT activity improves English language skills among EFL learners. Such investigations would contribute to the improvement of CLT methodologies in language education contexts.

In the end, future research should aim to expand the scope of CLT applications and explore how different contextual factors, such as cultural influences and classroom dynamics, may impact the effectiveness of these activities. By continuing to build on the findings of this study, educators and researchers can contribute to the development of more refined and adaptable language teaching methodologies that address the evolving needs of EFL learners.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Ethical Approval

Dear Nedal

Thank you for your application for ethical approval of your project *An investigation into the effects of applying the activities of Communicative Language Teaching Approach on English learners' speaking skills in Libya*. I confirm that Dr Ilke Turkmendag has approved it on behalf of the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences Ethics Committee.

Please note that this approval applies to the project protocol as stated in your application - if any amendments are made to this during the course of the project, please submit the revisions to the Ethics Committee in order for them to be reviewed and approved.

Kind regards,

Wendy

Wendy Davison
PA to Professor Shirley Jordan, Acting Dean of Research and Innovation
Mrs Lorna Taylor, Faculty Research Manager
and Dr Louise Kempton, Associate Dean of Research and Innovation
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Appendix B: Department's Permission

Reference: ***Nedal Omran Karaim***

This is to clarify that on the 5th of April the above-mentioned name has come to the English Department College of Arts Elmergib University to conduct an experiment. A consent form had been applied from the researcher and the approval is given from the head of the Department. Mr. Nedal's study is aimed to second year speaking skills for six weeks period. The sample is divided into three groups fifteen students each. The classes are scheduled to be one class per week of two hours each.

Note: This experiment is done under our supervision.

Khalid M. EDrah
Head of English Department
Email: Khalidedrah77@gmail.com

Appendix C: Department's Permission to Run the Lessons Virtually on Zoom

Reference: ***Nedal Omran Karaim***

This is to clarify that the above-mentioned name has come to the English Department College of Arts Elmergib University for a permission to run the lessons virtually. on Zoom, using the University of Newcastle Licence, and being recorded, in the event that it isn't possible to do lessons in person (even if this is quite unlikely). A consent form had been applied from the researcher and the approval is given from the head of the Department.

Khalid M. Edrah
Head of English Department
Email: Khalidedrah77@gmail.com

Appendix D: Consent Form

Title of Study: **An investigation into the effects of applying the activities of Communicative Language Teaching Approach on English learners' speaking skills in Libya.**

Participant Reference Code: _____

Thank you for your interest in taking part in this research. Please complete this form after you have read the Information Sheet about the research study. You will be given a copy of this Consent Form.

Please use the initial box to confirm consent		
1.	I confirm that I have read the information sheet for the above study, I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and I have had no questions answered satisfactorily.	
2.	I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason. I understand that if I decide to withdraw, any data that I have provided up to that point will be omitted.	
3.	I understand that my research data may be published as a report.	
4.	I consent to being audio recorded and understand that the recordings will be destroyed within weeks after the data has been collected / destroyed immediately after transcription and/or stored anonymously on password-protected software and used for research purposes only.	
5.	I agree to take part in this research project.	
	Participant _____ _____ _____ *Name of participant* *Signature* *Date*	
	Researcher _____ _____ _____ *Name of researcher* *Signature* *Date*	

Note// the consent form has been downloaded and cited from Newcastle University Ethics Webpage 2021.

نموذج الموافقة

عنوان الدراسة: **دراسة في آثار تطبيق أنشطة منهج التواصل اللغوي (CLT) على مهارات التحدث في اللغة الإنجليزية في ليبيا.**

رمز المشارك: _____

شكرا لاهتمامك بالمشاركة في هذا البحث. يرجى ملء هذا النموذج بعد قراءة ورقة المعلومات حول الدراسة البحثية. سيتم منحك نسخة من نموذج الموافقة هذا.

يرجى وضع علامة في كل مربع لتأكيد الموافقة		
1.	أؤكد أنني قرأت ورقة المعلومات للدراسة المذكورة أعلاه، وأتيح لي الفرصة للنظر في المعلومات، وطرح الأسئلة، وقد تمت الإجابة على أي أسئلة بشكل مرض.	
2.	أفهم أن مشاركتي طوعية وأنني حر في الانسحاب في أي وقت دون إبداء أي سبب. وأفهم أنه إذا قررت الانسحاب، فإن أي بيانات قدمتها حتى تلك اللحظة ستحذف.	
3.	أفهم أن بيانات بحثي قد تنشر كتقرير.	
4.	أوافق على أن يتم تسجيل الصوت وفهم أن التسجيلات سيتم تدميرها في غضون أسابيع بعد جمع البيانات / تدميرها مباشرة بعد النسخ و / أو تخزينها بشكل مجهول على البرامج المحمية بكلمة مرور واستخدامها لأغراض البحث فقط.	
5.	أوافق على المشاركة في هذا المشروع البحثي.	
	المشارك _____ _____ _____ *اسم المشارك* التوقيع التاريخ	
	الباحث _____ _____ _____ *اسم الباحث* *التوقيع* التاريخ	

ملاحظة: تم تنزيل نموذج الموافقة واستشهد به من صفحة الويب الخاصة بأخلاقيات جامعة نيوكاسل 2021.

Appendix E: Participant Information Sheet

Project Title:

An investigation into the effects of applying the activities of Communicative Language Teaching Approach on English learners' speaking skills in Libya.

Introduction

I am Nedal Karaim second year IPhD student school of English Literature, Language and Linguistics at Newcastle university. I am doing this study in order to find out if CLT as a teaching method is effective.

Purpose of the project

The overall objective of this experimental study is to find out an answer to the research question; How effective are certain CLT activities in improving the speaking skills of English as a foreign language students? And this will be by comparing the results of the experimental groups which will apply the activities of CLT and the results of control group.

Why have I been invited to take part?

You have been invited to take part because you have basic knowledge of English along with an ability to use and practise verbal skills of the English language.

Do I have to take part?

Participating in this study should not cause any discomfort for the participants, therefore there are no expected risks involved. You can withdraw at any time if you feel are not comfortable for any reason via contacting the researcher and you do not need to justify your decision to withdraw, even if a consent form has been signed and the project has already started. Possible benefits of taking part (students): It could be said that students who are involved will benefit in terms of improving their speaking skills. Additionally, they can get the opportunities to share and express their experience, opinions, and beliefs in a free atmosphere. I can confirm to you that your participation is not compulsory as you will be given a consent form which needs your signature for participating or not.

What will I need to do if I decide to take part?

In the first meeting with Mr khalid the head of department of English language at Elmergib university we decided that all the students will be informed about everything related to your participation in this study and you will be ensured that your participation will affect your score

of the final Assessment. Also, you will be allocated into two groups and by dividing you in two groups, there are specific points have designed.

1- All classes are designed for teaching speaking only and for two hours.
2- All students will be taught by the same topics and materials which are designed by the researcher and under the supervision of the department.
3- All students will be tested by the same questions.

So, I can confirm that all learners in all groups will have the same topics, materials, period, tests, and the size of class. Just one thing which will be different between groups is the activity in the class which I do not see it will cause any negative impact on your education, although there is a possibility it might. What is more, every single student will be informed that you are in that group which will apply that activity. If you show an agreement, that is fine, if not I will try to find another student interest to be involved in that group with that activity and this will be done with the cooperation of the Department.

Every point in the information sheet will be explained to you and you will be informed in which group you will be also you will be given short explanation about what is difference between groups. Then, you will keep these forms with you, and to take enough time before taken a decision. Afterward, please if you could bring back the forms at least by the end of week and handing them to the department. As the researcher will come on Thursday to collect the forms. With the help of Department.

What will happen to the information/data?

For this study it has been decided to use just the smart phone apps to record the tests and some classes. I decided to be more care to protect your information as I will use my smart phone apps for recording and copying them in University's OneDrive. The data of this study (answers and participations of students) will be kept in University's OneDrive as no one will have access to their information except my supervisors they might want access to the data, and information about the participants (e.g., age, previous study, etc), but I do not think that they need any access to identifying information about them. As all the personal information will be kept separately and only for a limited time Then, once the analysis of their answers is done, I will keep them for few years with the purpose of making multiple kinds of analysis. Regarding to the results of this data will be shared for all academics and I will keep a copy of these results on OneDrive.

Again, many thanks for cooperation and I am really appreciating that. If you are unhappy with any aspect of this research, you should contact the Principal Researcher Nedal Karaim.

Contact details:

The researcher: Nedal Karaim

University email N.O.A.Karaim2@Newcastle.ac.uk

Personal email Nedalkryeam@gmail.com

Supervisors:

1- Martha Young-Scholten

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ورقة معلومات المشاركين

عنوان المشروع:

تحقيق في آثار تطبيق أنشطة منهج التواصل اللغوي (CLT) على مهارات التحدث باللغة الإنجليزية في ليبيا.

مقدمة

أنا نضال كريم السنة الثانية IPhD طالب مدرسة الأدب الإنجليزي واللغة واللغويات في جامعة نيوكاسل. أقوم بهذه الدراسة من أجل معرفة ما إذا كان تطبيق انشطة CLT كطريقة تعليمية فعالة في تحسين مهارات التحدث في اللغة الانجليزية في ليبيا.

الغرض من المشروع

الهدف العام لهذه الدراسة التجريبية هو معرفة إجابة على سؤال البحث؛ ما مدى فعالية بعض أنشطة CLT في تحسين مهارات التحدث باللغة الإنجليزية كطلاب لغات أجنبية؟ وسيكون ذلك من خلال مقارنة نتائج المجموعات التجريبية التي ستطبق أنشطة CLT ونتائج مجموعة التنظيم التي لا تطبق تلك الانشطة.

لماذا دعيت للمشاركة؟

لقد دعيت للمشاركة لأن لديك المعرفة الأساسية للغة الإنجليزية جنبا إلى جنب مع القدرة على استخدام وممارسة المهارات اللفظية للغة الإنجليزية.

هل يجب أن أشارك؟

المشاركة في هذه الدراسة لا ينبغي أن تسبب أي إزعاج للمشاركين، وبالتالي لا توجد مخاطر متوقعة. يمكنك الانسحاب في أي وقت إذا كنت تشعر بعدم الراحة لأي سبب من الأسباب عن طريق الاتصال بالباحث ولا تحتاج إلى تبرير قرارك بالانسحاب، حتى لو تم توقيع نموذج موافقة وبدأ المشروع بالفعل. الفوائد المحتملة للمشاركة (الطلاب): يمكن القول أن الطلاب المشاركين سيستفيدون من حيث تحسين مهاراتهم في التحدث؛ بالإضافة إلى ذلك يمكنهم الحصول على فرص المشاركة والتعبير عن خبراتهم وآرائهم ومعتقداتهم في جو حر، يمكنني أن أؤكد لكم أن مشاركتكم ليست إجبارية حيث سيتم منحكم استمارة موافقة تحتاج إلى توقيعكم للمشاركة أم لا.

ماذا علي أن أفعل إذا قررت المشاركة؟

في اللقاء الأول مع السيد خالد رئيس قسم اللغة الإنجليزية بجامعة المرقب قررنا أن يتم إبلاغ جميع الطلاب بكل ما يتعلق بمشاركتك في هذه الدراسة، وسيتم إعلامك بأن مشاركتك لن تؤثر على درجاتك في التقييم النهائي؛ أيضا سيتم تقسيمكم إلى مجموعتين، وهناك نقاط محددة تم تصميمها.

4- تم تصميم جميع الفصول الدراسية لتدريس مهارات التحدث فقط لمدة ساعتين.
5- سيتم تدريس جميع الطلاب من خلال نفس الموضوعات والمواد التي صممها الباحث وتحت إشراف القسم.
6- سيتم اختبار جميع الطلاب من خلال نفس الأسئلة.

لذلك، يمكنني أن أؤكد أن جميع المتعلمين في جميع المجموعات سيكون لديهم نفس الموضوعات والمواد والفترة والاختبارات وحجم الصف. شيء واحد فقط والذي سيكون مختلفا بين المجموعات هو النشاط في الصف الذي لا أرى أنه سوف يسبب أي تأثير سلبي على التعليم الخاص بك، على الرغم من أن هناك احتمال أنه قد يحدث. والأكثر من ذلك، سيتم إبلاغ كل طالب بأنك في تلك المجموعة التي ستطبق هذا النشاط. إذا أظهرت الموافقة، فلا بأس، إن لم يكن كذلك سأحاول أن أجد طالب أخر للمشاركة في تلك المجموعة مع هذا النشاط، وسيتم ذلك بالتعاون مع الإدارة.

سيتم شرح كل نقطة في ورقة المعلومات لك وسيتم إبلاغك في المجموعة التي ستكون فيها أيضا سيتم منحك شرحا قصيرا حول الفرق بين المجموعات. ثم، سوف تحتفظ بهذه النماذج معك، وتأخذ ما يكفي من الوقت قبل اتخاذ قرار. بعد ذلك، من فضلك إذا كنت تستطيع إعادة الاستمارات على الأقل بحلول نهاية الأسبوع وتسليمها إلى القسم. كما ان الباحث سيأتي يوم الخميسلجمع النماذج. بمساعدة القسم

ماذا سيحدث للمعلومات/ البيانات؟

لهذه الدراسة فقد تقرر استخدام تطبيقات الهاتف الذكي فقط لتسجيل الاختبارات. قررت أن يكون أكثر رعاية لحماية المعلومات الخاصة بك كما سأستخدم تطبيقات الهاتف الذكي لتسجيل ونسخها في OneDrive الجامعة. سيتم الاحتفاظ ببيانات هذه الدراسة (إجابات ومشاركات الطلاب) في OneDrive في الجامعة حيث لن يتمكن أحد من الوصول إلى معلوماتهم باستثناء مشرفي الذين قد يرغبون في الوصول إلى البيانات والمعلومات حول المشاركين (على سبيل المثال ، العمر ، الدراسة السابقة ، إلخ) ، لكنني لا أعتقد أنهم بحاجة إلى أي وصول إلى معلومات تعريفية عنهم. كما سيتم الاحتفاظ

بجميع المعلومات الشخصية بشكل منفصل وفقط لفترة محدودة ثم، بمجرد الانتهاء من تحليل إجاباتهم، وسوف تبقي لبضع سنوات بهدف إجراء أنواع متعددة من التحليل. فيما يتعلق بنتائج هذه البيانات سيتم مشاركتها لجميع الأكاديميين وسأحتفظ بنسخة من هذه النتائج على OneDrive.

ومرة أخرى، شكرا جزيلا على التعاون، وأنا أقدر ذلك حقا. إذا كنت غير راض عن أي جانب من جوانب هذا البحث، يجب عليك الاتصال الباحث الرئيسي نضال كريم.

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Appendix F: Lesson Plans

Week One: Greetings and introducing language Lesson Plan

Teacher: ***Mohammed Banoor***

Mohammed Banoor has taught 1st and 2nd year levels at Elmergib university and has a specialist degree in teaching English language. He is currently a teacher of English language at Elmergib university.

In this lesson the learners will practice greetings and introducing language in real life situations. The learners will be required to use the speaking skills since there will be diverse of activities.

Learning Aims

The learners after this lesson will be able to:

1- develop students' communication skills.
2- Greet each other in English language.
3- Introduce themselves to each other.
4- Differentiate between informal greetings and formal greetings.
5- Introduce one person to group.
6- say greetings in introduction.
7- experience the types of greetings and introductions.

Length

This lesson should take two hours with fifteen minutes break.

Grammar and Expression

1- An explanation about the structure of present simple tense.

I – am

He, she, it – is

They, we, you, - are

2- Examples about this tense.

3- The uses of present simple tense.

Vocabulary

[Hello, hi, how do you do? nice to see you, how are you? good morning, good afternoon, nice to meet you, I am good, goodbye, and so on…]

Materials

1- Markers and whiteboard.

2- Sets of cards with greetings on them.
3- Glue sticks.
4- Copies of written conversations.
5- Videos
6- Worksheets: exercises printed out for use in class.
7- Internet access

Week Two: Daily Routine Lesson Plan

Teacher: ***Mohammed Banoor***

Mohammed Banoor has taught 1st and 2nd year levels at Elmergib university and has a specialist degree in teaching English language. He is currently a teacher of English language at Elmergib university.

In this lesson the learners will practice describing their daily events. Also, they will learner to express their daily routine in correct order and use the common words and expressions.

Learning Aims

The learners after this lesson will be able to:

1- develop students' communication skills.
2- Describe their daily routines.
3- Present their activities in order from morning till night.
4- Discuss their activities by using the frequency words and expressions.
5- Introduce their routines to each other.

Length

This lesson should take two hours with fifteen minutes break.

Grammar and Expression

1- The uses of present simple tense.

we use the present simple when we talk about our daily routine.

2- Introducing the rules of third person "s"
3- clarification the rules of making questions and negative sentences in present simple tense.

Vocabulary

1- [wake up, alarm clock, tiding room, tiding bed, breakfast, lunch, dinner, school, bus, toothbrush and break a routine so on…]
2- Frequency adverbs: always, often, usually, sometimes, never.

Materials

1- Markers, paper, and whiteboard.
2- Sets of cards with questions about the time of doing daily activities.
3- Videos

4- Small papers with questions about what you do in morning, in the afternoon, evening, at night,' etc.
5- Worksheets: exercises printed out for use in class.
6- Internet access

Week Three: Telling Story Lesson Plan

Teacher: ***Mohammed Banoor***

Mohammed Banoor has taught 1st and 2nd year levels at Elmergib university and has a specialist degree in teaching English language. He is currently a teacher of English language at Elmergib university.

In this lesson the learners will learn new vocabulary and expressions about describing and telling story. They will watch videos about short stories, and they will have Worksheets: exercises printed out for use after watching videos.

Learning Aims

The learners after this lesson will be able to:

1- develop students' communication skills.
2- Arrange their ideas.
3- Present their ideas in correct way.
4- Gain the skills of narrating their stories.
5- Describe events and facts happened in the past.
6- Use their imaginations in telling stories.
7- Know the words and expressions of telling stories.

Length

This lesson should take two hours with fifteen minutes break.

Grammar and Expression

1 An explanation about the structure of past simple tense.
2 Examples about past simple tense.
3 The uses of past simple tense.
4 Key words of past simple tense.
5 Differentiate between regular and irregular past simple verbs.

Vocabulary

[story, short story, narration, description, event, visited, telling story, create story, narrative, action, fact, imagination, action, acts, details, hero, and so on…]

Materials

1- Story books

2- Worksheets: exercises printed out for use in class.
3- Marker and whiteboard
4- Videos
5- Pictures
6- Internet access

Week Four: Lost Patience Lesson Plan

Teacher: ***Mohammed Banoor***

Mohammed Banoor has taught 1st and 2nd year levels at Elmergib university and has a specialist degree in teaching English language. He is currently a teacher of English language at Elmergib university.

In this lesson the learners will learn new vocabulary and expressions about how to be patient and trying not to lose it. They will see some examples about patience and the disadvantages of losing it.

Learning Objectives

The learners after this lesson will be able to:

1- develop students' communication skills.
2- remember and present actions in the past.
3- Present their ideas in correct way.
4- Gain the skills of narrating their stories.
5- Describe events and facts happened in the past.
6- Use the proper forms of past simple tense.
7- Be patient in hard times.

Length

This lesson should take two hours with fifteen minutes break.

Grammar and Expression

1 more explanation about the structure of past simple tense.
2 The uses of past simple tense.
3 Key words of past simple tense such as yesterday, last week, and last month.
4 Clarification the rule of using [did] in making negative and question sentences.

Vocabulary

[can be patient, good habit, bad habit, take your time, wait along, hurry up, try to be patient, impatient, intolerant, annoyed, angry and so on…]

Materials

1- Story books
2- posters

3- Worksheets: exercises printed out for use in class.
4- Marker and whiteboard
5- Videos
6- Pictures
7- Internet access

Week Five: Holiday and Travelling Lesson Plan

Teacher: ***Mohammed Banoor***

Mohammed Banoor has taught 1st and 2nd year levels at Elmergib university and has a specialist degree in teaching English language. He is currently a teacher of English language at Elmergib university.

In this lesson the learners will learn new vocabulary and expressions about travelling and holiday. They will know famous places in the country to visit. They will be familiar about the proper time for students to spend their holiday.

Learning Aims

The learners after this lesson will be able to:

1- develop students' communication skills.
2- Decide where to go for their holiday.
3- Decide when to go for their holiday.
4- Travel abroad with group.
5- Know the words and expressions of travelling.
6- Contact a travelling agency and deal with them.
7- Deal with issues in airport.

Length

This lesson should take two hours with fifteen minutes break.

Grammar and Expression

1 - An explanation about the structure of future simple tense.
2 Examples about future simple tense.
3 The uses of future simple tense.
4 Key words of future simple tens.

Vocabulary

[travelling, holiday, airport, hotel, travelling agency, tourism, tourist, plane, train, check in, ticket, hand baggage, passport, visa, and so on…]

Materials

1- Map of the famous places in the country
2- Map of transportation
3- Videos

4- Set of cards with vocabularies of travelling
5- Pictures
6- Markers and white board
7- Internet access

Week Six: Planning for the Future Lesson Plan

Teacher: ***Mohammed Banoor***

Mohammed Banoor has taught 1st and 2nd year levels at Elmergib university and has a specialist degree in teaching English language. He is currently a teacher of English language at Elmergib university.

In this lesson the learners will get the chance to learn new vocabulary and expressions about planning their future life. So, they will present diverse features of their future life. Their teacher will guide them to the best accessible grammar forms.

Learning Aims

The learners after this lesson will be able to:

1- develop students' communication skills.
2- Think seriously about their future plan.
3- Take decision about their future job.
4- Prepare themselves for their future job.
5- Work hard to complete their study.
6- Use the proper forms of future simple tense.

Length

This lesson should take two hours with fifteen minutes break.

Grammar and Expression

1- More explanation about future simple tense.
2- Clarification the structure of the future simple tense and the uses of this tense.
3- Highlighting on the key words for example [tomorrow, next week, next year].
4- making question and negative sentences in future simple tense.

Vocabulary

[future plan, future job, education, business, studying abroad, follow in the footsteps of my favourite somebody, experience, prediction, planning, take decision and so on…]

Materials

1- Worksheets: exercises printed out for use in class.
2- Marker and whiteboard
3- Set of papers of questions and answers about future jobs
4- Videos

5- Pictures
6- Internet access

Appendix G: Experimental Groups - Topics and Activities for Each Week

Week One: Greeting and Introducing Language

The learners in experimental group one was taught to practice the activity of role-playing. After introducing this activity to them, they were divided into two groups of five. The teacher instructed the learners to start by greeting each other and to take on the role of introducing themselves. Their task was to practice the skill of introducing a friend to others. Then, to aid the learners in overcoming any wariness and shyness with regards to speaking in public, the learners practiced the task of taking the role of introducing themselves in front of the class and practicing the task of introducing someone to others in front of the class.

The learners in the second experimental group in their first speaking session were given a problem-solving activity. They were organised into two groups; the researcher planned for group one a situation where the students imagined themselves in situation where they were introducing themselves in public, while the second group imagined themselves in a situation where they were introducing someone to others. Both groups then worked together to discuss the issues that they might raise during these situations. In their groups, the learners were asked to work together then write down the issues they believed could transpire in these situations. After that, the lecturer asked every group to share their items with the others and with their lecturer, and each group was asked to provide explanations behind these items.

Week Two: Daily routine

The learners in group one was given time to prepare their ideas about their daily routine, after which they started to practice the task in groups, during which every member in the group took a role and told others about his/her daily routine. At the same time, the listeners could ask about and discuss any idea that emerged while anybody else was talking. After that, each group was asked to highlight any odd ideas that had been noticed in their group, with a view to introduce these ideas to the other group, since such a task could be useful in helping students arrange and organise their daily routine in the right way.

In the second experimental group, the learners were prepared by their lecturer to practice the activity of problem solving concerning the question ‘How to keep your daily routine and avoid breaking it?’ They were directed to remain in one group and were asked to start counting any factors that could help the learner keep his/her daily routine, while also presenting various examples of breaking routines. As soon as they had completed counting these factors, they

were asked to start the second task, which involved offering solutions and suggestions for those factors that negatively influenced their daily routine and discussions surrounding how they could avoid them.

Week Three: Interesting Story of Your Life in the Past

After the topic was presented by their teacher, the learners in the role-playing group were instructed to work individually and think about an event that happened involving them in the past. They were then asked to arrange their ideas in the proper way. Then, each student started playing their roles, with individual presentations describing different stories in front of the class. While presenting the stories, the listeners were asked to assess each presentation in general. Once all the presentations were done, the teacher collected all the papers with the purpose of announcing the best presentation at the end of their class.

In the problem-solving group, the learners were directed to take part in open debate, with a view to discuss the problem and try to solve it. some issues concerning this topic, which included:

1- arranging ideas in the proper way.

2- low voice.

3- short/long stories.

All the learners were collectively asked to find acceptable solutions for these issues. At the end of this task, the learners put the issues in column A and their solutions in column B and all learners benefited from this activity by telling a story in a correct, acceptable, and clear way. This meant that it was easy for listeners to follow the task.

Week Four: Lost Patience

The learners in experimental group one was instructed to take part in open conversation and role-play talking about a situation where they lost their patience. In this activity, each student had to remember a specific situation and confirm the reason behind losing their patience. During this task, the teacher monitored the changing roles between learners and ensured that each student had taken his/her role in presenting the situation to the rest of the class. Moreover, the researcher planned to put the learners into groups and instructed them to start thinking about the bad effects of this habit. Following this, they were asked to change roles between groups to exchange ideas and beliefs concerning this habit.

The learners in the second group were asked to apply the activity of problem solving to two tasks. Firstly, they were divided into groups and started discussing the factors that could cause the person to lose his/her patience. Once the time was over for conducting the task, the learners started sharing ideas with each other and taking notes regarding each other's views. The second task involved the groups being asked to start thinking of proper behaviours to avoid losing patience. Later, both groups exchanged their thoughts, and, in this way, it could be claimed that the learners collectively investigated the problem and suggested some solutions for this issue in the proper way.

Week Five: Holiday and Travelling

In the role-play experimental group, the learners were divided into groups, where each group was a team of five students. They were asked to work together and exchange views concerning planning their coming holiday. The researcher emphasised that each member in the team must take a role in planning their holiday. Once each group had finished planning their holiday, the next step was changing roles between groups as each learner introduced their plan to each other. At the same time, learners were encouraged to take roles in asking questions and adding notes regarding both plans. The learners in the problem-solving experimental group were set in open dialogue and asked to discuss certain points regarding issues that occur during travelling. The following points were presented by the researcher:

- Arriving late to the airport
- Forgetting your passport
- Being lost
- The language of the country

During their discussion regarding these issues, learners were encouraged by their teacher to add more points. The second step of this task was to find solutions for such problems. So, all students together were instructed to find proper solutions for those specified issues.

Week Six: What it is Your Future Plan

After introducing the topic, the teacher arranged the learners of experimental group one into small conversations where they were asked to role-play talking about their future career. They were directed to apply the activity role-play as each student started taking the role of standing in front of the class and talking about his/her future job. When the presentation finished, time

was given to the listeners to ask any questions or give comments. After that, the presenter provided answers and elaborated on their story.

In the problem-solving experimental group, the learners were given time to prepare their thoughts regarding the issue that needed to be solved as presented by the researcher, which was 'Discussing the issue of feeling pessimistic about future career'. The teacher divided his students into groups to discuss this problem and offer suggestions about it. Also, the learners started to work together to come up with solutions to avoid such problems. After that, the learners were directed to exchange ideas and suggestions between groups.

Appendix H: Control Group - Topics and Activities for Each Week

Week One: Greeting and Introducing Language

The learners in the control group were sitting in their seats without any movement in the class. Once the classroom's teacher came in, every single student was greeted by their teacher. Then the teacher told them that the topic is related to greeting and introducing languages at the same time he was translating the topic into Arabic. After that the teacher wrote down some examples of greeting on the board at the same time, he translated them in Arabic after that he started applying the technique of drilling as the teacher was read and they repeated after him. At that time, he gave them time to write down these expressions in their notebooks with their translations. The teacher asked them to memories these expressions. Afterward he taught them which formal expressions, and which are informal. While they started to read these expressions with their teacher, they were writing them down in their notebooks. Then there was an instruction from the teacher that every single student had to memories the expressions for the next class. Before the end of the lesson the teacher started to introduce the Grammar point, as he gave them an explanation about the structure of present simple tense.

I – am

He, she, it - is

They, we, you, - are

Then he gave them some examples about this tense and briefly he presented to them the uses of present simple tens. And then they were asked to write down the rules and structures. The points, rules and structures of the present simple tense were translated to the Arabic language as well.

Week Two: Daily Routine

In the second week the teacher started the lesson by asking the learners about the expressions of greetings that they had learned in last lesson to read them out with their translations to the Arabic language. Then, he started to talk about the daily routine and at the same time he translated the meaning of the topic and the explanations about it. At that moment the teacher started to write his daily routine on the board. He did that in points as he wrote the translation for every point and then he started the activity of drilling as he read, and they repeated after him. At that moment he started to write down on the board some advantages and disadvantages of doing the same routine for every day. He wrote them in two columns, column A for

advantages with translation in front of every single point and the same thing was done for the disadvantages point which were listed under the column B. Once more, he started to read all what was written on the board and the learners repeated after him. After that he gave them time to write down the points from the broad and their task to memorise them for the next week. Before the end of the class, he moved to the grammatical section which focused on the uses of the present simple tense, and he explained to them that we use the present simple when we talk about our daily routine, and he referred them back to the examples that he wrote on the board. He taught them about the rules of third person "s" and how to use it in the correct way. There was a translation for the rule as well as examples. similarly, he taught them the rule of the verb to do along with its uses. The explanations were done by presenting some examples with the translation for the meaning. Likewise, there was an explanation about the rules of making questions and negative sentences in present simple tense.

Week Three: Interesting Story of Your Life in the Past

The teacher started the lesson for the third week by asking the learners in control group to read out the rules of the present simple and its uses along with examples of daily routines that they were learned and wrote them down last week. Then he started his lesson by writing down the topic on the board and translated it to the Arabic language. There were two stories from the experience of the teacher were presented to the learners, if he started to narrate the first story all the learners took the role of the listeners, and it was done with its translation. After that he highlighted some regular past simple tense verbs in column A with their translation, at the same time he asked the learners to write them down and memorise them. After that he did the same technique with the second story and after finishing his narration, he wrote down some irregular past simple tense verbs in column B. once the translation had done, he started to read out both columns and the learners started to repeat after him. when this task was done, they started to write down the verbs in order to memorise them for the next lesson. Before the end of the lesson the teacher started the grammar section which was about the past simple tense and its structure. He explained to them the differences between regular and irregular past simple verbs.

Week Four: Lost Patience

The lesson for the control group in week four was started by making a revision for the last week lesson as there was a random selection for the learners to answer the question of their teacher about regular and irregular past simple verbs. Then the teacher started the lesson's topic

which was about lost patience, and he wrote it down on the board with its translation. Then he started to talk about the patience and how could avoid losing it for about fifteen minutes and this was done with translation to the Arabic language. At that point he gave them two examples of losing patience and wrote them on the board, the next part of the lesson was all about the grammar section. There was a detailed explanation about the structure of the past simple tense and the uses of this tense along with the key words which are normally used to build sentences in past simple tense. He started to highlight the key words from the examples of lost patience on the bord such as [yesterday, last week, last month, two weeks ago]. Then he started to explain the rule of using [did] in making negative and question sentences in past simple tense. All the sentences, rules, key words were translated to the Arabic. At the same time the learners started to write them down in their notes with attention of memorising them for the next week.

Week Five: Holiday and Travelling

The learners in the control group started their lesson by answering the questions about the uses of the past simple and the structure of this tense. Also, there was a question about changing the sentences to negative and question sentences. After that the teacher started the lesson as usual by writing down the lesson's topic on the board along with its translation. And then he wrote down a list of vocabularies which were related to the travelling. At the same time the learners started to write them down in their notes in both languages. Column A for vocabularies in English and column B for vocabularies in Arabic. Once the task of writing was done the teacher started to drill them on reading the words and their meaning with the intention of memorising them as they would be asked about them in next week. After that, there was a question was written on the board for the learners to answer it individually [where would you like to spend your holiday?] this question was translated to Arabic and every single student was participated by two sentences with their translation. There was a short time to highlight on the future simple tense as he explained briefly in general about this tense.

Week Six: What it is Your Future Plan

In the last week the teacher started the lesson by asking the learners about the vocabulary that they learned last week. The situation was one learner did the English words while another one did the Arabic words. Then he started the lesson by writing down on the bord the topic of the lesson with its translation to the Arabic language. Without giving examples or explanation about the topic he started immediately for the grammar section. He started to talk about the

future simple tense, as he explained in detail about the structure of the future simple tense and the uses of this tense. As well there was a highlight on the key words for example [tomorrow, next week, next year]. Then there were some examples which contained these key words. what is more, there was a deep explanation about making question and negative sentences in future simple tense. The lesson was ended by this question which was about your plan for your next holiday?

Appendix I: Debriefing Form

An investigation into the effects of applying the activities of Communicative Language Teaching Approach on English learners' speaking skills in Libya.

Dear Participant,

During this study, you were asked to take part in the experiment, and you were told that the purpose of the study is to enhance your speaking skills in English via applying the activities of communicative language teaching approach (Role-playing and Problem-solving). In this study, you did several tasks So, many thanks for your participation and I am really happy with your cooperation.

نموذج استخلاص المعلومات

تحقيق في آثار تطبيق أنشطة منهج التواصل اللغوي على مهارات التحدث باللغة الإنجليزية في ليبيا.

عزيزي المشارك،

خلال هذه الدراسة، طُلب منك المشاركة في التجربة، وقيل لك إن الغرض من الدراسة

هو تعزيز مهاراتك في التحدث باللغة الإنجليزية من خلال تطبيق أنشطة منهج تدريس اللغة التواصلية (لعب الأدوار

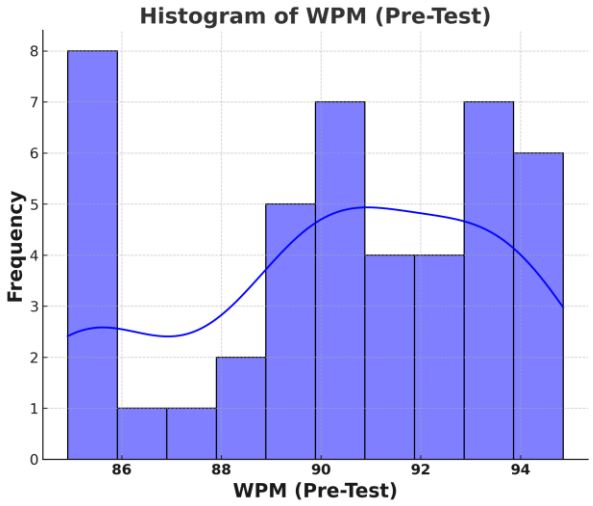
وحل المشاكل). في هذه الدراسة، قمتم بعدد من المهام، لذا، شكرا جزيلا لمشاركتكم وأنا سعيد حقا بتعاونكم.

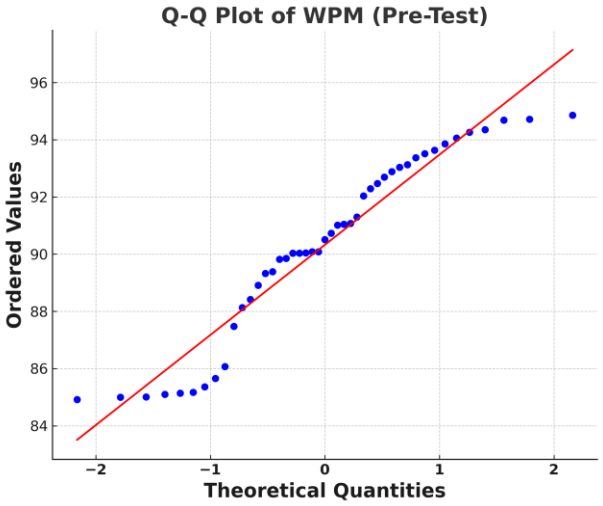
Appendix J: Transcript for S5 Pre-Test

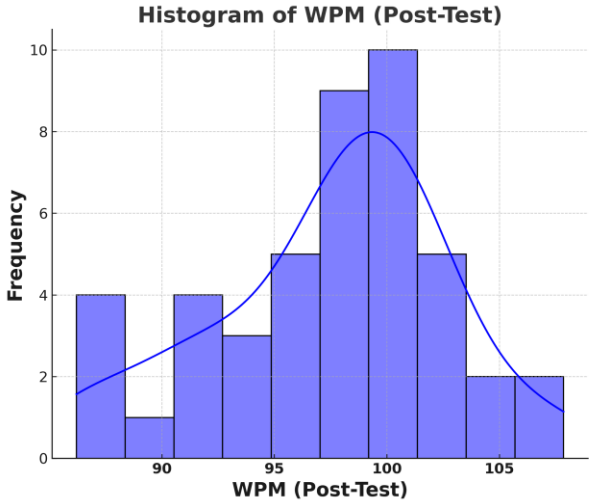
tudentCod	PreOrPost	Condition	Speaker	Utterance	StartTime	EndTime	Duration
S5	PRE	CG	student	rs old and	00:04	00:24	21.55
S5	PRE	CG	student	near to the	00:30	00:31	2.46
S5	PRE	CG	student	ot raining [	00:34	00:47	14.35
S5	PRE	CG	student	rk [:] most	00:49	01:09	21.63
S5	PRE	CG	student	:] for [:] be	01:16	01:25	10.79
S5	PRE	CG	student	] all the stu	01:30	01:59	30.43
S5	PRE	CG	student	my cousin b	02:07	02:27	21.77

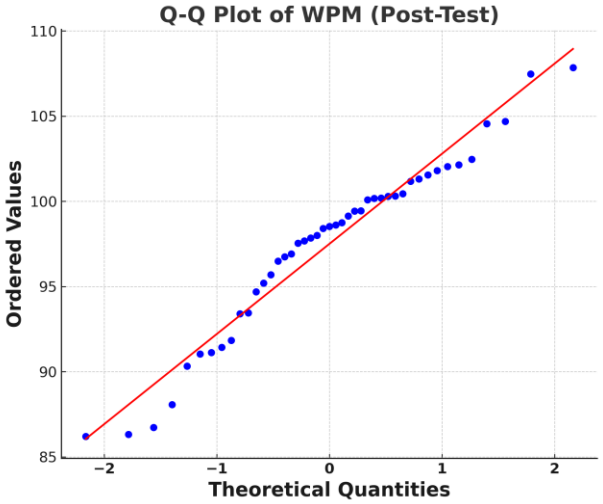
Appendix K: Normality Assessment Figures

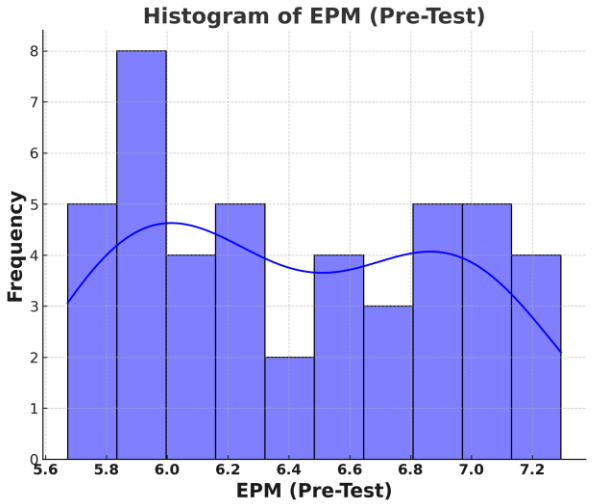
Histograms and Q-Q Plots for Data Distribution Verification

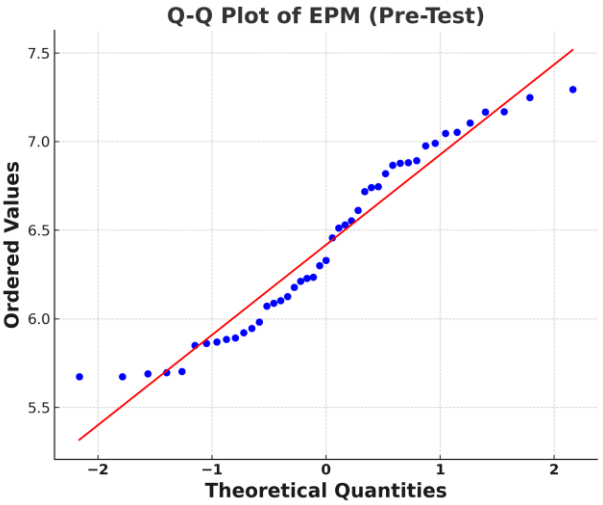


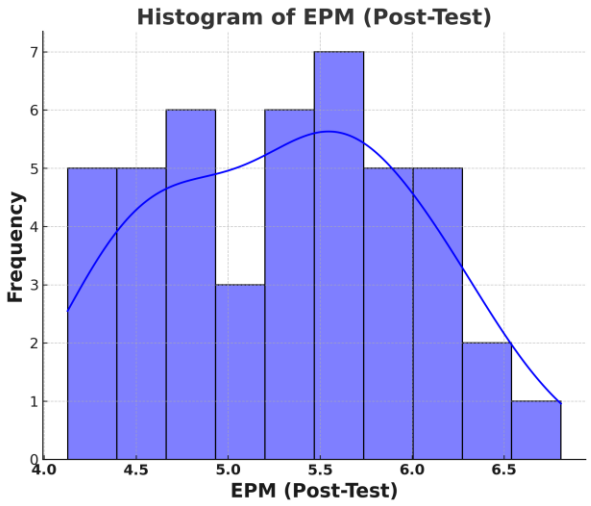


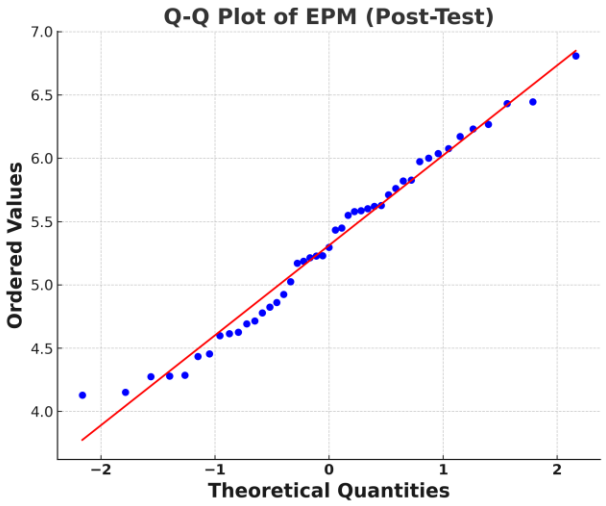


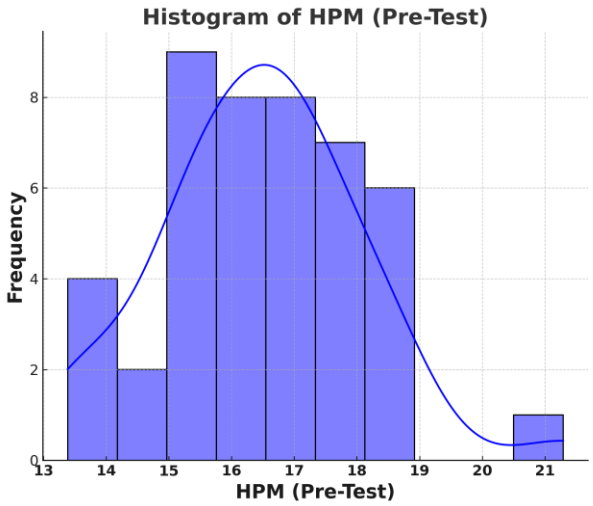


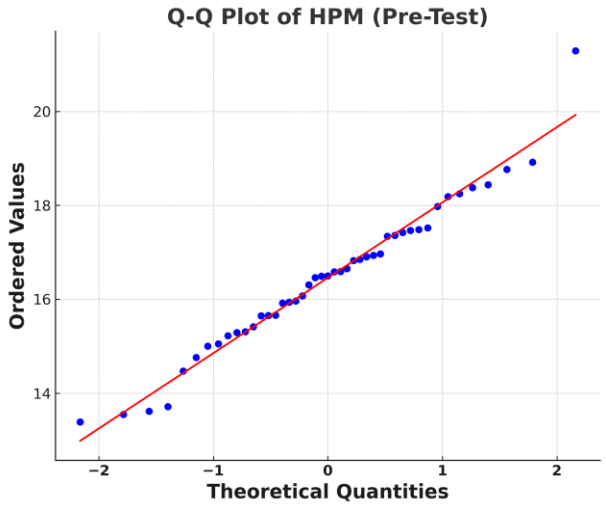


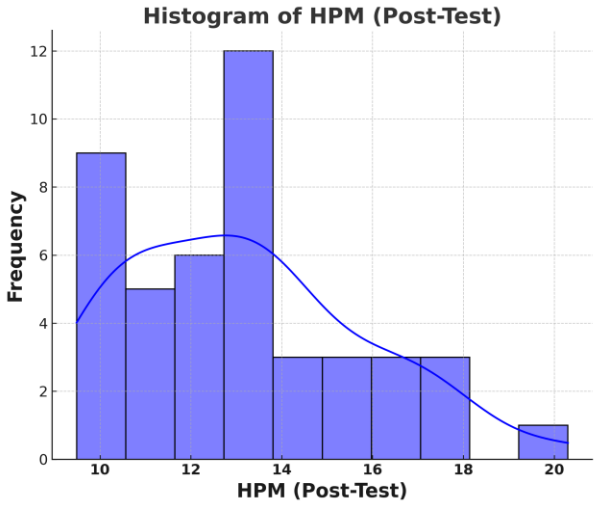


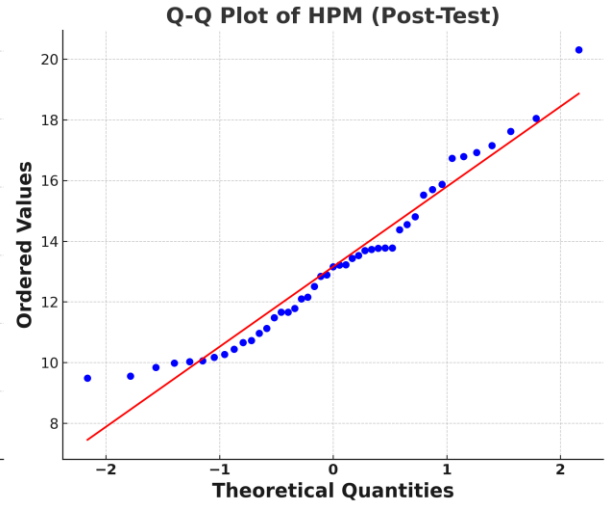

Histogram of EPM (Post-Test)
Frequency
EPM (Post-Test)

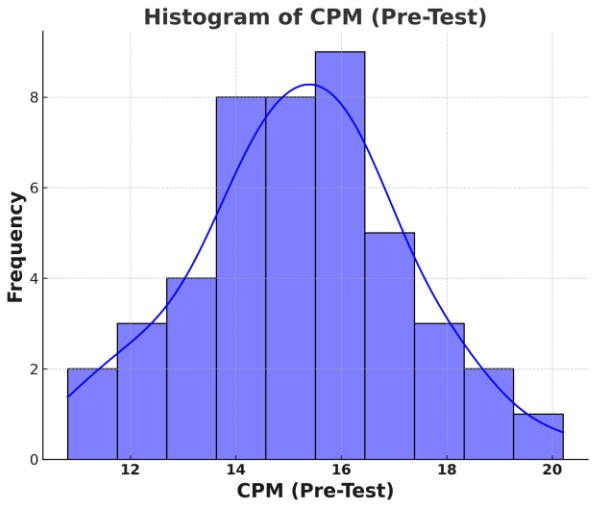

Q-Q Plot of EPM (Post-Test)
Ordered Values
Theoretical Quantities

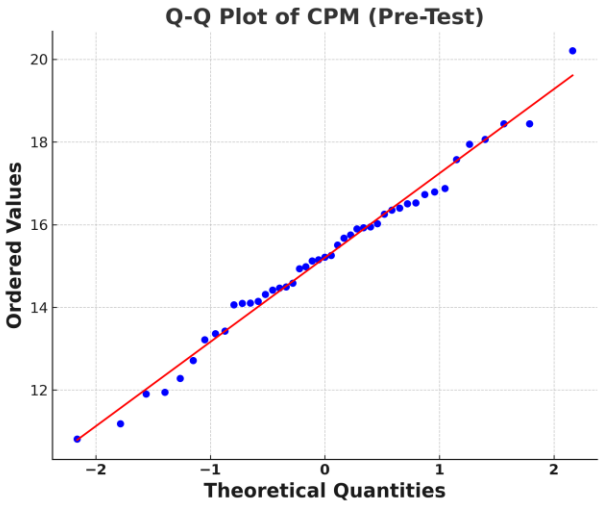

Histogram of HPM (Pre-Test)
Frequency
HPM (Pre-Test)

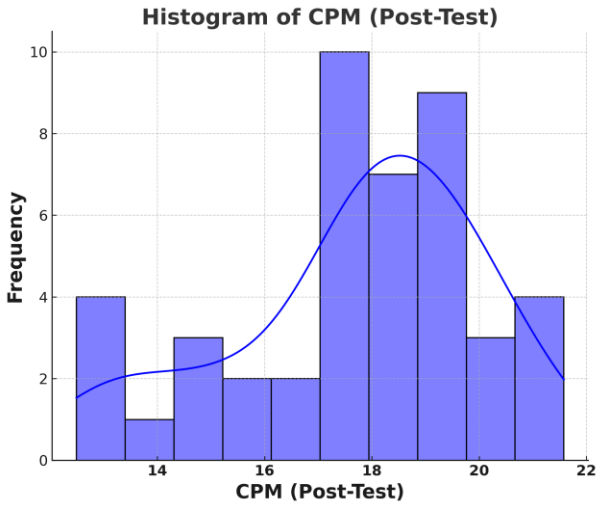

Q-Q Plot of HPM (Pre-Test)
Ordered Values
Theoretical Quantities

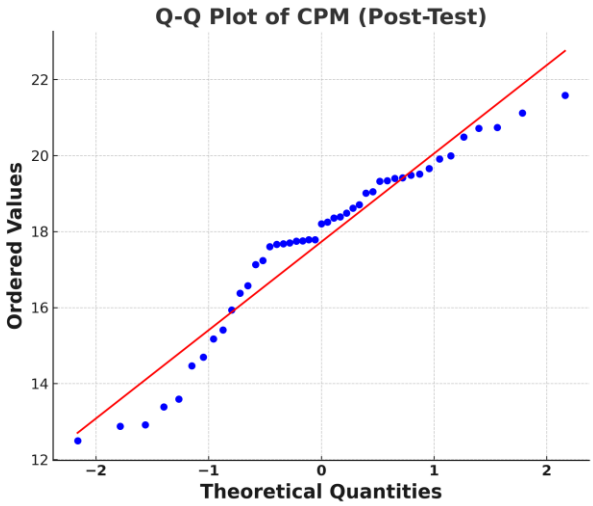

Histogram of HPM (Post-Test)
Frequency
HPM (Post-Test)

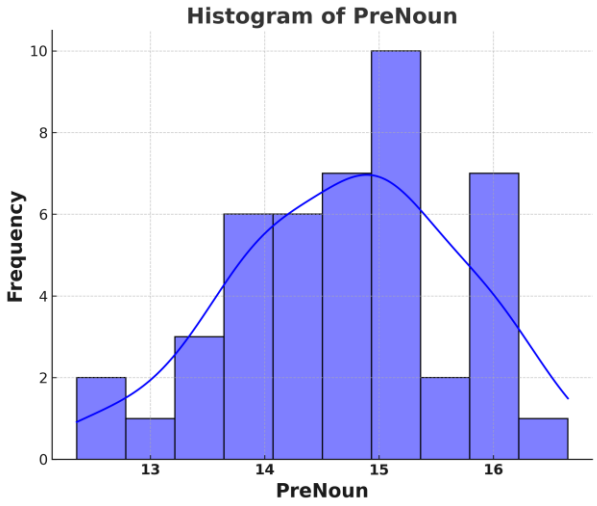

Q-Q Plot of HPM (Post-Test)
Ordered Values
Theoretical Quantities

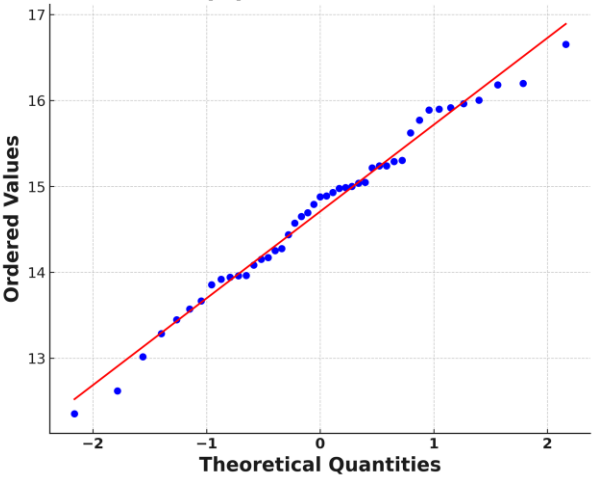

Histogram of CPM (Pre-Test)
Frequency
CPM (Pre-Test)

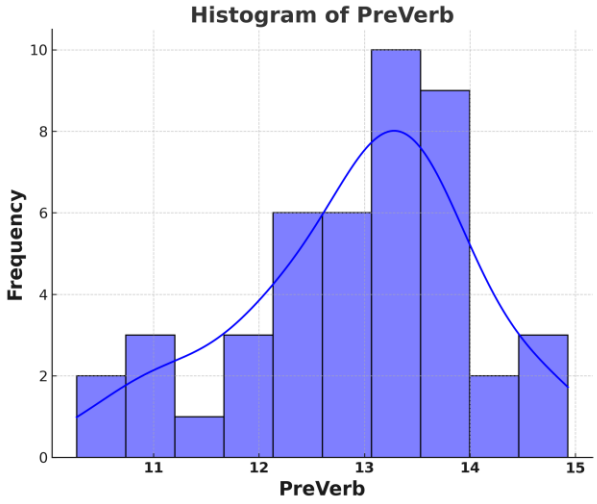

Q-Q Plot of CPM (Pre-Test)
Ordered Values
Theoretical Quantities

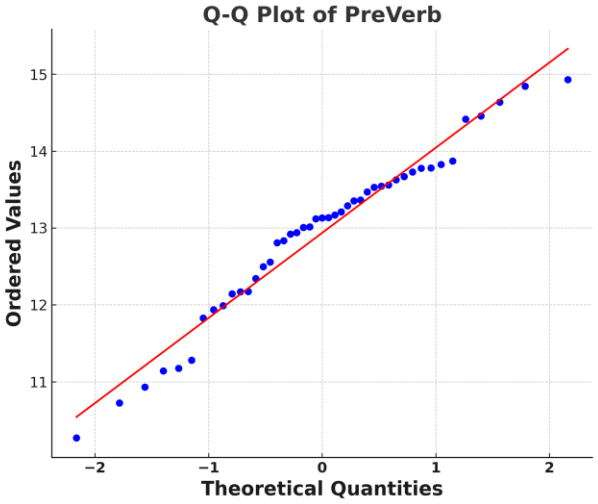

Histogram of CPM (Post-Test)
Frequency
CPM (Post-Test)

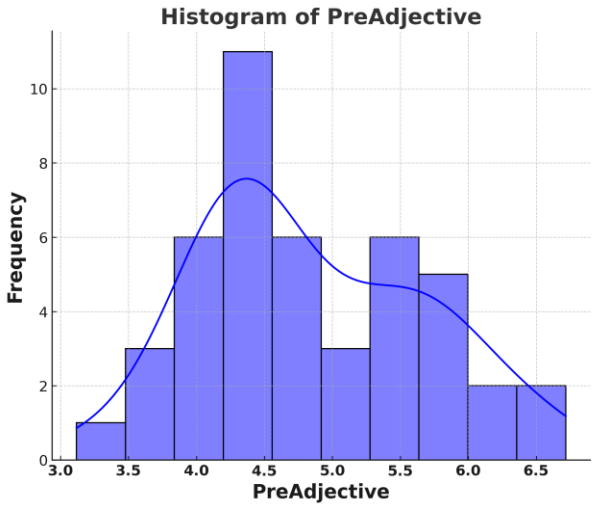

Q-Q Plot of CPM (Post-Test)
Ordered Values
Theoretical Quantities

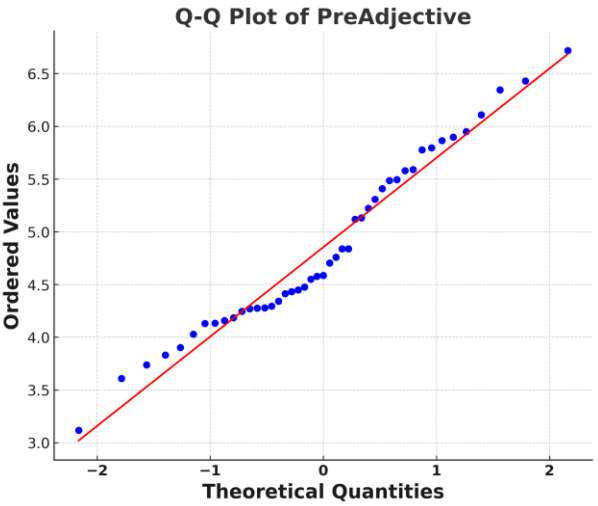

Histogram of PreNoun
Frequency
PreNoun

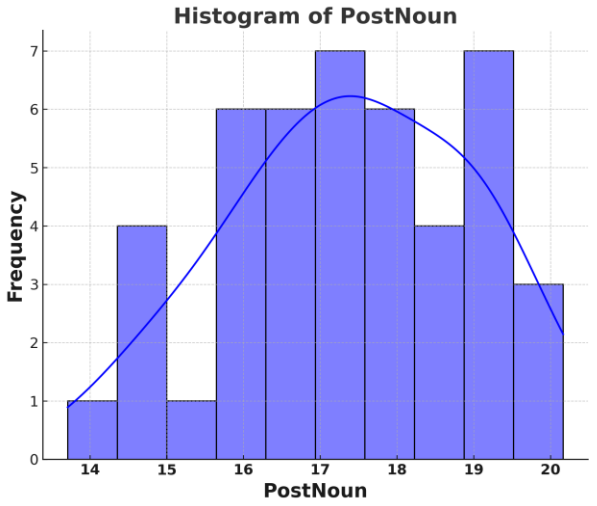

Q-Q Plot of PreNoun
Ordered Values
Theoretical Quantities

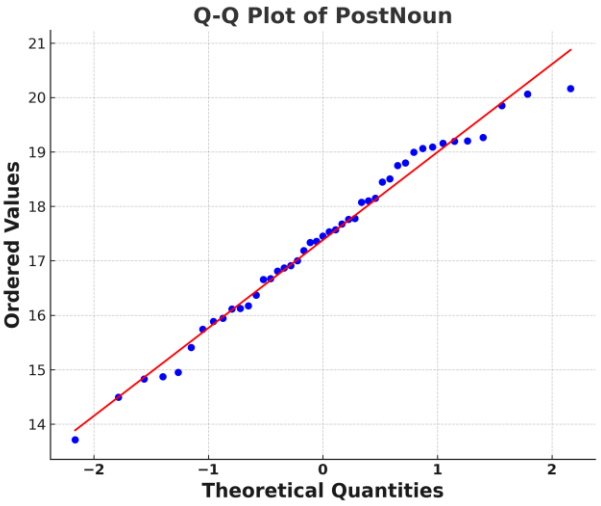

Histogram of PreVerb
Frequency
PreVerb

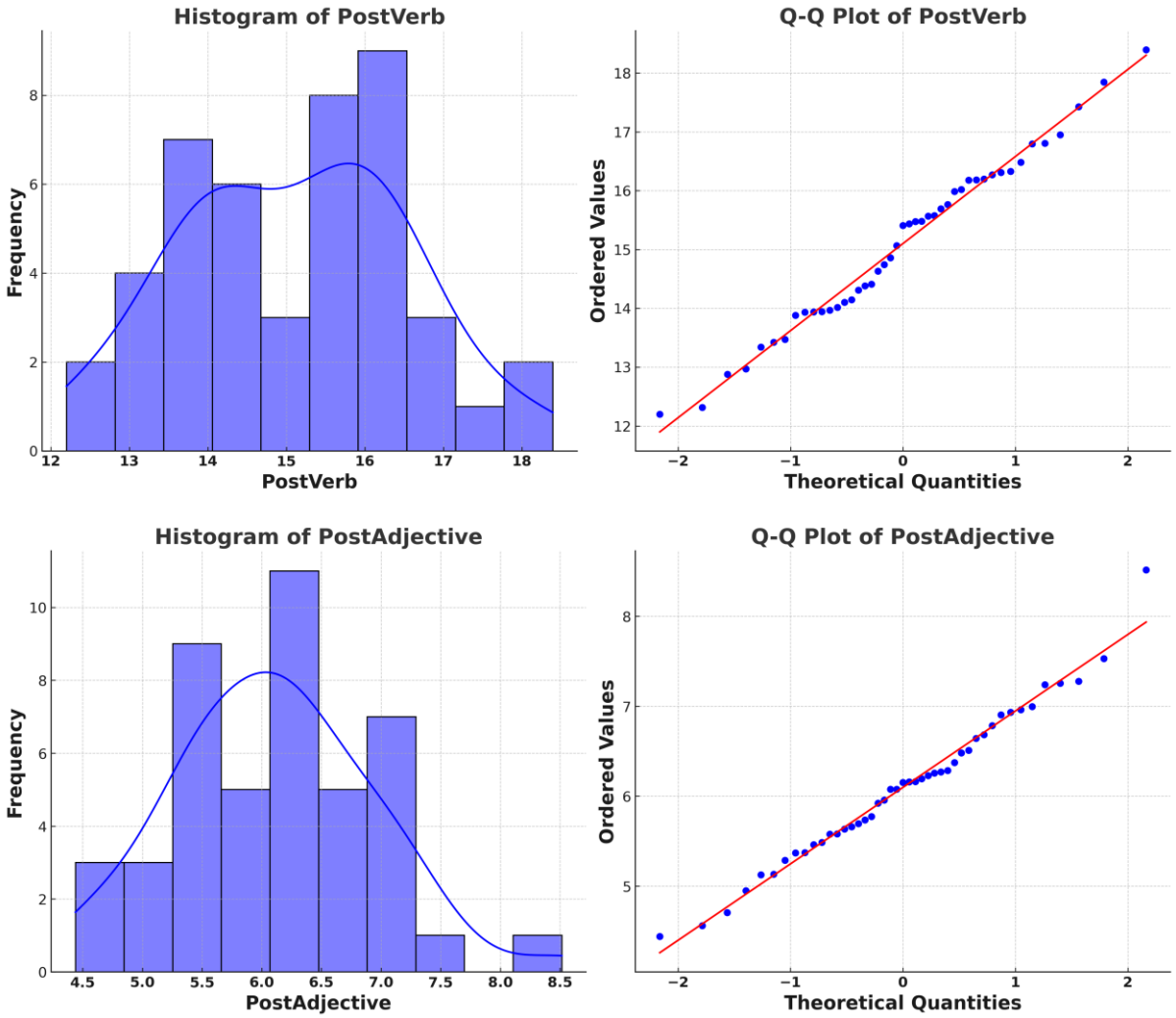

Q-Q Plot of PreVerb
Ordered Values
Theoretical Quantities


Histogram of PreAdjective
Frequency
PreAdjective


Q-Q Plot of PreAdjective
Ordered Values
Theoretical Quantities


Histogram of PostNoun
Frequency
PostNoun


Q-Q Plot of PostNoun
Ordered Values
Theoretical Quantities



Explanation of Symbols

- **WPM (Pre-Test)**: Words Per Minute measured during the pre-test phase.
- **WPM (Post-Test)**: Words Per Minute measured during the post-test phase.
- **EPM (Pre-Test)**: Errors Per Minute measured during the pre-test phase (grammatical errors per minute before intervention).
- **EPM (Post-Test)**: Errors Per Minute measured during the post-test phase (grammatical errors per minute after intervention).
- **HPM (Pre-Test)**: Hesitations Per Minute measured during the pre-test phase.
- **HPM (Post-Test)**: Hesitations Per Minute measured during the post-test phase.
- **CPM (Pre-Test)**: Clusters Per Minute measured during the pre-test phase.
- **CPM (Post-Test)**: Clusters Per Minute measured during the post-test phase.
- **NPM (Pre-Test)**: **Nouns Per Minute** measured during the pre-test phase.
- **NPM (Post-Test)**: **Nouns Per Minute** measured during the post-test phase.
- **VPM (Pre-Test)**: **Verbs Per Minute** measured during the pre-test phase.
- **VPM (Post-Test)**: **Verbs Per Minute** measured during the post-test phase.
- **APM (Pre-Test)**: **Adjectives Per Minute** measured during the pre-test phase.
- **APM (Post-Test)**: **Adjectives Per Minute** measured during the post-test phase.

Appendix L: Calculation of Measures

All measures were calculated in the same way, as shown in the following table:

tudentCod	PreOrPost	Condition	Speaker	Utterance	StartTime	EndTime	Duration	GramErrors	Clusters	WordCount	sitationCo	NounCount	VerbCount	AdjCount	GEPM	CPM	HPM	WPM	NPM	VPM	APM
S5	PRE	CG	student	rs old and	00:04	00:24	21.55	1	10	32	7	8	6	3	2.78	27.84	19.49	89.10	22.27	16.71	8.35
S5	PRE	CG	student	near to the	00:30	00:31	2.46	0	0	4	1	1	1	0	0.00	0.00	24.39	97.56	24.39	24.39	0.00
S5	PRE	CG	student	ot raining [	00:34	00:47	14.35	2	5	20	5	5	4	2	8.36	20.91	20.91	83.62	20.91	16.72	8.36
S5	PRE	CG	student	rk [:] most	00:49	01:09	21.63	3	5	30	7	7	6	4	8.32	13.87	19.42	83.22	19.42	16.64	11.10
S5	PRE	CG	student	:] for [:] be	01:16	01:25	10.79	1	2	18	4	5	4	0	5.56	11.12	22.24	100.09	27.80	22.24	0.00
S5	PRE	CG	student	] all the st	01:30	01:59	30.43	4	7	50	7	8	9	4	7.89	13.80	13.80	98.59	15.77	17.75	7.89
S5	PRE	CG	student	my cousin t	02:07	02:27	21.77	3	5	30	6	5	7	0	8.27	13.78	16.54	82.68	13.78	19.29	0.00
														Average	5.88	14.47	19.54	90.69	20.62	19.11	5.10

Appendix M: Pre-Test and Post-Test Grammatical Error Rates Per Word for Control and Experimental Groups

Participant ID	Group	Pre-Test Word Count	Post-Test Word Count	Pre-Test G-Errors	Post-Test G-Errors	Pre-Test Error Rate (per word)	Post-Test Error Rate (per word)
S1	Control	224	293	17	19	0.0759	0.0658
S2	Control	232	242	15	15	0.0646	0.0604
S3	Control	231	274	17	18	0.0720	0.0661
S4	Control	274	279	18	17	0.0639	0.0598
S5	Control	207	234	16	16	0.0752	0.0689
S6	Control	193	215	14	13	0.0739	0.0585
S7	Control	228	241	14	12	0.0627	0.0481
S8	Control	210	218	15	14	0.0711	0.0659
S9	Control	215	236	16	17	0.0757	0.0708
S10	Control	200	212	15	14	0.0730	0.0650
S11	Control	224	229	14	13	0.0631	0.0566
S12	Control	278	291	22	19	0.0776	0.0653
S13	Control	211	220	16	13	0.0775	0.0611
S14	Control	176	196	14	14	0.0805	0.0725
S15	Control	211	221	17	14	0.0796	0.0620
S16	EX1	287	387	18	15	0.0643	0.0380
S17	EX1	195	311	13	13	0.0667	0.0425
S18	EX1	233	421	18	21	0.0768	0.0502
S19	EX1	273	362	18	18	0.0659	0.0506
S20	EX1	239	427	17	18	0.0698	0.0428
S21	EX1	258	344	22	15	0.0834	0.0443
S22	EX1	224	308	14	16	0.0625	0.0521
S23	EX1	226	414	16	17	0.0722	0.0410
S24	EX1	292	307	19	13	0.0642	0.0431
S25	EX1	209	320	14	14	0.0681	0.0448
S26	EX1	210	338	14	17	0.0686	0.0505
S27	EX1	235	264	17	11	0.0745	0.0432
S28	EX1	210	356	15	17	0.0728	0.0487

S29	EX1	222	310	15	18	0.0657	0.0592
S30	EX1	178	317	15	18	0.0825	0.0569
S31	EX2	215	327	14	16	0.0662	0.0474
S32	EX2	228	320	14	17	0.0607	0.0525
S33	EX2	219	335	16	16	0.0746	0.0479
S34	EX2	214	415	15	23	0.0701	0.0543
S35	EX2	217	326	18	19	0.0827	0.0590
S36	EX2	220	418	16	23	0.0720	0.0550
S37	EX2	287	330	22	18	0.0757	0.0552
S38	EX2	236	343	14	16	0.0598	0.0474
S39	EX2	222	338	17	21	0.0765	0.0621
S40	EX2	205	350	16	22	0.0794	0.0616
S41	EX2	260	334	19	16	0.0723	0.0465
S42	EX2	241	322	16	17	0.0680	0.0525
S43	EX2	208	339	14	18	0.0665	0.0520
S44	EX2	235	331	17	17	0.0737	0.0524
S45	EX2	223	322	16	20	0.0701	0.0626

Appendix N: Pre-Test and Post-Test Results for Control and Experimental Groups across Four Measures

Participant ID	Group	WPM (Pre-Test)	WPM (Post-Test)	EPM (Pre-Test)	EPM (Post-Test)	HPM (Pre-Test)	HPM (Post-Test)	CPM (Pre-Test)	CPM (Post-Test)
S1	Control	93.690	95.130	7.130	6.260	14.930	13.880	16.730	15.180
S2	Control	94.000	96.810	6.110	5.850	13.650	12.900	20.130	18.480
S3	Control	89.330	91.180	6.430	6.030	16.010	15.630	14.450	16.170
S4	Control	90.020	91.120	5.760	5.450	18.120	18.010	13.400	14.470
S5	Control	90.000	94.690	6.770	6.530	21.390	20.340	14.470	15.130
S6	Control	85.780	86.390	6.340	5.060	16.880	15.470	12.700	13.390
S7	Control	92.000	93.490	5.770	4.500	18.960	16.910	16.480	17.580
S8	Control	85.000	86.340	6.070	5.690	17.330	15.740	14.500	13.070
S9	Control	93.000	95.960	7.040	6.800	15.950	13.440	11.940	13.600
S10	Control	85.000	86.760	6.210	5.640	18.260	16.660	15.220	14.760
S11	Control	90.030	91.830	5.750	5.200	16.500	17.740	10.800	13.120
S12	Control	88.000	90.370	6.830	5.900	15.890	13.080	15.180	12.400
S13	Control	89.920	93.390	6.970	5.710	15.360	16.790	15.760	17.490
S14	Control	85.000	88.280	6.850	6.400	18.810	17.200	16.040	17.300
S15	Control	89.000	91.480	7.110	5.670	15.850	13.220	15.540	16.420
S16	EX1	94.420	107.870	6.070	4.100	16.650	11.180	14.110	17.770
S17	EX1	85.030	98.740	5.670	4.200	16.560	10.620	15.830	19.590
S18	EX1	94.510	102.190	7.260	5.170	15.300	12.670	14.520	19.370
S19	EX1	90.710	101.450	6.000	5.130	17.530	11.750	16.270	21.610
S20	EX1	93.880	99.560	6.560	4.260	13.520	10.290	14.190	19.560
S21	EX1	85.350	97.560	7.120	4.320	14.510	10.960	12.040	18.450
S22	EX1	93.130	100.180	5.850	5.220	16.810	9.640	14.330	18.770
S23	EX1	94.350	99.970	6.810	4.100	17.120	11.900	14.920	18.130
S24	EX1	93.270	101.850	5.990	4.390	13.440	9.770	18.420	20.680
S25	EX1	90.600	104.560	6.170	4.680	17.410	10.030	14.200	18.920
S26	EX1	90.020	107.490	6.180	5.430	18.450	13.830	16.200	17.830

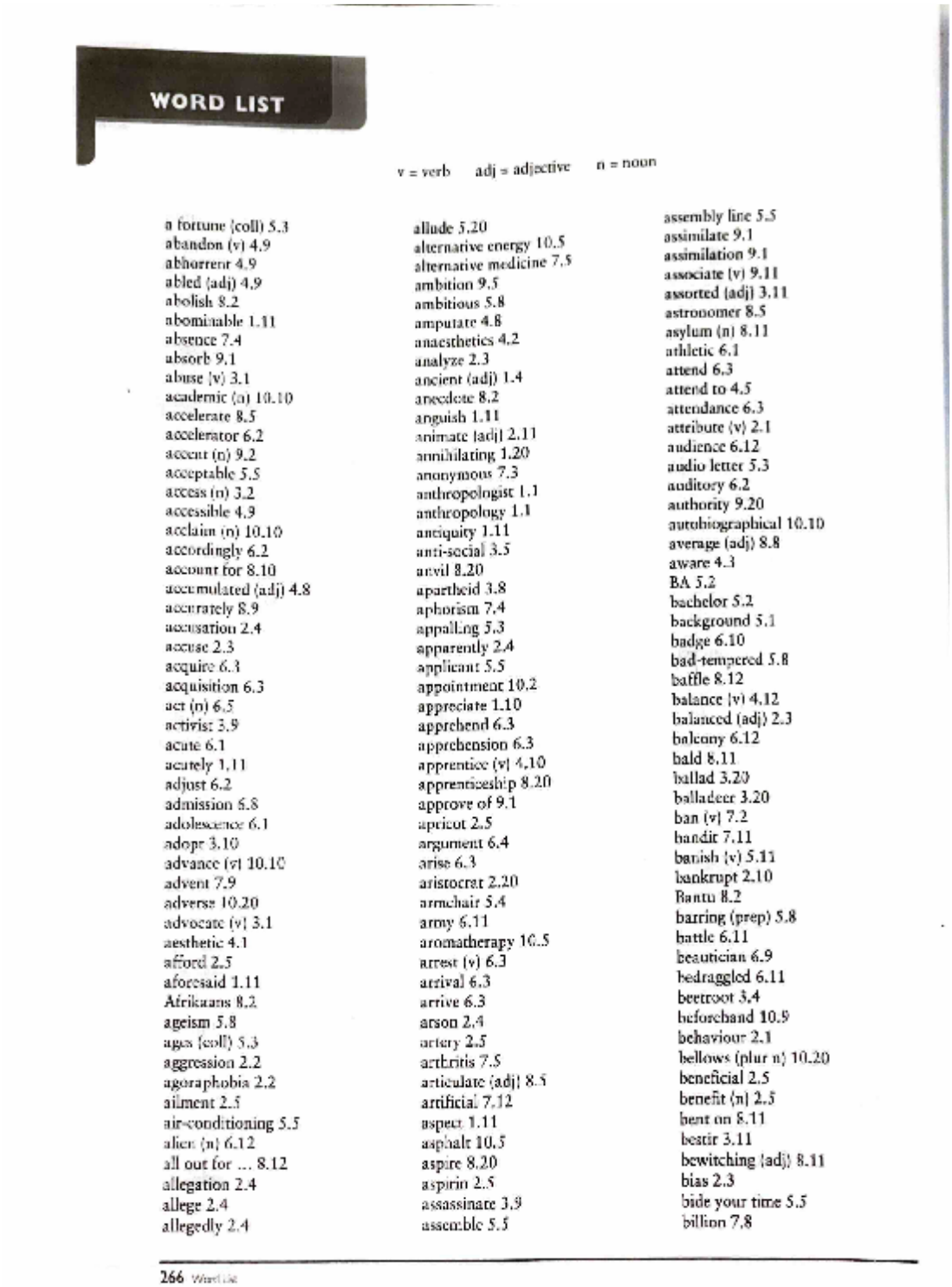
S27	EX1	94.670	104.350	7.050	4.510	16.200	9.930	18.050	21.210
S28	EX1	92.680	100.650	6.750	4.860	16.430	9.350	14.100	19.210
S29	EX1	90.040	100.190	5.920	5.930	13.760	11.680	16.390	20.810
S30	EX1	87.480	98.040	6.140	5.580	16.670	12.140	15.020	19.330
S31	EX2	92.590	98.590	6.130	4.670	18.000	13.820	15.720	17.720
S32	EX2	93.000	99.140	5.650	5.210	14.960	11.410	13.490	19.260
S33	EX2	90.010	100.460	6.720	4.810	15.380	13.720	15.170	17.620
S34	EX2	85.020	102.570	5.930	5.570	17.480	14.800	12.190	20.130
S35	EX2	86.040	99.390	7.120	5.860	17.100	13.830	16.740	17.860
S36	EX2	92.290	102.060	6.650	5.610	15.740	12.530	16.550	18.600
S37	EX2	89.370	96.340	6.770	5.320	16.590	10.040	13.290	16.480
S38	EX2	94.750	101.040	5.670	4.790	15.560	10.980	16.870	17.700
S39	EX2	91.470	98.490	7.000	6.120	17.420	14.600	18.050	19.910
S40	EX2	90.990	97.880	7.230	6.030	16.560	13.500	15.870	18.410
S41	EX2	85.030	100.250	6.150	4.660	15.250	14.670	15.270	17.060
S42	EX2	93.480	98.440	6.360	5.170	18.340	10.450	18.510	20.710
S43	EX2	88.340	96.860	5.880	5.040	16.820	10.240	11.270	18.490
S44	EX2	91.020	101.470	6.710	5.320	17.120	13.230	17.380	19.210
S45	EX2	91.010	97.680	6.380	6.120	15.260	12.250	16.010	19.570

Explanation of Symbols:

- **Participant ID**: This column represents the unique identifier assigned to each participant in the study.
- **Group**: This column indicates the group to which each participant belongs. The groups are as follows:
    - **Control**: The control group of participants.
    - **EX1**: Experimental Group 1.
    - **EX2**: Experimental Group 2.
- **WPM (Pre-Test)**: Words Per Minute measured during the pre-test phase.
- **WPM (Post-Test)**: Words Per Minute measured during the post-test phase.
- **EPM (Pre-Test)**: Errors Per Minute measured during the pre-test phase. This indicates the number of grammatical errors made per minute by each participant before the intervention.

- **EPM (Post-Test)**: Errors Per Minute measured during the post-test phase. This indicates the number of grammatical errors made per minute by each participant after the intervention.
- **HPM (Pre-Test)**: Hesitations Per Minute measured during the pre-test phase.
- **HPM (Post-Test)**: Hesitations Per Minute measured during the post-test phase
- **CPM (Pre-Test)**: Clusters Per Minute measured during the pre-test phase.
- **CPM (Post-Test)**: Clusters Per Minute measured during the post-test phase

Appendix O: List of Vocabulary



WORD LIST

v = verb adj = adjective n = noun

a fortune (coll) 5.3
abandon (v) 4.9
abhorrent 4.9
abled (adj) 4.9
abolish 8.2
abominable 1.11
absence 7.4
absorb 9.1
abuse (v) 3.1
academic (a) 10.10
accelerate 8.5
accelerator 6.2
accent (n) 9.2
acceptable 5.5
access (n) 3.2
accessible 4.9
acclaim (n) 10.10
accordingly 6.2
account for 8.10
accumulated (adj) 4.8
accurately 8.9
accusation 2.4
accuse 2.3
acquire 6.3
acquisition 6.3
act (n) 6.5
activist 3.9
acute 6.1
acutely 1.11
adjust 6.2
admission 6.8
adolescence 6.1
adopt 3.10
advance (v) 10.10
advent 7.9
adverse 10.20
advocate (v) 3.1
aesthetic 4.1
afford 2.5
aforesaid 1.11
Afrikaans 8.2
ageism 5.8
ages (coll) 5.3
aggression 2.2
agoraphobia 2.2
ailment 2.5
air-conditioning 5.5
alien (n) 6.12
all out for ... 8.12
allegation 2.4
allege 2.4
allegedly 2.4
allude 5.20
alternative energy 10.5
alternative medicine 7.5
ambition 9.5
ambitious 5.8
amputate 4.8
anaesthetics 4.2
analyze 2.3
ancient (adj) 1.4
anecdote 8.2
anguish 1.11
animate (adj) 2.11
annihilating 1.20
anonymous 7.3
anthropologist 1.1
anthropology 1.1
antiquity 1.11
anti-social 3.5
anvil 8.20
apartheid 3.8
aphorism 7.4
appalling 5.3
apparently 2.4
applicant 5.5
appointment 10.2
appreciate 1.10
apprehend 6.3
apprehension 6.3
apprentice (v) 4.10
apprenticeship 8.20
approve of 9.1
apricot 2.5
argument 6.4
arise 6.3
aristocrat 2.20
armchair 5.4
army 6.11
aromatherapy 10.5
arrest (v) 6.3
arrival 6.3
arrive 6.3
arson 2.4
artery 2.5
arthritis 7.5
articulate (adj) 8.5
artificial 7.12
aspect 1.11
asphalt 10.5
aspire 8.20
aspirin 2.5
assassinate 3.9
assemble 5.5
assembly line 5.5
assimilate 9.1
assimilation 9.1
associate (v) 9.11
assorted (adj) 3.11
astronomer 8.5
asylum (n) 8.11
athletic 6.1
attend 6.3
attend to 4.5
attendance 6.3
attribute (v) 2.1
audience 6.12
audio letter 5.3
auditory 6.2
authority 9.20
autobiographical 10.10
average (adj) 8.8
aware 4.3
BA 5.2
bachelor 5.2
background 5.1
badge 6.10
bad-tempered 5.8
baffle 8.12
balance (v) 4.12
balanced (adj) 2.3
balcony 6.12
bald 8.11
ballad 3.20
balladeer 3.20
ban (v) 7.2
bandit 7.11
banish (v) 5.11
bankrupt 2.10
Bantu 8.2
barring (prep) 5.8
battle 6.11
beautician 6.9
bedraggled 6.11
beetroot 3.4
beforehand 10.9
behaviour 2.1
bellows (plur n) 10.20
beneficial 2.5
benefit (n) 2.5
bent on 8.11
bestir 3.11
bewitching (adj) 8.11
bias 2.3
bide your time 5.5
billion 7.8

bind 9.10
binding (n) 10.17
biochemical (adj) 2.2
birth 7.8
birthright 5.5
bits and bobs 9.3
bitter 5.10
bitumen 10.5
blacksmith 6.8
blank verse 1.20
blaze (n) 2.4
blessing 4.9
blindfold (v) 6.2
blindness 4.9
blink (v) 3.4
blistered (adj) 6.11
blithe 9.20
blizzard 1.4
blockbuster 9.5
blonde (adj) 2.20
blood poisoning 6.20
bloodhound 3.20
blood vessel 10.20
bloody 6.11
blotch 6.11
blow (v) 10.20
blueprint 3.2
board (v) 6.3
boarding 6.3
boardroom 10.1
boiling 5.3
bonsai 7.2
bookcase 5.4
bookkeeper 5.4
border (n) 6.20
bough 3.11
bouquet 7.11
bower 3.11
boy wonder 1.5
boyhood 5.10
bracelet 7.5
brag (v) 2.20
brainstorming 4.12
brass 3.4
brawny 10.20
breadwinner 6.8
break into 9.5
breed (v) 3.1
bridge 3.3
brighten 9.20
brilliant 5.3
brindle cow 6.11
bring (someone) out of themselves 3.5
bring up 2.1
broadside 3.20
brook (n) 6.11
brotherhood 3.9
bruised (adj) 3.11
bullying (n) 6.22
bungee jumping 9.12
burden (n) 3.8
burn the candle at both ends 3.5
burst (adj) 10.20
bypass 5.4
cabin 3.11
cabin boy 2.10
cactus 7.5
call of nature 9.3
calm (adj) 6.1
camomile 7.12
campaign (n) 3.9
campaign (v) 10.10
campsite 9.12
campus 3.5
cancel 4.20
candidate 3.9
capability 4.9
capture the heart 1.5
caravanserai 4.20
carbon copy 2.2
career (n) 5.5
casing 4.5
casual 9.11
casualty 6.20
categorize 1.20
category 6.8
Caucasian 7.1
cause a stir 3.9
cavern 7.20
cease 4.9
ceaseless turmoil 7.20
celebrity 9.12
cell 3.1
cellular phone 10.1
cent 5.11
CEO 3.3
ceramics (plur n) 4.2
ceremony 7.2
chaff 10.20
chain (n) 8.20
chairperson 6.4
chamber 6.12
championship 8.9
chant (n) 1.20
chapter 6.5
character 6.5
characteristic 2.2
characterized by 7.1
charismatic 8.5
chasm 7.20
cheat (v) 5.5
checkout 1.9
cheerful 1.11
chess 8.9
childhood 8.5
chimney 1.11
chip (n) 2.11
chorus 6.12
chromosome 3.2
chronic 2.5
churn (v) 3.4
churning (adj) 6.11
circulation 2.12
circumference 1.11
circumlocution 10.3
cistern 4.5
citizen 2.8
citizenship 4.1
civil rights 3.9
civilian 6.20
claim (n) 2.4
claim (v) 2.4
clasp (v) 8.20
classic 8.10
claustrophobia 2.2
cliché 8.2
cling 3.11
clock on 5.5
clog (v) 2.5
clone (v) 2.1
cloning 3.1
clot (v) 3.1
cluster (v) 7.8
clustered (adj) 1.11
clutch (v) 7.11
coalition 8.2
coffin 7.11
coherence 8.22
coiled spring 5.5
coincide 9.10
coincidence 2.4
collapse (n) 8.5
collection 10.10
colonialism 3.8
colonization 7.1
colourant 2.5
coloured (n) 8.1
comb (v) 7.11
combination 5.12
comedy 6.5
comfort (v) 8.11

command (v) 6.3
commandment 6.3
commemorate 10.10
commercial break 2.9
common practice 4.9
commute 5.5
company 6.11
compass 1.11
complexion 2.20
concentrate 10.17
concentric 2.11
concept 8.8
conclusion 2.3
concrete 7.5
condemn 1.10
condolences 9.3
conduct (v) 8.8
confidentiality 10.9
confidentially 8.11
confirm 8.12
conflict (n) 6.11
conflicting (adj) 2.5
conformity 4.2
conjure with 7.2
conscientious 5.12
constant 6.2
consultation 2.12
contact (n) 10.2
contaminate 10.17
contemplation 8.1
contents policy 2.4
continuously 6.2
contract (n) 2.8
contribute 2.2
contribution 10.20
controversial 3.1
convalesce 4.8
conventional 4.10
convey 4.1
convict (v) 8.12
convict (n) 5.12
coordination 6.1
cope 6.1
copper 7.5
correspond 9.10
countenance 1.11
couplet 1.20
courage 6.10
courageous 3.9
crag 10.20
crate 7.11
creaking (n) 7.11
creative 5.8
creative writing 5.1
credibility 3.1
creed 3.9
creek 3.11
creeper 7.5
criminal (adj) 2.1
crimson 6.11
crisp (n) 2.5
crisp (adj) 10.20
critic 10.10
crop (n) 7.9
crossword 5.5
crowd (n) 5.3
crude 10.5
crushed (adj) 3.11
crystallization 1.11
cuisine 3.5
culture shock 7.1
curator 6.12
curly 7.1
currency 6.5
curriculum 4.1
curry 3.5
curse (n) 1.10
curtain 6.5
curtain call 6.12
customer 6.5
cut down 9.5
cut down on 2.5
dale 7.20
damp (adj) 1.11
dampen 9.12
dare (v) 8.20
darted (adj) 2.11
dash (v) 1.4
data 9.8
dawn (n) 6.12
dawn (v) 7.11
daylight 9.20
dead (coll) 5.3
deadly 8.20
deaf 4.9
deaf mute 4.8
deafness 4.9
debt 10.20
decay (n) 1.10
decay (v) 10.5
decipher 7.11
decisive 5.8
declaim 1.11
declaration 2.8
declare war 6.20
decline (n) 5.5
decline (v) 1.10
decree (n) 9.11
deed 10.20
deepen 4.8
deeps (plur n) 8.20
defeated (adj) 6.20
defect 4.9
defend 6.20
defendant 8.12
definition 6.22
deformed (adj) 4.9
degenerative disease 4.8
degree 10.10
dehydrate 2.5
dehydration 2.5
delicious 5.3
demobilize 6.20
demographics 7.8
demography 7.8
demote (v) 10.1
density 7.8
depart 6.3
departure 6.3
deport 7.9
deposit (n) 10.12
deposit (v) 6.5
descendant 1.10
description 6.22
desegregate 3.9
desert (v) 3.3
deserve 2.5
design (v) 10.9
designer 8.8
detect 6.1
determined (adj) 9.5
development 10.17
deviation 4.9
device 6.2
devil's advocate 7.2
devote (v) 8.1
dextrous 6.1
diagnosis 4.2
dial (n) 6.2
diameter 8.5
diet (n) 2.12
differential 6.1
differentiate 6.1
diffidently 6.11
digestion 2.5
dignity 1.11
dimension 7.11
dine 3.20
diplomat 7.10
direction 6.5
disability 1.8
disappearance 8.12

disapproval 8.2
discipline 4.2
discontent 1.11
discourage 9.1
discovery 8.17
discriminate 1.8
discussion 6.22
disembark 6.3
disembarkation 6.3
disgrace 8.11
disgusting 5.3
dismal 1.11
dismiss 6.3
dismissal 6.3
dismount 6.3
disobey 3.9
display (v) 6.2
disposal 6.3
dispose of 6.3
disprove 10.9
distance learning 5.1
distance training 5.2
distinctive 4.9
distinguish 8.1
distinguished (adj) 3.1
distress 4.8
distribute 6.3
distribution 6.3
divan 5.20
divergence 6.8
diverse 4.1
diving (n) 3.5
division 2.2
DNA 2.1
doctorate 3.9
document (n) 8.2
doggedly 6.11
dome 7.20
dominant 9.1
double (v) 7.8
double helix 3.2
double meaning 6.12
doubtless 9.10
down here 9.3
downfall 8.22
downpour 1.4
dozen 8.5
drain (v) 7.4
dramatic irony 6.5
dramatically 1.10
dramatis personae 6.5
dread 8.20
dreadful 5.3
dreamily 8.11
drift (v) 3.11
drill (v) 8.5
drive out 7.9
drop (something) round 5.12
drown 7.5
drumroll 7.11
dumb 4.9
dwarfish 4.8
dwell 1.11
eagle 10.4
earn 6.3
earn my bread 1.11
earnings 6.3
earphone 6.2
ease (v) 9.11
eaten up 5.5
economic sanctions 8.2
economist 2.8
edible 10.10
edifice 1.11
editorial (n) 2.3
educationalist 4.2
educative 4.1
efficiency 10.12
elastic band 2.2
elderly (n) 5.8
elegance 7.11
elemental 9.11
eliminate 3.1
Elizabethan (adj) 2.4
elope 9.20
emerge 4.1
emotional 5.8
empathize 5.8
empire 5.20
emulsion 4.5
encapsulate 2.20
enclose 3.5
enclosed (adj) 6.1
encounter 8.22
encouragement 9.10
endeavour (v) 5.8
endure 6.8
enfold 7.20
engineering 10.5
engraver 8.20
enhanced (adj) 10.5
enlist 6.11
enormous 1.4
enslave 7.1
en-suite (adj) 6.12
enter (data) 10.9
enthusiasm 5.5
entomologist 10.10
entrance (n) 4.5
environment 2.1
envy 3.4
episode 7.11
equate 10.1
equation 4.12
ere 2.11
erect (v) 10.20
escalator 2.2
ethnic 3.1
ethnic group 7.1
ethnic minority 2.9
eugenics 3.1
euphemism 9.3
euphoria 7.11
evaluate 8.8
evaluation 6.22
even (n) 9.20
evenly 7.8
evidently 8.11
exaggerate 5.3
exceed 4.1
excellent 5.3
exception 4.9
excuse (n) 3.8
exhale 1.11
exhausted (adj) 4.3
exhibition 9.12
exigency 9.11
exotic 7.5
expand 5.20
expectancy 6.11
expedition 6.20
expel 9.20
experimental 9.10
experimenter 6.2
explanation 6.22
exploitation 10.17
exploration 10.5
exploratory 10.17
explorer 7.11
explosion 7.8
expose 6.3
exposure 6.3
expressive 1.11
exterior (adj) 4.5
extinguish 6.3
eye-splice 2.11
eyewitness 5.4
face (v) 4.12
factor (n) 2.1
faculty 7.11
fade (v) 8.17
faint (adj) 8.17

fall under a spell 5.5
fame 1.10
famine 7.9
fantastic 5.3
fantasy 7.10
farce 6.5
fateful 8.22
fathom 5.10
fatty acid 2.5
faulty 2.4
fear (v) 4.9
fearful 8.20
feebly 3.11
feedback (n) 6.2
feel obliged 9.2
fellow feeling 5.8
feminist 10.10
ferry (n) 10.4
fertilization 4.2
fiancée 1.5
fibre 2.5
fidelity 2.11
field-dependence 6.1
field-dependent 6.1
figure of speech 3.3
fill up on 2.5
final analysis 8.2
finalist 8.9
fingerprint 2.2
fire (v) 5.5
fire brigade 2.4
first round 3.3
first-generation 8.1
fit to bust 5.11
fitness 2.12
fizzy 2.5
flail 7.20
flake (n) 3.11
flap (v) 7.11
flawed (adj) 8.22
flip (v) 5.12
flood back 5.5
flower arranging 5.1
fluorescent 4.5
flush (v) 4.5
flying start 5.1
foolproof 5.4
foot pedal 6.2
footbridge 8.12
foothills (plur n) 7.11
footpath 5.4
foreman 5.5
forge (n) 10.20
forgetful 5.8
formation 10.5
formidable 6.8
found (v) 9.10
fowl 2.11
fraction 10.5
fractional distillation 10.5
fragment (n) 7.20
frail 3.11
frame (v) 8.20
fraternal twin 2.2
freak 4.9
freephone 7.12
freezing 5.3
frequent (v) 4.20
frog 9.11
front 6.20
frontier 4.10
fruit fly 3.2
fumble (v) 5.12
fumes (plural n) 2.5
furious 7.11
furnace 8.20
gable 1.11
gadget 9.2
gale 1.4
game (n) 7.20
garbage 3.9
garlic 6.12
garret 1.11
gas attack 6.20
gawk 5.11
gender 1.8
gender marking 6.4
gene 3.1
generally 6.1
generation gap 5.8
genetic 2.1
geneticist 2.2
genetics 3.1
genius 3.1
genome 3.2
genre 4.20
genuine 6.5
geologic 10.17
geologist 10.17
get engaged 1.5
get on with (someone) 3.5
get promotion 1.5
get to know (someone) 3.5
ghetto 8.1
gigantic 1.4
girdle (v) 7.20
gladness 9.20
glimpse (n) 3.5
global 6.20
globe 10.5
glory 6.11
gloss paint 4.5
gold mine 3.10
gold mining 3.10
gold rush 3.10
goldfish bowl 9.3
golf 6.5
graduate (v) 4.8
grandiose 7.11
graphic (adj) 3.3
grasp (n) 8.20
grass-roots level 8.2
gravity 3.11
great 5.3
greenery 7.20
grime 1.11
grimly 5.12
grind (v) 6.8
groove (n) 2.11
gulch 3.11
gulf 2.11
gunsmith 6.8
gym 2.12
hacking (n) 9.5
haemophilia 3.1
hail (n) 7.20
hall of residence 3.5
hammer (n) 8.20
handle (n) 6.2
handmade 5.4
hand-sewn 9.10
hanker 5.11
harmonious 9.20
harpoon (n) 2.11
harpooneer 2.11
harsh 4.2
harvest 1.20
haunt (v) 7.20
have a get-together 3.5
have a night out 3.5
have (something) in common 3.5
haven 10.20
hawk 3.20
heartbroken 1.4
helpline 7.12
herbal 7.12
hereditary 2.1
hermit 8.1
heroine 6.12
hideously 4.9
hilarious 5.3
hinge (n) 4.5

hip (n) 8.8
hippie (n) 10.2
hire (v) 5.5
Hispanic (adj) 9.2
historical 10.17
homeland 7.9
Homeric (adj) 6.11
honor (Am) 3.11
hook (n) 10.3
hooligan 2.4
hopelessness 2.8
horizon 6.11
horizontally 10.1
horse (n) 10.3
hostile 9.1
hosted 3.20
hum (n) 5.5
human race 3.1
human rights 2.8
humane 6.8
hurrah (v) 5.11
hydrocarbon 10.5
hymn 6.4
hyponym 10.4
hypothesis 1.1
iambic pentameter 1.20
ideal 9.1
identical 2.1
identity 7.1
idiom 8.2
idiot 4.9
ignite 6.3
igniting (adj) 2.11
ignition 6.3
ignorance 5.8
ignore 4.9
imagery 5.20
imitation 7.5
immaterial 6.12
immature 1.4
immaturity 5.8
immense 1.4
immigrant 9.1
immigration 3.1
immobile 10.1
immortal (adj) 8.20
imperceptibly 3.11
impermeable 10.5
imply 7.2
impose 6.20
imprecision 1.3
imprison 4.9
impulsive 5.8
in action 6.20
in charge 4.3
in origin 2.2
incapacity 4.8
incense (n) 7.20
incidence 2.8
income 2.8
incorporate 7.2
inculcate 8.11
incurable 4.8
index 2.8
indication 6.2
indigenous 7.1
inedible 5.3
inequality 1.8
inevitable 8.5
infatuation 2.11
infelicitous 3.11
inferior 3.1
influence (v) 4.10
information technology 5.1
ingredient 7.12
inhabitant 7.5
inherit 2.1
initial (adj) 6.5
injection 10.12
injustice 3.9
innovative 1.4
inquire 6.3
inquiry 6.3
insecurity 2.10
insist 4.1
inspect 4.5
inspirational 7.4
install 2.4
instruction manual 7.11
instructor 2.12
insure 2.4
intact 7.11
intake 2.5
integrate 9.1
intellect 9.20
intense 9.20
intercom 6.5
internal combustion engine 10.5
interweave 7.10
intrepid 7.11
introductory 2.17
introvert 3.5
invade 3.8
inventiveness 4.8
invest 6.9
investment 2.8
invincible 7.11
IQ test 2.1
iron out 3.2
irrelevant 10.9
irrigation 4.2
isolate 6.1
isolation 7.2
jerk (v) 6.11
jet-setting 2.4
jog 1.4
join a club 3.5
joystick 6.2
jumper 1.3
jungle 7.12
junk food 2.5
jury 8.12
justification 6.22
justify 8.12
karate 8.9
keen (adj) 9.20
keep one's word 6.5
kerosene 10.5
key (adj) 8.1
kidnap (v) 8.12
knob 4.5
laboratory 7.12
lad 10.20
lance-pole 2.11
landlady 5.3
landowner 10.1
landscape 6.5
lapse (n) 1.11
largely 6.1
launderette 3.5
lavender 7.12
lavender oil 7.5
lead story 8.12
leaden 6.11
leadership 2.2
leak (v) 4.5
lease (n) 2.20
leavings 3.20
let the side down 3.5
let your hair down 3.5
lever (n) 6.2
lick (v) 6.11
lie of the land 5.12
life event 1.5
life expectancy 2.8
lifelong 5.1
lifespan 5.9
lifestyle 2.5
lift off 7.11
linguistics 1.1
literacy 5.2
literal 1.10

literally 9.20
lizard 8.1
loads (coll) 5.3
local colour 3.10
location 3.2
lofty 2.11
log (v) 10.17
lonesome (Am) 1.11
longevity 5.8
loo 9.3
lookout (n) 2.11
loose 7.11
loss 8.12
lottery 10.1
love at first sight 1.5
low-studded 1.11
lubricant 10.17
lute 3.20
luxurious 2.4
luxuriously 5.12
MA 5.2
magnetized (adj) 7.5
maintain 2.4
maintenance 4.5
majority 8.2
make a clean breast 5.11
manor 2.4
mansion 1.10
map (v) 3.2
march (n) 6.11
marine (adj) 10.5
market research 8.8
massacre (n) 5.4
mast 2.11
masterpiece 2.10
mastery 6.4
mattress 2.5
maze 4.3
meadow 6.11
mean (average) 9.8
meander (v) 7.20
meaningless 8.9
measureless 7.20
measurement 8.8
meat packer 9.2
median (average) 9.9
medication 1.3
medieval 10.1
medium-sized 1.4
melancholy (adj) 1.11
melting pot 9.1
memorial 3.9
mercilessly 8.11
merely 6.1
merge 7.1
metaphor 3.3
metaphorically 9.1
metaphysical 1.20
metre 1.20
metrical 4.20
mica 3.11
microchip 1.4
microscopic 1.4
midway 7.20
migrant 7.9
migrate 7.9
migration 7.1
miles (coll) 5.3
military (adj) 6.20
millennium 8.12
millpond 3.4
miner 6.9
mingle 7.20
minstrel 3.20
minuscule 1.4
miracle 7.20
miraculous 2.12
mishap 7.11
misquotation 7.4
mistrust 2.8
mobile (adj) 10.1
mobile 4.9
mobility 4.8
mobilize 6.20
mode (average) 9.9
momentary lapse 5.12
Mongoloid 7.1
monocultural 7.2
monoculturalism 7.2
monorhyme 4.20
monotonous 7.2
monotony 5.5
monster 4.9
monthly 5.5
moral (adj) 1.10
moral (n) 8.11
morale 2.8
mortal (adj) 7.11
mosaic 9.1
moss 1.11
motivate 4.12
motive 5.11
mount (v) 6.3
moving (emotion) 4.10
muezzin 4.20
multi-ethnic 7.2
multi-factor analysis 10.9
multirhyme 4.20
multitude 7.11
mushroom 6.12
mute 4.9
mysteriously 2.4
myth 7.10
narrator 6.5
narrow (v) 9.20
natural health 7.5
nature 2.1
nauseating 5.3
necessities 4.8
needlework 6.1
Negroid 7.1
nematode worm 3.2
Neolithic 7.8
network (n) 10.2
neutral (adj) 2.3
New Year's Eve 9.5
newsletter 5.4
newsworthy 3.20
nicotine patch 2.17
nobility 4.2
nomadic 6.8
non-addictive 7.12
noose 4.20
norm 4.9
nostalgic 5.5
notable 5.20
notorious 8.12
nozzle 10.3
nuance 1.3
nucleotide 3.2
nucleus 3.2
numeracy 5.2
numerical 9.9
nurture 2.1
oarsman 2.11
oasis 3.9
objective 2.3
obligation 6.20
obsession 7.2
occasional 6.20
occupation 5.5
occupational 5.1
ocean 1.20
octagon 10.5
odious 1.11
office block 7.5
off-white 1.3
oil rig 10.5
oil tanker 10.5
oilfield 5.4
ointment 10.17
old master 6.12

old wives' tale 6.1
on impulse 5.5
operator 7.12
opinion 2.3
opposing 6.20
oppress 6.9
oppression 3.9
optimistic 5.8
orbit (v) 8.5
orderliness 2.2
ordnance 5.11
organic 10.5
organic vegetable 7.5
organism 10.5
orphan 8.10
out of shape 2.17
outcast 3.10
outgoing 3.5
outlaw (n) 6.8
outrun 10.8
over the moon 1.5
overcome 4.9
overdose (v) 7.5
overgrown 3.4
overlook 5.4
overtake 6.3
overtime 5.5
overweight 7.8
overwhelm 3.3
owe 10.20
pagan (adj) 1.20
palm (of hand) 1.4
pant (n) 7.20
parachute jumping 8.9
parade (v) 7.11
parallel (n) 10.10
paralysis 4.9
paralyzed 4.8
pass (n) 7.11
pass away 9.3
pass on 9.3
passage 5.4
passive smoking 2.5
patch (n) 1.3
patent (n) 10.17
patience 6.5
patio 10.4
pattern (n) 6.1
peace (n) 6.20
peak (n) 7.11
peaked (adj) 1.11
peasouper 1.4
pebble 3.11
peel (v) 4.5
percentage 9.8
perch (n) 2.11
perch (v) 7.11
permission 6.3
permit (v) 6.3
personal organizer 10.1
personnel 4.3
persuade 2.17
persuasion 2.17
pessimistic 5.8
pesticide 7.5
pet hate 8.2
petroleum 10.5
pH 10.5
phantom 2.11
pharaoh 10.5
PhD 5.2
phenomenon 10.1
phobia 2.2
phonograph 4.8
phrase (v) 8.9
physical ability 1.8
picture-postcard (adj) 8.22
piety 4.20
pillow 7.12
pilot 5.10
pine (n) 3.11
pitched battle 6.20
plant (n) 8.12
platform 10.4
plea 6.3
plead 6.3
plot 6.5
plump (adj) 1.4
poet laureate 10.20
poignant 4.8
poison (v) 5.11
poker 3.10
policing (n) 2.8
politically correct (PC) 6.4
pomp 4.20
pond 8.11
populous 7.8
porous 10.17
portion 6.11
portrayal 8.10
possess 6.12
possession 2.4
post (n) 4.3
postgraduate 8.5
posting (n) 6.20
potash 4.2
potential 4.1
poultry 2.5
pound (v) 5.12
pour (with rain) 5.3
poverty 5.5
powder room 9.3
power (v) 10.17
precise 1.3
predict 1.10
predominantly 7.1
prehistoric 7.11
prejudice (n) 6.9
premises (plur. n) 7.12
present (v) 2.3
preservative 2.5
press conference 1.5
pressure (n) 10.5
prick your conscience 5.5
prime (v) 6.11
prime (adj) 5.12
printer 4.10
procession 5.11
productive 3.1
productivity 6.9
profess 2.4
profession 5.5
profitable 5.5
profuse 9.20
prohibit 6.3
prohibition 6.3
projector 4.8
promote (v) 5.5
promote 4.8
prompt (v) 8.22
propeller 7.11
prophesy 7.20
proportion 7.1
prose 1.20
prosecute (v) 5.11
prosody 1.20
prospector 3.10
protest (v) 3.9
proverbs 7.4
pry open 7.11
pseudonym 5.10
psychiatric disorder 2.1
public recognition 10.20
publish 10.10
pulse 5.12
pulseless 3.11
pump (v) 10.5
pun 7.3
punishment 7.9
purchase (n) 6.3
purchase (v) 6.3
purify 1.11

pursuit 6.2
push-button 6.2
put to flight 4.20
putt (v) 6.5
puzzle (n) 5.5
quarantine 3.11
quartz 3.11
quatrain 4.20
quest (n) 2.10
questionnaire 8.8
quilt 6.11
racial 2.9
racial discrimination 3.1
racial group 7.1
racism 1.8
racist (n, adj) 3.8
radioactivity 6.8
radium 6.8
rage 5.12
raise (v) 8.10
raisin 2.5
rally (n) 9.12
ramble (v) 9.11
ramp 1.9
range 7.11
ransom note 8.12
ravel 9.11
read (n) 10.10
reasonably 6.1
rebel (n) 2.4
rebellion 6.11
rebound (v) 7.20
recede 5.12
receptionist 6.5
recipe 7.12
reclusive 9.10
recognition 10.10
recommendation 6.5
recompense (n) 6.12
recover 1.5
recoverable 10.17
recovery 10.5
recruit (v) 5.5
rectify 4.5
recuperate 6.20
recurring 9.10
red herring 6.12
redundancy 5.5
redundant 5.5
refined 2.5
refining 10.5
refraction 4.2
refugee 7.9
regard (v) 10.20
regret (n) 6.11
reinforce 6.4
rekindle 5.5
relaxation 2.12
reliable 10.17
renowned 7.10
rent (v) 1.9
rental 4.5
reopen 8.12
repair (n) 4.5
repair (v) 6.3
repetition 5.5
replacement 6.9
repose (n) 10.20
reputation 10.10
resemblance 1.20
resent 4.12
resentment 3.8
reserves (plur n) 10.5
reservoir 10.12
residential 8.2
resolution 2.17
respond 6.3
response 6.2
restoration 9.12
restrict 4.12
retention 10.17
retire 6.3
retirement 5.1
retrain 5.1
revenge (n) 5.5
reverse (v) 5.8
revise (change) 4.10
rheumatism 7.5
rhyme (n) 1.20
rhyme scheme 1.20
rhyming couplet 6.12
rhythm 6.5
ridicule 4.9
ridiculous 2.3
rill 7.20
riot (n) 8.2
rival (adj) 2.20
riverbank 5.4
robin 9.11
roles 6.8
romanticize 3.10
rote 4.1
rub (v) 10.17
rude 3.11
run foul 2.11
run of the mill 8.9
runaway (n) 5.10
rush hour 5.5
rusty 1.11
saga 10.10
salary 5.5
sample (n) 8.8
saturated (adj) 2.5
scan (v) 6.2
scar (v) 6.11
scene 6.5
scent (n) 7.5
scheme (v) 5.5
scholarship 8.5
schooling (n) 4.10
science fiction 6.5
scorcher 1.4
screen (n) 6.2
scribe (n) 4.2
scrupulously 3.11
seabed 10.5
sea-faring 2.10
seam 9.11
second 5.3
second only to 4.8
second-hand 9.12
secular 5.20
sedimentary 10.17
see battle 10.20
seedling 8.5
seemingly 2.4
seep 10.17
seepage 10.17
seethe 7.20
segmented (adj) 9.1
segregate 3.8
segregation 8.1
seize 8.20
selective 3.1
self-defence 6.8
self-defense (Am) 3.11
self-evident 3.9
self-generated 4.12
self-published 1.10
semester 6.10
seminary 9.10
send-off (n) 7.11
sensitive 6.1
sensor 10.17
separate (v) 8.1
sequel 5.10
sequence 3.2
serious 4.8
serpent 10.10
set foot on 2.2
settle down 1.5
severe 9.10

sexism 1.8
sexist 6.9
sexton 10.20
shampoo 7.12
shattered 5.3
shed (n) 10.3
shelf 10.3
shell (n) 7.5
shelling (n) 6.20
sheriff 6.8
shimmer (v) 3.4
shingle (n, Am) 1.11
shipwreck (n) 6.10
shirk 6.11
shop floor 5.5
shopsoiled 5.4
shore 8.11
shortage 7.8
shortlisted 10.10
shoulder (n) 8.20
shower head 4.5
showroom 5.4
shriek (v) 7.5
shrill 9.20
shroud (n) 2.11
shrub 3.11
Siamese twin 4.9
sibling 9.10
sidelong 2.11
sideshow 4.9
siege 6.11
sigh (v) 8.11
signal (n) 8.17
significant 6.8
silver 5.10
simile 3.3
simplicity 9.11
sinew 8.20
sinewy 10.20
sink (n) 4.5
sinuous 7.20
sit on the fence 2.2
skip (v) 2.5
slanting 7.1
slavery 4.10
sledge (n) 10.20
sleeve 1.3
slot (n) 6.2
slum (n) 6.10
smallest room 9.3
smite (v) 2.11
smithy (n) 10.20
snail 7.5
snaked (adj) 5.3
soar 9.20
soccer 1.5
sociability 2.2
sociable 5.8
social animal 3.5
social mobility 10.1
socialization 4.1
sociology 2.3
solemn 5.5
soloist 6.12
songbird 9.20
sonnet 1.20
sophisticated 10.17
sordidness 1.11
souvenir 7.11
spanner 10.4
spear (n) 8.20
speculate 7.11
speech 6.5
spell (n) 5.5
sphere 9.20
spiral 4.12
sporty 8.5
spot (v) 1.5
spotty 6.5
spread (v) 10.10
sprint (v) 1.4
squeak (v) 4.5
stabbing pain 5.2
stabilize 7.8
stage 6.5
stake (n) 6.12
standstill 6.20
stanza 1.20
stark 2.11
starving 5.3
stately 7.20
statistician 8.8
statistics 7.8
statue 10.10
stature 10.10
status 1.5
steak 6.12
steamboat 5.10
stem (n) 7.5
stereotyped (adj) 2.9
sterilization 3.1
stimulate 4.8
stimulus 6.2
stoop (v) 2.11
stopwatch 5.4
strain (n) 9.20
strand 3.2
strategy 3.9
stressed (adj) 5.8
stressful 4.12
stricken 2.11
strict 4.2
strike (n) 8.2
striped 1.3
strive 9.11
stroke (illness) 4.10
stroll (v) 7.11
structural engineers 8.12
struggle 6.11
sub plot 6.12
sub-aqua 3.5
subjective 2.3
substance 10.17
suffer 6.20
sullen 2.11
sultan 4.20
sum up 4.5
summary 6.22
sunken (adj) 9.20
sunrise 6.12
superb 5.3
superficially 9.20
supernatural (adj) 4.9
supernatural (n) 3.20
superstar 1.5
supply and demand 6.9
supporter 2.4
surf 2.11
surprisingly 6.1
survey (n) 8.8
surveyor 2.10
susceptibility 2.1
sway 8.12
sweating 6.1
swelter 3.9
swift (adj) 7.20
switch (v) 5.5
syllable 1.20
symbolic 1.10
symmetry 8.20
synchronized footfall 8.12
systematic 10.17
tablet 7.12
take after 2.1
take (something) into account 5.1
takeaway (n) 3.5
talent 8.5
talented 1.5
talk over (someone's) head 2.9
tap (v) 10.12
target (n) 5.5
tax (n) 9.2

technical brilliance 9.20
technique 4.8
teenage 6.8
teenager 8.8
telecommuting (n) 7.9
telescope 8.5
teller 5.10
temperate 2.20
temptation 6.9
tend (look after) 4.10
tend 6.8
tendency 2.1
tender 10.20
tension 10.10
tentative 4.3
terminology 6.12
textile 4.2
thatched (adj) 8.22
theology 3.9
therapy 2.12
thigh 4.8
thingamebob 10.3
thingy 10.3
thresher 7.20
thrill (v) 6.11
thriller 6.5
throb 5.12
ticking 5.5
tide of misfortune 3.3
tilt (v) 5.11
time bomb 5.5
time off 5.5
timely 4.12
time-saving (adj) 4.12
tinder 4.8
tiny 1.4
tissue 3.1
to say the least 8.20
toil (v) 10.20
tolerate 1.8
tons (coll) 5.3
topic 6.5
torchlight 5.11
tortoise 5.9
toss 5.12
trace (v) 6.2
tragedy 6.5
tragically 10.20
trail (n) 6.11
train (v) 4.2
trait 2.1
trance 6.11
tranced (adj) 2.11
tranquil 6.11
transcending 1.20
transform 3.9
translate 4.10
transmit 4.1
treasured (adj) 2.4
treasury 5.20
treaty 6.20
trembling 9.10
tremendous 10.5
trench warfare 6.20
trend 7.8
triangle 6.2
tribe 6.8
trifle 3.11
triumph (n) 7.11
troop (n) 6.20
trough 6.11
tub 2.11
tuberculosis 9.20
tumult 7.20
tunnel 8.5
turmoil 7.20
turn down 2.9
turret 4.20
twin 2.1
twist in the tale 6.12
twisted (adj) 6.11
tycoon 2.4
typical 8.8
ulcer 2.12
unacceptable 3.1
unbearable 6.20
unbodied 9.20
uncool 2.5
underclass 9.1
undergo 10.17
undergrowth 7.5
underlying 2.9
under-represent 2.9
understate 5.3
unelaborate 3.20
unexceptional 1.4
unfashionable 2.20
unforgiving 3.4
uniform (n) 6.11
unique 7.12
universal 2.8
universe 8.5
unopened 7.11
unpaid 5.1
unpremeditated 9.20
untarnished 7.11
untouched 8.12
up there 9.3
uprising 5.4
uproar 7.11
upwardly 10.1
utility room 10.4
utter (v) 10.20
vacancy 4.3
vacate 6.12
vague 6.11
valuables (plur n) 2.4
value (n) 2.4
vaporize 10.5
vapour 10.5
variegated 3.11
vault (v) 7.20
velocity 2.11
vendor 7.11
venerable 1.11
venerate 5.8
verdict 8.12
verse 1.20
versus 2.1
vertically 10.1
vet (n) 9.3
vicious 3.4
victory 3.3
view (n) 2.3
viewpoint 6.5
villa 10.4
vintage 9.12
virtual 8.5
virtuoso performer 4.8
viscosity 10.12
viscous 10.12
vision 6.11
visionary (adj) 8.20
visit (v) 10.20
visual 6.2
vital 9.1
vitamin 7.5
vocational 4.2
voice box 4.8
voluntary (adj) 7.1
volunteer (adj) 7.11
volunteer (v) 5.10
voracious 4.10
vortex 2.11
wage (n) 5.5
wail (v) 7.20
waist 8.8
wane 7.11
warfare 5.4
warp (v) 8.5
wasteland 7.9
wastepaper basket 6.5

water (v) 8.20
waterproofing (adj) 10.17
wax (n) 10.5
wealth 5.5
weather-beaten 1.11
weighted (adj) 2.3
weird 7.2
well-mannered 4.1
well-off 2.9
western 6.5
whatjamecallit 10.3
whatsisname 10.3
wheelchair 1.8
whistling (n) 7.11
whitewash 3.11
whizz-kid 2.4
wholesome 1.11
wildcatting (n) 10.17
willing 1.11
windbreak 5.4
windscreen 5.4
wing (v) 9.20
wink (n) 8.5
wiring (n) 2.4
wise 5.8
witchcraft 1.10
withdraw 1.20
womb 2.2
wonderful 5.3
word (v) 8.8
workman 5.4
workspace 8.8
worthwhile 2.3
wound (v) 6.20
x-ray 2.12
yawning (adj) 2.11
yoga 2.12
youngster 1.5
yuppie 10.1
zebra crossing 10.4